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1998



Social Panorama

OF LATIN AMERICA



UNITED NATIONS



The *Social Panorama of Latin America* is issued each year by the Social Development Division and the Statistics and Economic Projections Division of ECLAC. The Social Development Division was responsible for preparing the chapters on social expenditure, the status of children in the region and public safety, and the Statistics and Economic Projections Division for those dealing with poverty, income distribution and employment. The preparation of the 1998 edition was supervised by the directors of these two divisions, Mr. Rolando Franco and Mr. Pedro Sáinz, respectively. Mr. Juan Carlos Feres, Mr. Pascual Gerstenfeld and Mr. Arturo León were also involved in coordinating the work on this edition. The various chapters were written by the above-mentioned staff and Ms. Irma Arriagada. Ms. Mariluz Avendaño, Mr. Carlos Datoch, Mr. Ernesto Espíndola and Mr. Carlos Howes compiled and processed the statistical information presented in this edition. The databases from which the quantitative data were drawn are maintained by the Statistics and Economic Projections Division, except in the case of the database on social expenditure, whose maintenance is the responsibility of the Social Development Division. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) has also made a valuable contribution to the preparation of the 1998 edition of the *Panorama*.

Notes and explanations of symbols

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

- The dots (...) indicate that data are missing, are not available or are not separately reported.
- Two dashes and a period (--) indicate that the sample size is too small to be used as a basis for estimating the corresponding values with acceptable reliability and precision.
- A dash (-) indicates that the amount is nil or negligible.
- A blank space in a table indicates that the concept under consideration is not applicable or not comparable.
- A minus sign (-) indicates a deficit or decrease, except where otherwise specified.
- A point (.) is used to indicate decimals.
- Use of a hyphen (-) between years, e.g. 1999-1993, indicates reference to the complete number of calendar years involved, including the beginning and end years.
- The word "dollars" refers to United States dollars, unless otherwise specified.
- Individual figures and percentages in tables may not always add up to the corresponding total, because of rounding.

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The 1998 edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* presents poverty estimates for 17 countries around 1997 together with data on changes in income distribution, employment and social spending.

The main factors influencing poverty trends in the various countries are examined, and the ways in which these trends are affected by the type of economic growth occurring in each nation are explored. A general discussion is also presented of income distribution and of the changes observed in indicators of urban and rural household income concentration.

This edition of the *Panorama* also analyses trends in employment and unemployment, particularly with regard to the entry of young people and women into the labour market, job creation and labour absorption in various sectors, and how they relate to productivity and income levels.

Sectoral trends in public social expenditure during the 1990s, their heterogeneity and their characteristics during various subperiods are discussed. Determinants of these trends are identified, the progressivity of such expenditure, by sector and by socioeconomic stratum, is assessed, and the possibilities of sustaining the existing level of expenditure in the coming years are explored.

In view of the influence that teachers' salaries exert on educational expenditure levels, information is provided on recent trends in the wages of instructors in primary and secondary schools and on how they compare with pay levels for other professionals.

The region's performance in terms of the goals established by UNICEF for the year 2000 is evaluated, and trends are examined as they relate to factors that undermine the well-being of children and adolescents, such as child labour and teenage pregnancies.

The chapter on the social agenda looks into the relationship between violence and a lack of public safety, criminal behaviour and the socio-economic profiles of victims and aggressors. This discussion is supplemented by a presentation of the views of city officials in 14 urban centres concerning the main issues and initiatives in this field, together with a description of a number of successful experiences.

Social trends in Latin America during the 1990s have been influenced by a variety of factors, including the institutional reforms undertaken in most of the countries of the region, the resumption of economic growth followed—in recent years—by a slowdown in economic activity, changes in the labour market, the upswing in social expenditure that has come in the wake of the deep spending cuts made in the 1980s, and the different agendas drawn up by the Governments in their efforts to deal with the social lags inherited from the preceding decade as well as the challenges posed by the advent of new development models.

This edition of the *Social Panorama* devotes particular attention to the analysis of poverty trends in the region, an examination of public social expenditure and how it has changed during the 1990s, an assessment of the region's performance in terms of the achievement of the goals set for the year 2000 by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and an exploration of factors that limit children's and adolescents' opportunities for well-being.

POVERTY

Between 1990 and 1997 poverty diminished in the great majority of Latin American countries, with the percentage of poor households decreasing from 41% to 36%, which was nearly as low as the level attained in 1980 (35%). This reduction also made it possible to curb the growth of the poor population, which had jumped from 136 million to 200 million during the 1980s but had not risen beyond 204 million as of 1997. Trends in extreme poverty, or indigence, have followed much the same pattern, as the percentage of indigent households recorded in 1980 (15%) climbed to 18% in 1990 but then fell back to 15% in 1997; by the same token, the ranks of the indigent, who had totalled 62 million in 1980, had grown to 93 million by 1990 but then declined to less than 90 million by 1997. Since poor households are, on average, larger than other households, the percentage of the population that is poor is greater than the percentage of poor households; as of 1997 these figures were 44% and 19%, respectively (48% and 23% in 1990) (see table 1).

Most of the 64 million people who joined the ranks of the poor during the 1980s lived in cities, and the percentage of urban poverty therefore climbed sharply (from 46%, or 63 million people, in 1980 to 61%, or 122 million people, in 1990) while rural poverty decreased from 54% to 39%, although the number of poor people in rural areas actually rose slightly (from 73 million to 78 million). This trend towards an increasing "urbanization" of poverty, which has played a very prominent role in the deteriorating quality of life in the region's cities, came to a halt in 1990, since between that year and 1997 the urban/rural breakdown and actual numbers of urban and rural poor have remained virtually unchanged.

Of course, the fact that a majority of the poor population now lives in urban areas does not mean that rural poverty has actually decreased. In 1980, 54% of rural households were

Table 1

POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN LATIN AMERICA a/						
1980-1997						
Year	Percentage of households					
	Poor households b/			Indigent households c/		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	35	25	54	15	9	28
1990	41	35	58	18	12	34
1994	38	32	56	16	11	34
1997	36	30	54	15	10	31
	Size of population (in thousands)					
	Poor d/			Indigents e/		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	135 900	62 900	73 000	62 400	22 500	39 900
1990	200 200	121 700	78 500	93 400	45 000	48 400
1994	201 500	125 900	75 600	91 600	44 300	47 400
1997	204 000	125 800	78 200	89 800	42 700	47 000

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

a/ Estimate for 19 countries in the region.

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

c/ Percentage of households below the indigence line.

d/ Persons living in poor households. Includes the indigent population.

e/ Persons living in indigent households.

poor; by 1990 this figure had risen to 58%, but by 1997 it had fallen back to 54%. Similarly, 28% of rural households were classified as indigent in 1980; by 1990 the figure had climbed to 34% and by 1997 it had been lowered to 31% (the percentages of indigent urban households recorded for those same years were 9%, 12% and 10%, respectively).

Although poverty trends during the 1990s have been positive, they should be assessed with care, since the region only recently regained the percentages achieved in 1980 and has not managed to make any actual reduction in the numbers of poor and indigent persons in the region since 1990, which remain at around 200 million and 90 million, respectively. What is more, it is quite likely that the region's rate of economic growth will be slower in the closing years of the decade than they were between 1990 and 1997, which will make it more difficult to reduce poverty in the future and may even fore shadow a possible increase in some countries.

These overall trends in poverty and indigence are the result of differing patterns in the individual countries. Significant reductions have been achieved in some, with decreases of 13 percentage points in poverty and of 6 points in indigence in Chile; of 12 and 7 points, respectively, in Brazil; and of 9 and 6 points in Panama. In others, the decreases have been somewhat smaller, as in the cases of Costa Rica (4 and 3 points), Peru (4 and 0) and Colombia (2 and 5 points, the latter for the period 1994-1997). In a few

Table 2

POVERTY AND INDIGENCE, BY COUNTRY, 1990-1997 (Percentages)							
Country	Year	Households below the poverty line a/			Households below the indigence line		
		Total	Urban areas	Rural areas	Total	Urban areas	Rural areas
Argentina b/	1990	-	16	-	-	4	-
	1994	-	10	-	-	2	-
	1997	-	13	-	-	3	-
Bolivia c/	1990	-	47	-	-	20	-
	1994	-	46	-	-	17	-
	1997	-	44	-	-	16	-
		57	(47)	72	33	(19)	54
Brazil d/	1990	41	36	64	18	13	38
	1993	37	33	53	15	12	30
	1996	29	25	46	11	8	23
Chile	1990	33	33	34	11	10	12
	1994	24	24	26	7	6	8
	1996	20	19	26	5	4	8
Colombia	1990	-	35 e/	-	-	12 e/	-
	1994	47	41	57	25	16	38
	1997	45	39	54	20	15	29
Costa Rica	1990	24	22	25	10	7	12
	1994	21	18	23	8	6	10
	1997	20	17	23	7	5	9
Ecuador	1990	-	56	-	-	23	-
	1994	-	52	-	-	22	-
	1997	-	50	-	-	19	-
El Salvador	1995	48	40	58	18	12	27
	1997	48	39	62	19	12	28
Guatemala	1989	63	48	72	37	23	45
Honduras	1990	75	45	84	54	38	66
	1994	73	70	76	49	41	55
	1997	74	67	80	48	35	59
Mexico	1989	39	34	49	14	9	23
	1994	36	29	47	12	6	20
	1996	43	38	53	16	10	25
Nicaragua	1997	-	66	-	-	36	-
Panama	1991	36	34	43	16	14	21
	1994	30	25	41	12	9	20
	1997	27	25	34	10	9	14
Paraguay	1990	-	37 f/	-	-	10 g/	-
	1994	-	42	-	-	15	-
	1996	-	40	-	-	13	-
Peru g/	1997	37	25	61	18	7	41
Dominican Republic	1997	32	32	34	13	11	15
Uruguay	1990	-	12	-	-	2	-
	1994	-	6	-	-	1	-
	1997	-	6	-	-	1	-
Venezuela	1990	34	33	38	12	11	17
	1994	42	41	48	15	14	23
	1997	42	-	-	17	-	-
Latin America h/	1990	41	35	58	18	12	34
	1994	38	32	56	16	11	34
	1997	36	30	54	15	10	31

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

a/ Includes indigent, or extremely poor, households.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Eight departmental capitals plus the city of El Alto. The figures in parenthesis for 1997 represent the total for urban areas throughout the country.

d/ Provisional figures.

e/ Eight major cities.

f/ Asunción metropolitan area.

g/ Figures from the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI) of Peru, based on information from national household surveys (ENAHU) conducted in 1995 and 1997 (fourth quarter). ECLAC currently preparing the corresponding estimate.

h/ Estimate for 19 countries in the region.

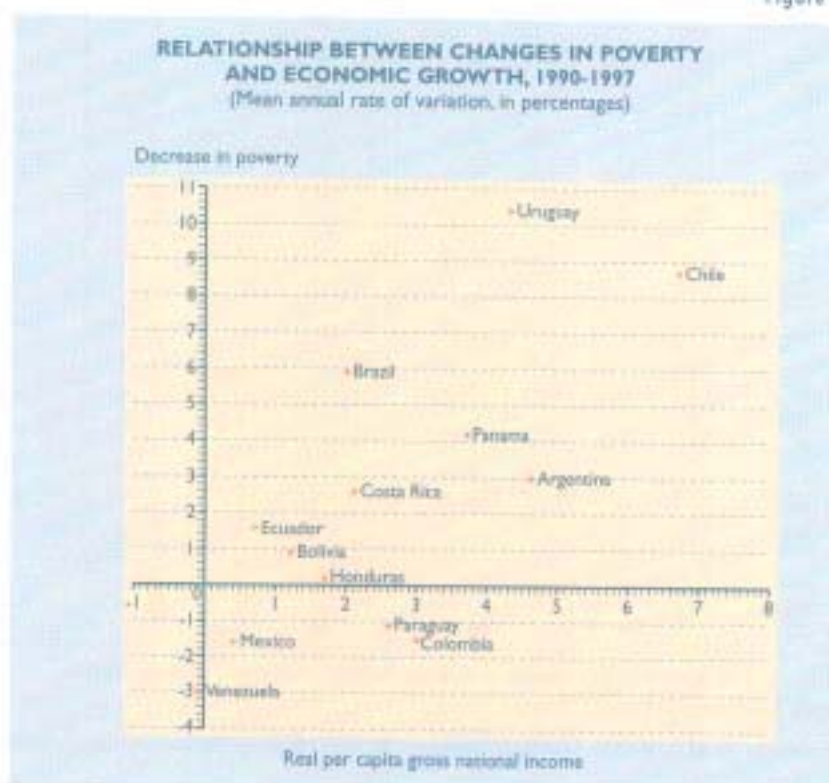
countries the percentages have risen, however; for example, increases of 8 and 5 percentage points were recorded for Venezuela and of 4 and 2 points for Mexico (see table 2).

Differing patterns are also seen in the individual countries of the region in the case of urban poverty. Levels are low in some (under 20%), including Uruguay, Argentina, Chile and Costa Rica; within a medium range in others (between 20% and 39%), including Panama, Brazil, Peru, Dominican Republic, Mexico, Colombia and El Salvador; and high in others (40% or over), such as Paraguay, Venezuela, Bolivia, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Honduras.

Thus far in the 1990s, the trends observed in some countries appear to substantiate the fact that economic growth plays an important role in terms of poverty, since a clearly positive correlation can be seen between the growth rate for real per capita gross national income and the mean annual rate of poverty reduction. Examples of this include Chile and Venezuela. In Chile, per capita income jumped by 47.8% between 1990 and 1996 while the proportion of poor households fell by 13 percentage points during that period; in Venezuela, a 0.5% drop in per capita income between 1990 and 1997 was accompanied by an 8-point increase in the percentage of poor households.

There are other countries, however, in which this relationship between economic growth and poverty reduction has not been as apparent. This is due, in part, to the fact that a given GDP growth rate's effect on poverty levels may differ depending on the form taken by that growth—especially in terms of its impact on employment and wages—and, in part, to the fact that a number of other factors also influence poverty levels (see figure 1).

Figure 1



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of official information provided by the countries and special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

For example, on the one hand, the sizeable increase (37%) registered in per capita income in Argentina between 1990 and 1997 was accompanied by a reduction of only 3 percentage points in the proportion of poor households (Greater Buenos Aires); in Brazil, on the other hand, a much more moderate expansion of per capita income (12.5%) was coupled with a 12-point drop in poverty. This supports the argument that different types of growth have very different types of effects on poverty, that a number of other influential factors are also involved and that, although economic growth clearly plays an important role in poverty reduction, analytical approaches and action-oriented proposals which focus exclusively on economic growth should therefore be avoided.

One way of identifying different modalities of growth is to look at how they affect the labour market. Obviously, a type of growth that leads to a rapid expansion of high-productivity employment will be more effective in reducing poverty; however, events in Latin America in recent years indicate that the productivity levels of different types of occupations are becoming increasingly heterogeneous, and occupational income differentials are therefore widening as well. In addition, a much larger percentage of total job creation has been accounted for by low-productivity, poorly-paid occupations, which is of course less effective in reducing poverty. Nonetheless, even though a majority of new jobs are at the lower end of the scale in terms of productivity and pay levels, job creation has made it possible for many households to increase the percentage of their members who are employed (employment density) and thus raise their living standards. And although significant differences do exist from one country to another, employment density has climbed in most of them and, in some (e.g., Chile and Brazil), has played a major role in lowering poverty indices.

Some of the most noteworthy factors that influence poverty levels but are not directly related to economic growth are inflation, income transfers to households and variations in relative prices.

Inflation has a particularly strong influence on poverty levels when it rises or falls sharply. In cases where it has dropped from very high (four-digit) levels, as in Argentina, Brazil and Peru, it has made a significant contribution to the reduction of poverty in those countries, while steep increases in inflation (as in Venezuela) have boosted poverty. However, very low levels of inflation do not necessarily result in a decrease in poverty (as in Argentina in 1994-1997), nor does a moderate level of inflation make it impossible to reduce poverty (as in Uruguay between 1990 and 1994).

Income transfers from the public sector to households have had an appreciable effect in reducing poverty, particularly in those countries that have made an effort to use such transfers for that express purpose. Examples include Argentina, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay, where such transfers provide between 20% and 25% of total income for households in the bottom quintile in urban areas. Brazil has also made a systematic policy effort to augment transfers of this sort, and this increase contributed to the substantial reduction in poverty achieved, particularly in rural areas, between 1990 and 1993.

Yet another factor is that the buying power of lower-income groups can be affected by changes in the relative prices of staple goods generated by the countries' productive and commercial structures, trade liberalization, the characteristics of the agricultural sector, weather-related and seasonal factors, etc. The events of recent years demonstrate that the variation in the prices of mass consumer products has been less than that of the consumer

price index (CPI), which means that lower-income groups' purchasing power has actually risen.

Obviously, any country will have a greater chance of success in combating poverty if it attains a consistently high rate of economic growth that leads to the creation of a substantial number of high-productivity, high-paying jobs and if the incomes provided by those jobs are protected by a policy aimed at maintaining their purchasing power, by the provision of support for ambitious programmes for carefully targeted public transfers and by appropriate measures to keep inflation under control. Events in the various countries show them to be in widely differing positions with regard to the achievement of these objectives, however. A comparative analysis of these situations will provide a fuller understanding of the dynamics of poverty in each country.

INCOME DISTRIBUTION

Overall, for the period from 1990 to 1997 the region's performance in the area of income distribution has been quite poor, since the high degree of concentration that existed at the start of the period has persisted. This rigidity is the consequence of a variety of patrimonial, occupational, educational and demographic factors that have changed very little despite the acceleration of economic growth. While it is true that the increase in real per capita gross national income registered in almost all the countries (the exceptions being Nicaragua and Venezuela) has led to a reduction in both poverty and indigence, no such reduction has been seen in income concentration.

Income distribution has improved in the urban areas of four of the 12 countries analysed in this report (Bolivia, Honduras, Mexico and Uruguay), remained steady in one (Chile) and deteriorated in the other seven (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Panama, Paraguay and Venezuela).

The trends observed in Latin America during the 1990s corroborate the assertion that economic growth rates do not serve as a basis for predictions as to changes in income distribution. For example, Venezuela's negative economic growth was coupled with a markedly regressive trend in distribution (the Gini coefficient climbed from 0.38 to 0.43 between 1990 and 1997), but Mexico succeeded in improving its income distribution (its Gini coefficient fell from 0.42 in 1989 to 0.39 in 1996) even though per capita income edged up by a scant 0.3% during that period. These figures show that the social costs of little or no economic growth have been distributed differently in these two countries. By the same token, Chile and Argentina both registered steep increases in per capita income between 1990 and 1996-1997, but in Chile the pattern of distribution remained the same whereas in Argentina it deteriorated.

Uruguay has managed to consolidate its position as the country with the best income distribution in Latin America. In fact, its distributional pattern is similar to that of some European countries thanks, among other factors, to the important role played by public-sector transfers, especially in the form of retirement benefits and pensions. As noted earlier, such transfers have also played a significant role in reducing poverty, particularly in Brazil. However, they have not brought about any change in Brazil's overall pattern of distribution because they have gone to the non-poor (including upper-income groups) as well as to the poor.

EMPLOYMENT

The growth rate of the working-age population in Latin America has been declining, but this has not translated into a decrease in the labour supply, primarily because large numbers of women have been entering the labour market. In more specific terms, the average annual growth rate for the working-age population in Latin America fell from 2.55% in 1985-1990 to 2.48% in 1990-1995, but the participation rate has risen in virtually all the countries of the region (it decreased only in El Salvador and the Dominican Republic).

There are two main reasons for the continuing increase in the labour market entry rate for women. The first is the growing participation of women in all spheres of society; the second is the need to contribute to household income. In a crisis situation such as the one experienced by Venezuela, the female labour participation rate rose considerably, but this has also occurred in rapidly growing economies such as Chile's. In the region as a whole, this increase in the female labour participation rate has been especially marked among lower-income households, whose employment density has risen.

During the period in question, the labour force expanded at an average annual rate of 3.1%, employment rose at a rate of 2.9% and output by 3.2%, which means that labour productivity edged up by just 0.3%. A fraction of the new jobs that have been created have been in modern sectors of the economy, but the vast majority have been concentrated in the less productive areas of the private sector, and particularly in non-tradable goods and services sectors. As stated earlier, this heterogeneity in the labour market hinders efforts to eliminate poverty and improve income distribution. The proliferation of low-productivity jobs—own-account workers, wage earners employed in microenterprises, domestic employees and unpaid family workers—has been associated with a failure to protect workers' rights, the use of flexible employment arrangements based on fixed-term contracts, subcontracting and other models that have exacerbated the lack of job security and heightened uncertainty. It should be noted that these processes have been occurring despite the fact that during the 1990s the educational level of the workforce has continued to climb. As for the sectoral composition of employment, the relative shares of agriculture and manufacturing have continued to shrink while the tertiary sector (commerce and services) has continued to expand.

Unemployment decreased between the mid-1980s and early 1990s, but since then has begun to rebound in most of the countries in the region; it tends to be especially high among women, young people and lower-income groups, although in some countries unemployment is becoming a significant factor among middle-income and upper-income groups as well.

The entry of young people into the labour market is examined in depth in this edition of the *Social Panorama*. This phenomenon is of particular importance because the population between the ages of 15 and 24 represents from 20% to 25% of Latin America's workforce. Since this segment of the population is in its initial stage of labour force participation, it has been affected particularly strongly by the predominant trends in the market during recent years. The halting pace of economic growth observed in most of the countries and slack job creation in high-productivity areas make it difficult for young people to find suitable jobs even though their average educational level is on the rise. On the other hand, the economic problems faced by lower-income households

often makes it necessary for their younger members to join the workforce at an early age, to the detriment of their continuing education and, hence, their future job opportunities. They are also more subject than other groups to the inferior working conditions generally associated with low-productivity jobs and have greater difficulty finding work; the unemployment rate for the economically active population between the ages of 15 and 24 accounts for more than half of the total unemployment rate in the urban areas of Latin America. Particular attention should therefore be devoted to young people who are neither attending school nor looking for work, since they constitute a group that is highly prone to modes of behaviour associated with marginality, violence and crime.

TRENDS AND HETEROGENEITY IN PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE

The region's average per capita level of public social expenditure amounted to US\$ 457 (1997 dollars) in 1996-1997, as compared to US\$ 331 in 1990-1991. This represents a 38% increase for the period and is equivalent to an annual growth rate of approximately 5.5%. However, in the last two years of the period (1996-1997), this growth rate has slowed considerably, falling to an average annual rate of 3.3%, or about half the rate recorded for the period 1990-1995 (6.4%).

In 14 of the 17 countries analysed in this report, the level of public resources allocated for social sectors has risen during the 1990s. Particularly sharp increases have been seen in Peru, Paraguay, Bolivia and Colombia, where per capita social expenditure more than doubled between 1990-1991 and 1996-1997. In Chile, El Salvador and the Dominican Republic, the increase has been in the 60%-70% range and in Uruguay it amounts to nearly 50%. In the other six countries in which per capita social expenditure has risen (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Mexico and Panama), the increases have totalled between 15% and 40%. In Honduras and Nicaragua, the level of resources has remained more or less the same throughout the period in question and in Venezuela it has fallen by 6% (see table 3 and figure 2).

These increases have outstripped the expansion of production, and between 1990 and 1997 per capita social expenditure therefore rose considerably more than per capita GDP in all the countries in which positive growth rates were recorded. Whereas in most cases GDP was up by between 10% and 30%, per capita social expenditure climbed by between 20% and 70%, and in four countries it was more than twice as high by the end of the period as it had been at the start of the decade.

The countries of the region continue to exhibit sharp differences in terms of the percentage of total public spending they channel into social areas, although the growth seen in the 1990s did lead to a slight reduction in this heterogeneity. This was because social expenditure rose much more sharply in the countries that spend the least in these areas (Peru, Paraguay, El Salvador, Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua). In these countries, the average annual growth rate for social expenditure was 10.7%, or more than double the 4.8% rate recorded for the medium-range group (Colombia, Mexico and Venezuela) and the 5% rate of the countries in the medium-high and high ranges (Argentina, Uruguay, Brazil, Chile, Panama and Costa Rica) (see figures 3 and 4).

Table 3

TRENDS AND LEVELS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE IN LATIN AMERICA (Averages) a/								
Country	Real per capita social expenditure (1997 dollars)		Variation for the period	Annual rate of variation	Social expenditure / GDP		Social expenditure / total public expenditure	
	1990-1991	1996-1997			1990-1991	1996-1997	1990-1991	1996-1997
High and medium-high levels of social expenditure	727	975	34.1	5.0	17.5	19.5	58.2	60.8
Coefficient of variation	0.40	0.38			0.12	0.15	0.14	0.16
Argentina	1 222	1 570	28.6	4.3	17.7	17.9	62.2	65.1
Uruguay	929	1 371	47.5	6.7	18.7	22.5	62.3	69.8
Brazil	821	951	15.8	2.5	19.0	19.8	59.5	59.1
Chile	451	725	60.5	8.2	13.0	14.1	60.8	65.9
Panama	494	683	38.1	5.5	18.6	21.9	40.0	39.9
Costa Rica b/	445	550	23.6	3.6	18.2	20.8	64.4	65.1
Medium level of social expenditure	267	353	32.3	4.8	7.9	10.5	35.1	43.4
Coefficient of variation	0.24	0.09			0.13	0.32	0.14	0.16
Colombia	181	391	116.6	13.7	8.1	15.3	29.7	38.2
Mexico	283	352 c/	24.5	3.7	6.5	7.8	41.6	52.9
Venezuela	338	317	-6.1	-1.0	9.0	8.4	33.9	39.0
Low level of social expenditure	59	109	83.9	10.7	5.3	7.7	30.3	38.4
Coefficient of variation	0.21	0.42			0.50	0.25	0.27	0.17
Peru	51	169	229.5	22.0	2.3	5.8	16.7	40.9
Paraguay	55	148	166.8	17.8	3.0	7.9	39.9	47.1
El Salvador	87	147	69.7	9.2	5.4	7.7	21.9	26.5
Bolivia	55	119	118.1	13.9	6.0	12.0	25.8	44.2
Dominican Republic	66	107	62.8	8.5	4.5	6.0	36.9	39.0
Guatemala	52	71	37.4	5.4	3.3	4.2	29.8	42.1
Honduras	59	58	-1.7	-0.3	7.8	7.2	33.1	31.9
Nicaragua d/	48	49	2.1	0.3	10.3	10.7	38.3	35.6
Regional average	331	457	38.0	5.5	10.1	12.4	41.0	47.2
Coefficient of variation	1.05	0.99			0.59	0.49	0.36	0.27

Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

a/ Countries are listed in descending order of social expenditure for 1996-1997.

b/ Only 1996 figures were available for the period 1996-1997.

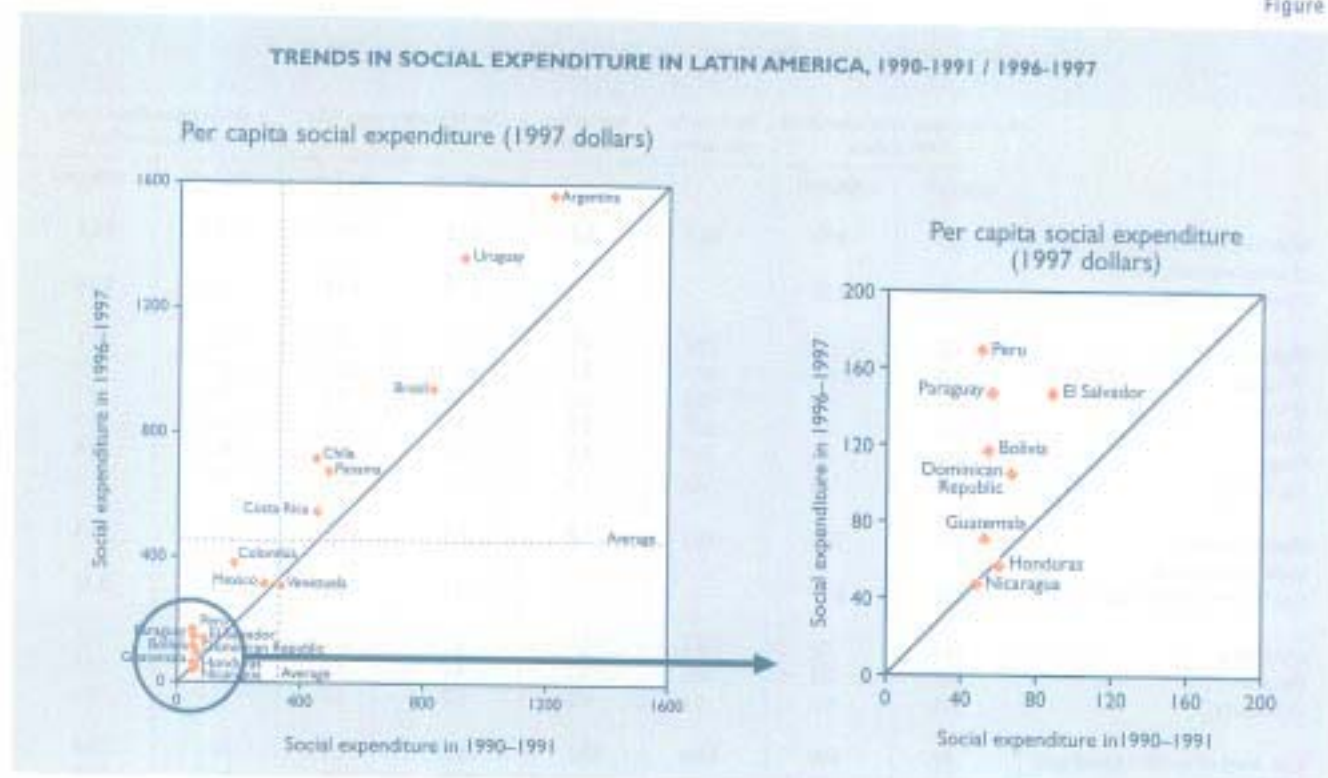
c/ This figure does not include housing expenditure. If housing is considered, real per capita social expenditure for 1996-1997 would be around US\$ 446.

d/ Only 1991 figures were taken into consideration for the period 1990-1991 due to problems of hyperinflation during 1990.

There is also a very marked degree of heterogeneity in terms of the level of effort reflected in the ratio between the countries' levels of public social expenditure and GDP, which currently covers a range of from 4% to 23%. The countries that have increased this ratio the most in the 1990s are Colombia (7.2 percentage points of GDP), Bolivia (6 points), Paraguay (4.9 points), Uruguay (3.8 points), Peru (3.5 points) and Panama (3.3 points).

As a reflection of the substantial upswing in public social spending observed during this decade, the increases instituted by three fourths of the countries (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay) have been more than enough to make up for the spending cuts of the 1980s, and by 1996-1997 expenditure levels were thus surpassing the 1980-1981 figures.

Figure 2



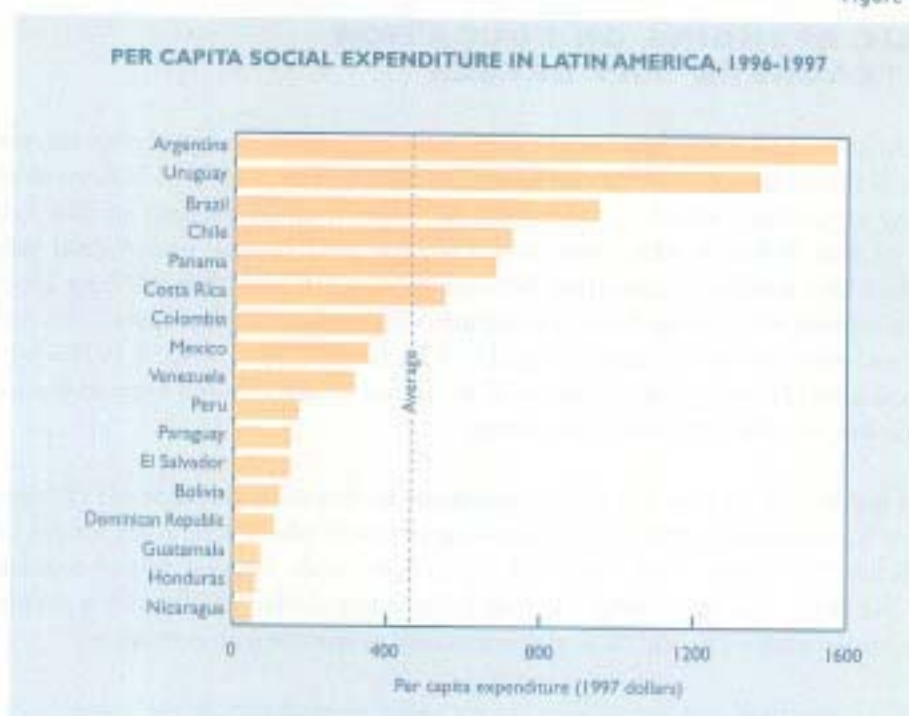
Source: ECLAC, database on social expenditure.

Economic growth accounts for over two thirds of the increase in per capita social expenditure in Argentina, Brazil and Chile, but in the cases of Bolivia, Colombia, Guatemala, Mexico, Paraguay and Peru, the main determinants have been the larger share of total public expenditure allocated to social items and the expansion of total public expenditure as a percentage of GDP; taken together, these two factors account for over 70% of the increase in the latter countries.

Consequently, the fact that a majority of the countries in the region may have a slower rate of economic growth in the coming years raises some doubt as to their chances of consolidating their present levels of social expenditure, especially in view of the role that such growth has played in the expenditure trends of the past few years.

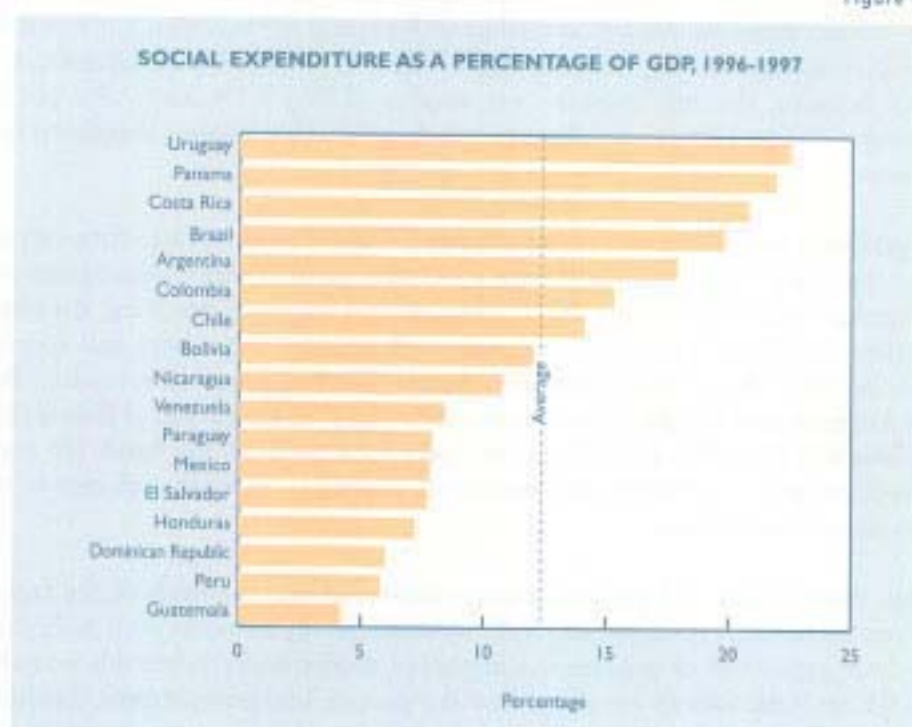
A sectoral breakdown of social expenditure for the region as a whole shows that the contributions to its rapid expansion in the 1990s made by the more distributionally progressive sectors and the more regressive ones have made roughly similar in scale: 44% of the increase corresponds to education and health (25% and 19%, respectively), which are more progressive items of expenditure, and 41% to social security, which is a regressive item. However, the increase registered in the countries in the medium and low spending ranges has primarily (61%) been the result of higher spending in the generally more progressive sectors (education and health), whereas social security accounts for just 21%. In contrast, in the countries in the high and medium-high spending ranges, social security expenditures account for nearly 50% of the increase.

Figure 3



Source: ECLAC, database on social expenditure.

Figure 4



Source: ECLAC, database on social expenditure.

PUBLIC SPENDING ON EDUCATION AND TEACHERS' PAY LEVELS

Spending on education has been a very prominent component of the increase in overall public social expenditure during the 1990s. This trend is a reflection of the increasing importance which Governments are placing on investment in this field, as well as of the higher funding requirements generated by the educational reforms undertaken by a number of countries. Between 1990-1991 and 1996-1997, for 15 of the countries studied, the average level of spending on education climbed from 2.8% to 3.7% of GDP and expenditure per capita jumped by 40% (from US\$ 87 to US\$ 122). Only two of the countries (Nicaragua and Venezuela) registered a decrease, and even in these cases the reduction was small in percentage terms.

Much of the notable upturn in public expenditure in this sector is the result of improved pay levels for teachers in primary and secondary schools, which rose at an annual rate of from 3% to 9% between 1990 and 1997. The efforts made by some of the countries to narrow the wage gap separating teachers from other skilled public-sector employees account for between 70% and 80% of the increase in spending on education.

When schoolteachers' average salaries are expressed as multiples of the value of the per capita poverty line, sizeable differences are revealed across countries. In 1996-1997, the average monthly salary of teachers in primary and secondary schools (both public and private) in Chile, Costa Rica and Panama amounted to between 6 and 8 times the per capita poverty line. In Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay, it was between 4 and 5 times higher than that line, while in Bolivia, Ecuador and Mexico, it was only from 2.4 to 3.6 times that value.

The efforts made by the Governments of Paraguay, Bolivia, Chile and Brazil to improve teachers' hourly wages resulted in annual growth rates of 9.5%, 7.8%, 7.8% and 4.0% in their salaries, respectively, between 1989-1990 and 1996-1997. In Uruguay, Costa Rica and Ecuador, the real increase was smaller (2.8%, 1.7% and 0.4% per year, respectively), and in Mexico and Panama teachers' average salaries shrank by nearly 1% per year.

These significant improvements in teachers' pay levels notwithstanding, there continues to be a notable gap between their hourly wages and those of other salaried employees having similar educational levels. In all the countries except Costa Rica, the average yearly salary, calculated per year of schooling, of teachers in primary and secondary schools is far below that of other salaried professional and technical personnel. In Brazil, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay it is between 25% and 30% lower, and in Bolivia, Chile and Ecuador it is from 35% to 50% less. In Costa Rica, on the other hand, the average yearly wage per year of schooling for teachers as a group is on a par with that of other professionals and technicians.

Economic vulnerability and poverty among teachers in the countries of the region is directly related to the level of poverty in those countries. In countries with high poverty levels, a large percentage of teachers live in poor or economically vulnerable households (households with incomes of less than twice the poverty line per member); this hinders the provision of a better quality education, which is one of the priority objectives of the educational reforms now being undertaken.

In Bolivia and Ecuador, the percentage of teachers working in primary and secondary schools who live in poor households is quite high (around 30% in both of these countries). The figure ranges from 5% to 11% in Brazil, Mexico and Paraguay, but is below 2% in Chile, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay. The figures are much higher, however, in the case of households whose incomes are so low that they are in a very vulnerable position in terms of the level of resources required for their maintenance. In four countries (Bolivia, Ecuador, Mexico and Paraguay), between 35% and 40% of teachers currently live in what can be classified as vulnerable households. In Brazil the percentage is near 20% while in Chile, Costa Rica and Panama it is around 10%. Uruguay is the only country in which the percentage of teachers living in households having incomes of less than twice the poverty line per member is under 5%.

UNICEF GOALS FOR CHILDREN TO BE ACHIEVED BY THE YEAR 2000

A review of the progress made between 1990 and 1997 in terms of access to and completion of primary education in Latin American countries indicates that, despite the high enrolment rates registered during this period, in the year 2000 rural zones will still be lagging far behind in this respect. In urban areas, however, the goals of having over 80% of all boys and girls completing fourth grade and over 70% of them completing their primary-level education will have been achieved, and in many cases the actual percentages will be well above these target figures.

From the standpoint of equity in the achievement of educational goals, by the end of the 1990s the differences existing in terms of access, efficiency and completion of primary education among the various socio-economic strata will have been reduced slightly in urban areas. However, the figures for boys and girls belonging to the poorest 25% of households will still be far below average and below the levels attained by children from higher-income households. The countries that currently have the most unequal patterns of income distribution are the same ones that will be the furthest from achieving the goals of universal access and completion of fourth grade in the year 2000, and particularly so in their rural areas.

As regards the goals set for access to basic services by the year 2000, it appears that a substantial majority of the countries will have succeeded in reducing the segment of their populations lacking access to drinking water by 25% or more in urban areas, whereas only half of them will have managed to make a reduction of 17% or more in the segment lacking access to basic sanitation. The extent to which the rural population lags behind the urban population in regard to both these parameters is enormous, and steps to redress this situation remain to be taken. Moreover, in almost all of the urban areas that were studied, substantial improvements are needed in the level of access to adequate sanitation, and in a third of the cases a great deal of progress still needs to be made in the provision of drinking water.

Although in most of the countries' urban areas the differences among socio-economic strata are narrowing in respect of access to drinking water, in relation to sewerage services the improvement in equity has been less marked. In fact, the poorest 25% of households saw a greater improvement in access to drinking water than urban households as a whole in over three fourths of the countries, but this was true in the case of sewerage services in only half of the countries.

FACTORS LIMITING BOYS', GIRLS' AND ADOLESCENTS' OPPORTUNITIES FOR WELL-BEING

a) Child labour

The percentage of adolescents who work has diminished in only slightly more than half of the countries in the 1990s, and a third of the countries have actually seen an increase in this phenomenon, which seriously jeopardizes the development of human capital and young people's opportunities for future well-being. The trend is even less positive in the case of children aged 14 and under, although their labour participation rate is lower than the rate for adolescents between the ages of 15 and 17. Only a third of the countries have recorded simultaneous decreases in the percentages of boys and girls and of adolescents who work.

b) Adolescents who do not attend school and who engage in domestic activities in their homes

In the urban areas of most of the countries there has been a decrease in the percentage of adolescents who neither attend school nor enter the labour market but instead limit their activities to domestic chores within the household; the improvement has been less notable in rural areas, however. What is more, in almost half of the countries between 15% and 25% of young people in urban areas were in this confining situation as of 1997, and the percentages rise to between 25% and 50% in the case of young people living in rural areas.

c) Teenage mothers

The statistics on teenage mothers (which are quite high in most of the countries) showed no change during the 1990s. At the country level, between 20% and 25% of all women have had their first child before they reach 20 years of age; the figure rises to 30% for women in rural areas and ranges from 15% to 20% for those living in cities.

SOCIAL AGENDA: PUBLIC SAFETY AND VIOLENCE

The belief that the streets are not safe is increasingly widespread among the Latin American population. This belief has a basis in fact, inasmuch as crime and violence are on the rise, but it has also been fostered by heavy coverage in the mass media.

Violence has many causes and dimensions, as individual, family and social circumstances all play a role in influencing domestic and social behaviour patterns. The uncertainty engendered by rapid modernization and commercialization, in conjunction with exposure to violence via the mass media and the effects of the wars that have only recently ended in a number of countries, creates a social context that fuels a mounting feeling of insecurity on the part of the population. It is quite likely that this situation will grow worse in the future owing to widespread mistrust of institutional controls and the belief that corruption is increasing.

The usual tendency to associate violence with poverty can be misleading, since poverty and inequality only lead to an increase in violence and, hence, a lack of public safety when they are combined with other negative social conditions. It is true, however, that there is a relationship between unemployment and violence and that violence, in turn, generates conditions that lead to increased poverty. The victims of domestic violence are generally women and children, and their assailants may be men of varying ages and socio-economic strata, whereas homicides are usually committed by young men from a low socio-economic stratum. Safety, like income, is an asset or good that is inequitably distributed as a consequence of differences in both the coverage of public and private security services and in access to them. The new types of violence being seen in the region are a mixture of political and criminal violence. In addition, the degree of violence being used by criminals is on the rise, in many cases because of drug use and the availability of firearms. Various forms of violence are also associated with organized crime, drug trafficking, the smuggling of human beings and gun-running.

Violence results in the destruction of physical, human and social capital and of the ability of government to cope with it. Methods for calculating the economic cost of violence have recently been developed in an effort to provide strong backing for the necessary political will, at both the international and national levels, to design effective programmes for dealing with this serious problem. Although such calculations do provide important indicators, the dearth of suitable statistics limits their reliability. The Latin American countries lack systematic, reliable indicators of levels of violence and public safety, as well as national agencies to centralize, systematize and consolidate such information.

Local authorities, governors and mayors of Latin America's major cities have listed the main problems with respect to public safety as being homicides, robbery and drug trafficking and use. They are also concerned about the increasing frequency of domestic violence and child abuse. The measures being taken in an effort to protect the population fall into three categories: prevention, enforcement and a combination of the two. The latter type of measure has been the most successful owing to the multidimensional nature of the phenomenon itself. Together with enforcement measures and the various levels of primary or secondary preventive action, steps need to be taken to improve inter-agency coordination, ensure the production of ongoing statistical series and enlist the active cooperation of the community.



Poverty in the late 1990s

A. THE SITUATION DURING THE 1990s

In the first eight years of the 1990s, poverty abated in the great majority of Latin American countries, and the percentage of poor households in the region as a whole thus fell from 41% to 36%, thereby returning to the level recorded prior to the crisis of the 1980s. This has also made it possible to check the increase in the size of the poor population, which has remained at around 200 million persons. Brazil, Chile, Panama and Uruguay have made especially significant strides in this respect. It should also be noted, however, that in the three-year period from 1994 to 1997, the situation deteriorated in Argentina and Mexico, and there was no sign of any improvement in Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras or Venezuela. Moreover, the slowdown in economic growth in 1998-1999 could lead to a lack of any further progress or an actual increase in poverty levels in various countries.

Household poverty levels in Latin America declined from 41% in 1990 to 36% in 1997, thus prolonging the downward trend that had already become quite noticeable by 1994, when the percentage was 38%. This was clearly a positive trend, although an even greater reduction had been expected based on forecasts of stronger economic growth during the period. Nevertheless, in some countries the economy was not buoyant enough while, in others, economic growth failed to have the expected impact in terms of poverty alleviation.

In keeping with this general trend, the proportion of poor households decreased during the period under review from 35% to 30% in urban areas and from 58% to 54% in rural areas. Extreme poverty, or indigence, followed a similar trend, with a reduction from 18% in 1990 to 15% in 1997; in urban areas the decrease was from 12% to 10% and in rural areas from 34% to 31% (see table I.1 and figure I.1).

This improvement in poverty statistics in the 1990s restored the poverty rate in the region, in percentage terms, to nearly the same level recorded at the beginning of the 1980s. It should be pointed out, however, that although the upturn in these indices has been somewhat more pronounced in urban than in rural areas, the percentage of poor households in urban areas (30%) is still higher than in 1980 (25%), while in the case of poor households in rural zones, the percentage is very similar to the 1980 figure (54%).

On the other hand, since the average poor household is larger than the average non-poor household, the percentage of the population living in poverty is greater than the percentage of poor households.

Accordingly, the poor population in Latin America was reduced from 48% in 1990 to 44% in 1997, with the percentage of urban poor declining from 41% to 37% and that of rural poor from 65% to 63%. The

Table 1.1

LATIN AMERICA: POVERTY AND INDIGENCE a/						
1980-1997						
Year	Percentage of households					
	Poor households b/			Indigent households c/		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	35	25	54	15	9	28
1990	41	35	58	18	12	34
1994	38	32	56	16	11	34
1997	36	30	54	15	10	31
	Size of population (thousands)					
	Poor d/			Indigent e/		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	135 900	62 900	73 000	62 400	22 500	39 900
1990	200 200	121 700	78 500	93 400	45 000	48 400
1994	201 500	125 900	75 600	91 600	44 300	47 400
1997	204 000	125 800	78 200	89 800	42 700	47 000

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

a/ Estimate for 19 countries in the region.

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

c/ Percentage of households below the indigence line.

d/ Persons living in poor households. Includes the indigent population.

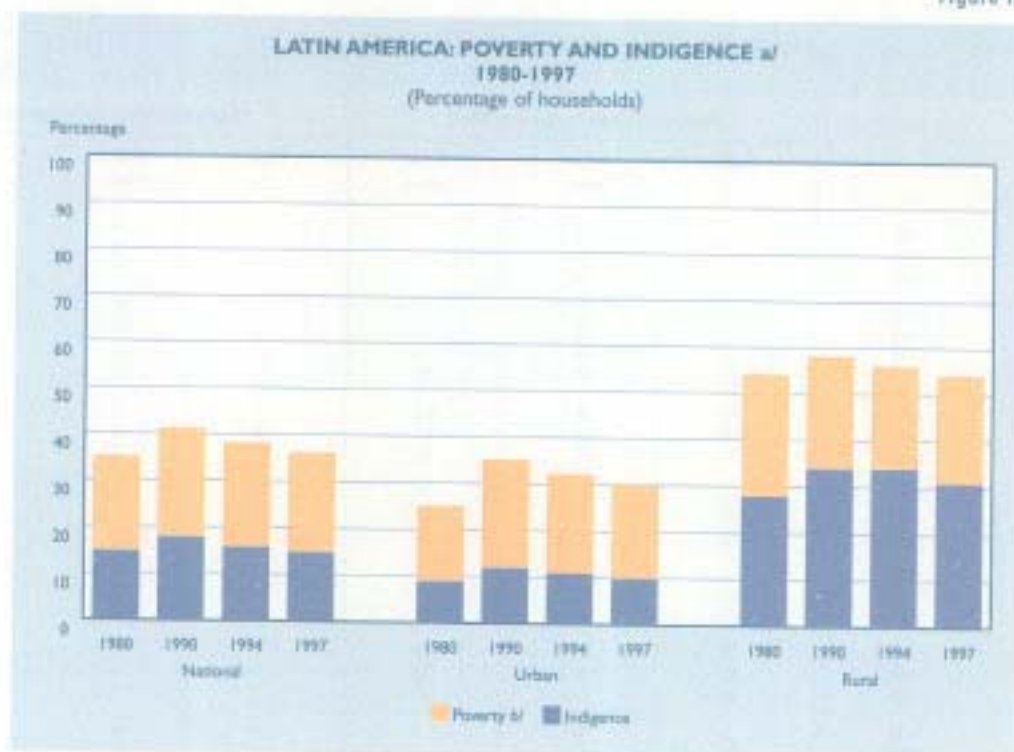
e/ Persons living in indigent households.

indigent population also decreased during the decade, falling from 23% to 19%; the urban indigent population diminished from 15% to 12% and the rural indigent population from 40% to 38%.

In order to have a clearer picture of poverty trends in the region, it is important to consider the actual number of persons represented by these percentages. The increase in the percentage of poor households between 1980 and 1990 (from 35% to 41%), in combination with the growth of the population during that period, caused the number of poor persons to swell from 136 million to 200 million. Subsequently, however, the decrease in the percentage of poor households during the 1990s has brought the figure back down to nearly the same level as in 1980 and, as a result, the number of poor people has remained practically unchanged throughout the decade.

Of the 64 million people who joined the ranks of the poor during the 1980s, approximately 92% were located in urban areas, while the rural poor accounted for just over 8% of the increase. This did a great deal to heighten the "urbanization" of poverty. This process did not continue into the 1990s, however, since although there was a significant reduction in rural poverty as a percentage of the total between 1980 and 1990 (from 54% to 39%), thereafter the figure changed very little (standing at 38% as of 1997). In other words, during the 1990s the number of urban poor has levelled off at slightly less than 126 million and that of rural poor at around 78 million. Hence, in relative terms the poor urban population almost doubled between 1980 and 1997, while the rural poor increased only slightly.

Figure 1.1



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

a/ Estimates for 19 countries in the region.

b/ Includes indigent households.

Indigence has followed a similar pattern to poverty, except that in this case the number of indigent persons has actually been reduced. The indigent population, estimated at 62 million persons in 1980, had jumped to 93 million by 1990 before gradually declining to just over 90 million in 1997. Three out of every four of the 31 million people who joined the ranks of the indigent during the 1980s were living in urban areas, so by 1990, 48% of all indigent persons were urban dwellers, compared with 36% in 1980. As in the case of poverty, the rapid urbanization of indigence observed in the 1980s came to a halt in the 1990s, and urban indigence stabilized at around 47% of the total number of indigents. Thus, although, in absolute terms, poverty is primarily an urban phenomenon, indigence is concentrated in rural areas. By the same token, the severity of poverty is greater in rural areas, with extreme poverty accounting for as much as 60% of total poverty in rural areas but only about 34% in urban areas.

The general trends observed in Latin America are the reflection of different results in the individual countries. In some, the reduction in poverty and indigence has been very significant, thereby demonstrating that well-designed policies make it possible to attain ambitious goals in this respect. In Chile, poverty declined by 13 percentage points between 1990 and 1996, from 33% to 20% of all households (by 14 points in urban areas and by 8 points in rural areas). In Brazil, it declined by 12 percentage points over the same period, from 41% to 29%. In this case, the reduction in rural poverty was not only much greater than the decrease in urban poverty (from 64% to 46% versus 36% to 25% of all households),¹ but was also very significant both in relative terms and in terms of the number of persons involved (more than 5 million). This reduction in poverty—particularly in rural areas—in Brazil should be borne in mind in evaluating poverty trends in Latin America. Panama also recorded a sizeable

¹ These provisional poverty statistics for Brazil are based on new indigence lines established by a specially appointed joint commission composed of representatives of the Brazilian Geographical and Statistical Institute (IBGE), the Institute of Applied Economic Research (IPEA) of Brazil and ECLAC.

Table 1.2

POVERTY AND INDIGENCE, BY COUNTRY, 1990-1997 (Percentages)							
Country	Year	Households below the poverty line ^{a/}			Households below the indigence line		
		Total	Urban areas	Rural areas	Total	Urban areas	Rural areas
Argentina ^{b/}	1990	-	16	-	-	4	-
	1994	-	10	-	-	2	-
	1997	-	13	-	-	3	-
Bolivia ^{c/}	1990	-	47	-	-	20	-
	1994	-	46	-	-	17	-
	1997	-	44	-	-	16	-
		57	(47)	72	33	(19)	54
Brazil ^{d/}	1990	41	36	64	18	13	18
	1993	37	33	53	15	12	10
	1996	29	25	46	11	8	23
Chile	1990	33	33	34	11	10	12
	1994	24	24	26	7	6	8
	1996	20	19	26	5	4	8
Colombia	1990	-	35 ^{e/}	-	-	12 ^{e/}	-
	1994	47	41	57	25	16	38
	1997	45	39	54	20	15	29
Costa Rica	1990	34	22	25	10	7	12
	1994	21	18	23	8	6	10
	1997	20	17	23	7	5	9
Ecuador	1990	-	56	-	-	23	-
	1994	-	52	-	-	22	-
	1997	-	50	-	-	19	-
El Salvador	1995	48	40	58	18	12	27
	1997	48	39	62	19	12	28
Guatemala	1989	63	48	72	37	23	45
Honduras	1990	75	65	84	54	38	66
	1994	73	70	76	49	41	55
	1997	74	67	80	48	35	59
Mexico	1989	39	34	49	14	9	23
	1994	36	29	47	12	6	20
	1996	43	38	53	16	10	25
Nicaragua	1997	-	66	-	-	36	-
Panama	1991	36	34	43	16	14	21
	1994	30	25	41	12	9	20
	1997	27	25	34	10	9	14
Paraguay	1990	-	37 ^{f/}	-	-	10 ^{f/}	-
	1994	-	42	-	-	15	-
	1996	-	40	-	-	13	-
Peru ^{g/}	1997	37	25	61	18	7	41
Dominican Republic	1997	32	32	34	13	11	15
Uruguay	1990	-	12	-	-	2	-
	1994	-	6	-	-	1	-
	1997	-	6	-	-	1	-
Venezuela	1990	34	33	38	12	11	17
	1994	42	41	48	15	14	23
	1997	42	-	-	17	-	-
Latin America ^{h/}	1990	41	35	58	18	12	34
	1994	38	32	56	16	11	34
	1997	36	30	54	15	10	31

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

a/ Includes indigent, or extremely poor, households.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Eight departmental capitals plus the city of El Alto. The figures in parentheses for 1997 represent the total for urban areas throughout the country.

d/ Provisional figures.

e/ Eight major cities.

f/ Asunción metropolitan area.

g/ Figures from the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI) of Peru, based on information from national household surveys (ENAHOG) conducted in 1995 and 1997 (fourth quarter). ECLAC currently preparing the corresponding estimate.

h/ Estimate for 19 countries in the region.

decrease in poverty between 1991 and 1997 (from 36% to 27%), which, moreover, was similar in magnitude in urban and rural areas. By 1997, Uruguay had succeeded in reducing poverty to half (6%) its 1990 level (12%), and this is the country with the lowest percentage of poor households in the entire region² (see table I.2).

Poverty was down in other countries also, but not as substantially. For example, in Costa Rica there was a four-point decline between 1990 and 1997 (from 24% to 20% of households), with the drop being more noticeable in urban areas (from 22% to 17%) than in rural areas (25% to 23%). In Peru, an overall four-point decline between 1995 and 1997 (from 41% to 37%) was due to the reduction in urban poverty from 33% to 25%, since rural poverty actually rose from 56% to 61%.³ In Argentina, where an appreciable reduction had been achieved between 1990 and 1994 (from 16% down to 10%), the poverty rate had climbed back up to 13% by 1997,⁴ and the overall decrease for the first seven years of the decade therefore amounted to a mere three percentage points, despite the strong economic expansion recorded during the period. In Colombia, where comparable statistics are available for the period 1994-1997, poverty declined from 47% to 45%.

In yet another group of countries, poverty levels remained unchanged—as in the cases of El Salvador and Honduras—or even worsened (e.g., Venezuela and Mexico). In El Salvador, the poverty rate increased by eight percentage points (from 34% to 42%) and the indigence rate, by five points (from 12% to 17%). It should be noted that the spread in poverty was concentrated in the years between 1990 and 1994, after which it levelled off, while indigence was on the increase throughout the period under consideration. Like Argentina, Mexico also showed a three-point decline in

poverty between 1989 and 1994 (in this instance from 39% to 36%), with the reduction being more pronounced in urban areas, where it declined from 34% to 29%, than in rural areas (from 49% to 47%). However, in 1996 a steep upswing in poverty (43%) raised it above the levels recorded in 1989. Of all the countries for which reliable information is available, Mexico and Venezuela are the only two in the region where the percentage of poor and indigent in 1996-1997 exceeded the levels recorded at the beginning of the decade (see table I.3).

In terms of their poverty levels for urban households in 1996-1997, the countries of Latin America may be divided into three groups:

1. **Countries with low urban poverty rates (under 20%):** Uruguay (6%), which had recorded an urban poverty rate of 14% in 1986 and had then managed to reduce its rate dramatically; Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires, 13%), which remains in this category despite having almost trebled its 1980 level (5%); Chile (19%), which has made significant headway in the 1990s (achieving a sizeable reduction from its 1990 rate of 33%) and has thus reinstated itself in the category of countries with low poverty indices; and Costa Rica (17%), where the proportion of poor people has not varied substantially in the last few decades although it did peak at 22% in 1990 (see figure I.2).
2. **Countries with mid-range urban poverty rates (between 20% and 39%):** Panama (25%), which, as indicated, has achieved a substantial reduction from its earlier high level (34% in 1991); Brazil (25%); Peru (25%), which achieved an eight-point reduction in just two years (1995-1997); Dominican Republic (32%); Mexico (38%); and Colombia and El Salvador (both with 39%).

2. The National Institute of Statistics (INE) of Uruguay uses poverty lines for Montevideo and other urban centres that are somewhat higher than those used by ECLAC, but this does not alter the trend in poverty indicators in the 1990s or the country's relative position regionally.

3. Variation observed between 1995 and 1997, according to estimates of the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI) of Peru.

4. Estimates for 1993 and 1994, when information on these variables was available, indicates that the percentage of poor households in urban areas throughout the country is approximately two percentage points above the percentage for Greater Buenos Aires alone.

Table 1.3

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN POVERTY LEVELS IN THE 1990s ^{a/}				
1990 - 1994	1994 - 1997			1997 level compared with 1990
Declined	Brazil	Costa Rica Uruguay	Argentina Mexico	Lower
	Bolivia			Lower
	Chile			Lower
	Ecuador			Lower
	Panama			Lower
				Lower
				Lower
				Lower
Unchanged	Paraguay			Lower
Increased	Honduras			Same
			Venezuela	Higher
No information available for 1990-1994	Colombia Peru	El Salvador		

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

^{a/} The countries are grouped according to changes in poverty at the national level. Bold print is used to identify those countries for which estimates refer to changes in urban areas only, except in the case of Argentina where they relate only to Greater Buenos Aires.

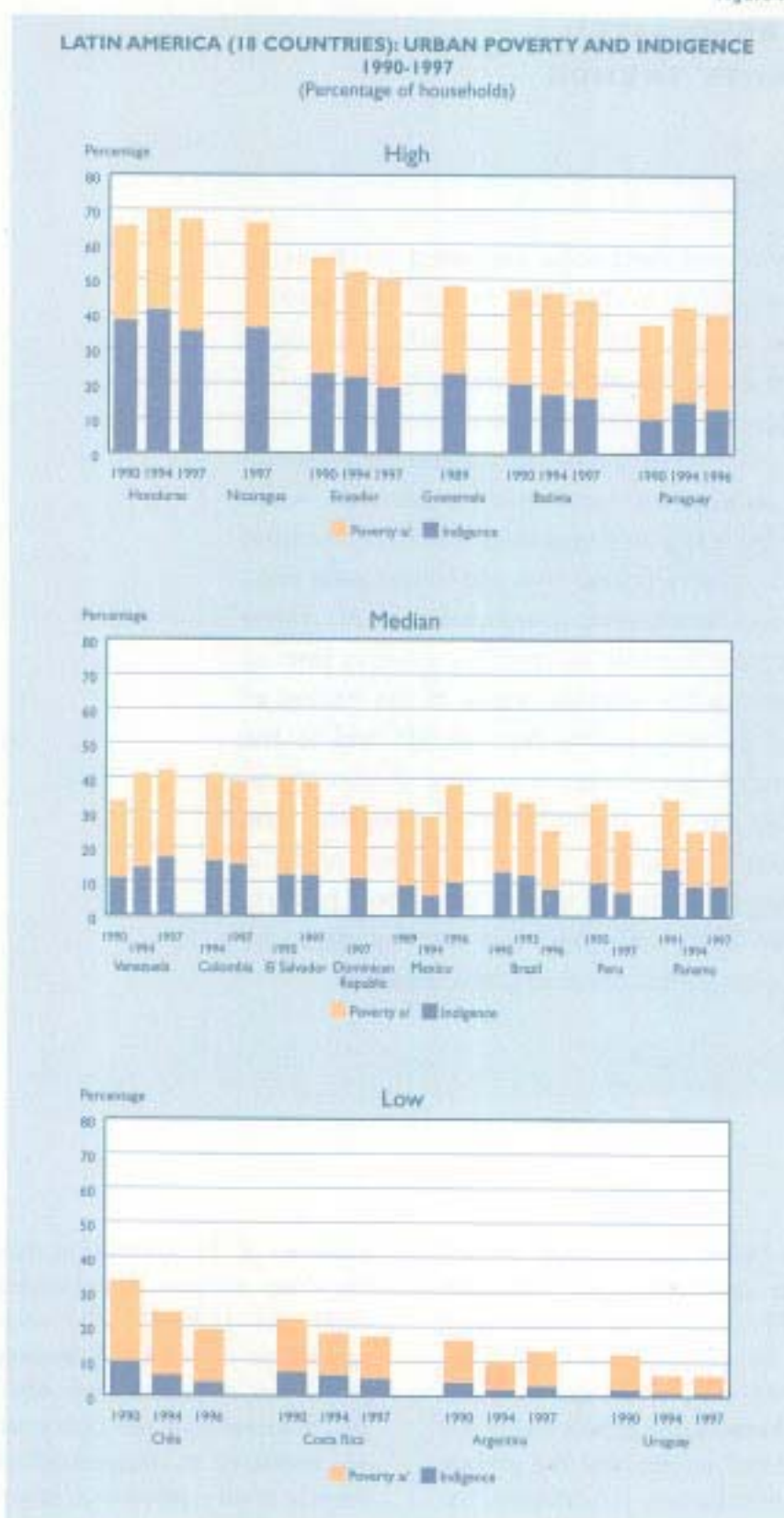
3. Countries with high urban poverty rates (40% or over): Paraguay (40%); Venezuela (41%), which has had high rates since 1994, despite having achieved a rate of just 18% in 1981; Bolivia (47%); Guatemala (48% in 1989, the last year for which data were available); and Ecuador (50%). These last three countries, together with Nicaragua (66%) and Honduras (67%), have always been among the countries with the highest poverty levels in the region; Haiti must also be included in this category, although no statistical information on poverty levels in that country is available. The natural disaster that devastated Nicaragua and Honduras towards the end of 1998 will undoubtedly aggravate the dire situation already prevailing in these countries (see table 16 of the statistical appendix).

It should be stressed that the favourable signs in poverty and indigence trends noted during the 1990s should be viewed with caution. After all, as stated previously, all the region has managed to do is to reverse the earlier setbacks suffered in terms of poverty and indigence, and it is thus more or less where it was in 1980. Moreover, it has not succeeded in actually

reducing the absolute number of poor and indigent persons, who total approximately 200 million and 90 million, respectively. The concentration of poor people in urban areas has also persisted; whereas only 46% of the poor population lived in urban areas in 1980, 61% did so in 1990 and 62% in 1997. Both of these phenomena – the slight increase in the poor population and the growing concentration of poverty in urban areas – are symptomatic of a decline in the quality of life in many Latin American cities over the last two decades.

Furthermore, the positive trends in poverty levels observed up to 1997 may prove difficult to maintain as a consequence of the financial crisis that broke out midway through the year. Accurate information of the type needed to evaluate this situation is as yet unavailable, but the regional economy's growth slowed to 2.3% in 1998, and the influence that economic growth has on the living conditions of the poorest segments of the population is well known. Furthermore, growth prospects for 1999 are even less promising, and this will probably be aggravated by the negative impact of the financial crisis on the fiscal situation and public expenditure.

Figure 1.2



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

a/ Includes indigent households.

B. FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH POVERTY TRENDS

The improvements and setbacks reflected in poverty statistics during the 1990s in the Latin American countries demonstrate how much economic growth influences changes of this nature in the medium and long terms. The changes in the labour market that are associated with growth bring out cross-country differences and heighten the poverty-reducing effects of economic expansion when growth contributes to a higher household employment ratio and to the creation of more productive and better-paid jobs. The above-average economic performance of some countries is largely attributable to their success in taming inflation, to changes in the relative prices of the basket of staple goods used by low-income households and to the increase in transfer payments to poor households. Countries vary as far as their starting positions and medium-term growth prospects are concerned, and the relationships among the different factors that affect poverty levels are therefore quite complex; this fact needs to be borne in mind by policy-makers and administrators.

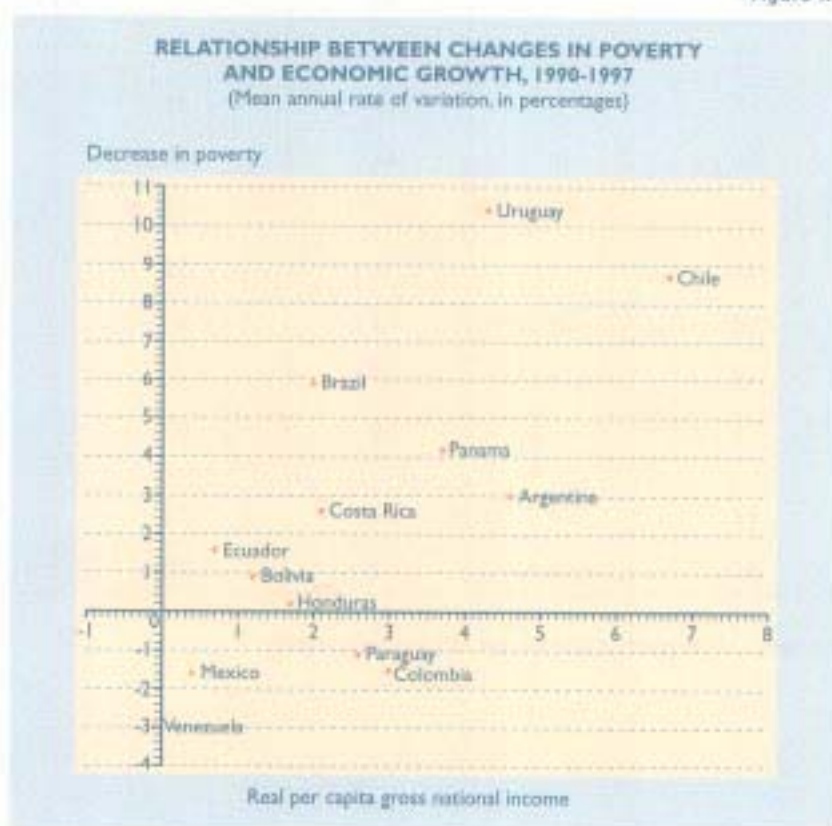
1. Poverty levels are known to be strongly affected by trends in real per capita income, as has been clearly demonstrated by developments in the region since the start of the decade. As shown in figure I.3, during the period 1990-1997 there was a definite positive relationship between the growth rate of real per capita gross national income and the average annual rate of poverty reduction. Nevertheless, the rates are scattered quite widely around the mean, with degrees of poverty alleviation that differ significantly from the general trend. Notable

examples of this correlation include: Chile, where the sharp increase in per capita income between 1990 and 1996 (47.8%) was reflected in an appreciable decrease (13 percentage points) in the proportion of poor households; Panama, where a 24.1% increase in per capita income (1991-1997) was registered in conjunction with a reduction in poverty of nine percentage points; and Costa Rica, which achieved a moderate improvement in per capita income up to 1997 (16.0%) and a decrease in the proportion of poor households amounting to four

percentage points. By the same token, countries where income levels increased somewhat less turned in poorer results in terms of poverty reduction. Thus, in Honduras, where per capita income grew by 12.9% between 1990 and 1997, poverty declined by only one percentage point, while in Venezuela, the 0.5% decline in per capita income led to an eight-point rise in the percentage of households living in poverty. Lastly, in Mexico, the sharp erosion of per capita income between 1994 and 1996 (-6.5%) pushed up the poverty index for that period by seven percentage points⁵ (see table I.4 and tables 1 and 16 of the statistical appendix).

Nevertheless, although the evidence clearly indicates that a relationship between changes in per capita income and variations in poverty levels does indeed exist, the fact remains that the same economic growth rate can have very different effects on poverty depending on the form taken by that growth. In addition, other factors may come into play which can also have a strong impact on poverty and which may account for the dispersion shown in figure I.3. There have been a number of interesting examples of such cases in the region during the 1990s. One such case is Argentina, where per capita income rose by 37% between 1990 and 1997 but the

Figure I.3



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of official information provided by the countries and special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

5 This relationship between growth and poverty may also be expressed as the quotient of the percentage change in the proportion of poor households and the growth rate of the product for a given period. This quotient expresses the sensitivity (or elasticity) of the numerator to each percentage point of change in the denominator. Hence, the income elasticity of poverty in the countries where the situation improved in 1990-1997 would be as follows: Chile: 0.85; Costa Rica, 0.90; Honduras, 0.15 and Panama, 1.03.

Table 1.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMICS INDICATORS, 1991-1997					
Country	Real per capita gross national income	Real average wage	Urban minimum wage	Urban unemployment	
	(Average annual rate of variation)			Percentage in 1997	Variation 1991-1997 (Percentage points)
Argentina	4.6	0.0	19.6	14.9	7.5
Bolivia	1.2	3.0	9.9	4.4	-2.9
Brazil a/	2.0	1.5	2.9	5.4	1.1
Chile a/	6.7	4.3	5.2	7.0	-2.2
Colombia	3.0	1.3	-0.5	12.4	1.9
Costa Rica	2.1	1.4	0.6	5.9	0.5
Ecuador	0.7	6.7	5.5	9.3	3.2
El Salvador	4.4	-	-0.7	7.5	-2.5
Guatemala	2.1	-	-10.6	-	-
Honduras	1.7	-	-1.3	6.4	-1.4
Mexico b/	0.4	0.2	-6.1	5.5	2.6
Nicaragua	-0.2	2.6	-	13.2	2.1
Panama c/	3.7	-	1.8	15.3	-4.0
Paraguay a/	2.6	2.7	-1.9	8.2	1.6
Peru	4.0	1.4	2.0	8.3	0.0
Dominican Republic	5.4	-	2.6	15.9	-
Uruguay	4.3	1.4	-7.3	11.5	3.0
Venezuela	-0.1	-5.0	-1.2	11.9	0.9

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of table 1 of the statistical appendix and official national statistics.

a/ 1991-1996.

b/ 1990-1996.

c/ 1992-1997.

percentage of poor households declined by only three points (in Greater Buenos Aires). In Brazil, on the other hand, the increase in per capita income was smaller (12.5%) but, thanks to the effects of other factors, the proportion of poor households declined by 12 percentage points. These results indicate that, in seeking to understand poverty

trends and to develop proposals for overcoming poverty, analytical approaches that focus exclusively on economic growth should be avoided. Consideration also needs to be given to the different forms that such growth may take and to other factors of various sorts which can have an impact on poverty.

2. Poverty levels are also affected by trends in the labour market, which differ from one country to another even in the case of countries with similar economic growth rates. In order to describe the development of this market and the differences that exist across countries, special attention will be paid in this study to the productivity of employment, labour income and the household employment ratio, or household employment density.

In the 1990s, productivity patterns were different from those of previous decades. Until the 1970s, the growth rate for employment was generally lower than the rate of increase in output, and labour productivity was therefore on the rise; in recent years, however, output and employment have grown at similar rates (around 3% per year, on average), indicating a lack of further increases—in average terms—in output per employed person.

This relatively anomalous situation is due to a series of factors and masks an increasing disparity in labour productivity levels. The steadily growing number of women who are joining the labour force has played a very important part in the sharp increase in employment figures; in point of fact, in most countries women's employment levels have been rising by rates above or close to 4.5% per year (Panorama social, 1997 edition). At the same time, in all the economies most of the jobs held by women—and indeed most jobs in general—have been generated in low-productivity sectors. Meanwhile, a minority of the economically active population is employed in branches of activity and companies that have adjusted better to external liberalization and have achieved significant productivity gains. In such instances, labour income trends have diverged. As will be seen below, this has meant that, for the majority of poor households, labour income alone does not provide them with sufficient leverage to rise above the poverty line.

Income trends for the different occupations, expressed in real terms, are not unrelated to the increasing heterogeneity of labour productivity levels. In this respect, Latin American countries reflect a wide diversity of situations. At one end of

the spectrum, real income levels in a country such as Argentina, when expressed in multiples of the poverty line, are relatively high among non-professional and technical self-employed workers and among wage earners working in urban establishments employing fewer than five persons. On the other hand, the incomes of these groups are rather low in Mexico and lower still in Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua. A look at income trends in the 1990s reveals that, in many cases, income levels have declined in real terms while employment in low-productivity sectors has been increasing, and the level of output per employed person has consequently slipped. These trends have differed from country to country, however. In Mexico, for example, the employment density of low-income households increased at the same time that household income decreased substantially in real terms. At the other extreme, households situated close to the poverty line in Brazil, especially during the period 1993-1996, experienced increases in real income together with a rise in household employment density (see table 1.5 and table 12 of the statistical appendix).

Household density, defined as the number of employed persons divided by the number of household members, is another factor that should be taken into account, in addition to cross-country differences in productivity rates and in labour income. An examination of this indicator for most countries of the region shows that, on average, it has tended to hover at around 0.40. This value, as an example, corresponds to a five-person household with two employed members.

The Latin American countries can generally be divided into two main groups. One group of countries, in which poverty levels are low or in the mid-range, has a wide dispersion of employment ratios (density) for households having differing income levels. For example, in Argentina, where the average employment ratio is around 0.40, the ratio of the lowest-income decile was 0.17 in 1997, while that of the highest-income decile was 0.72. The other group, which has high or very high poverty levels, has a similar average employment density, but

Table 1.5

**LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYMENT DENSITY AND UNEMPLOYMENT
IN SELECTED STRATA OF THE POPULATION ^{a/} 1990-1997**

Country	Year	Employment density (Quotient)			Unemployment rate (Percentages)			Households situated around the poverty line ^{b/}	
		Total	Decile 1	Decile 10	Total	Decile 1	Decile 10	Employment density	Unemployment rate
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	0.40	0.13	0.71	25.4	47.5	8.0	0.23	31.0
	1997	0.41	0.17	0.72	14.3	41.3	2.9	0.19	28.8
Brazil	1990	0.45	0.27	0.59	3.7	8.6	1.2	0.45	4.0
	1996	0.46	0.32	0.55	6.9	13.3	2.9	0.49	6.9
Chile	1990	0.36	0.17	0.52	8.3	28.8	1.9	0.31	10.5
	1996	0.39	0.19	0.57	5.7	19.7	0.9	0.34	7.2
Colombia	1990 ^{c/}	0.41	0.25	0.59	10.3	22.5	2.2	0.35	13.5
	1997	0.42	0.24	0.61	9.9	21.3	3.5	0.35	11.2
Costa Rica	1990	0.38	0.16	0.59	4.6	18.0	1.2	0.28	7.0
	1997	0.40	0.15	0.60	5.7	23.6	1.1	0.30	7.2
Ecuador (urban)	1990	0.41	0.21	0.61	6.1	17.5	1.2	0.42	5.4
	1997	0.44	0.23	0.62	9.2	23.5	2.8	0.47	7.7
El Salvador	1995	0.39	0.23	0.59	7.6	17.1	1.8	0.37	7.7
	1997	0.39	0.23	0.58	8.0	15.0	2.2	0.37	7.6
Honduras	1990	0.35	0.27	0.53	4.2	3.3	1.9	0.41	3.7
	1997	0.40	0.22	0.56	3.2	9.0	1.3	0.46	2.2
Mexico	1989	0.37	0.25	0.52	2.7	3.3	1.1	0.33	3.4
	1996	0.42	0.30	0.59	4.4	5.2	1.5	0.38	4.0
Nicaragua (urban)	1997	0.38	0.16	0.55	12.9	39.5	4.1	0.41	9.3
Panama	1991	0.36	0.15	0.54	16.1	32.3	4.4	0.30	19.6
	1997	0.41	0.17	0.60	13.4	29.5	3.5	0.34	16.4
Paraguay (urban)	1990 ^{d/}	0.44	0.22	0.54	6.5	25.6	2.0	0.40	7.1
	1996	0.47	0.28	0.65	8.2	20.1	1.9	0.38	9.4
Dominican Republic	1997	0.40	0.12	0.61	16.7	41.1	6.6	0.33	16.6
Uruguay (urban)	1990	0.40	0.25	0.52	9.0	21.1	2.7	0.31	14.1
	1997	0.40	0.28	0.51	11.4	24.2	3.4	0.34	17.8
Venezuela	1990	0.36	0.12	0.63	9.2	38.3	1.3	0.27	10.0
	1997	0.41	0.19	0.62	11.1	29.6	3.3	0.35	12.6

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

^{a/} Employment density: number of employed as a percentage of the number of household members. Decile 1 refers to the poorest 10% of households in terms of per capita income and decile 10, to the 10% of households having the highest per capita incomes.

^{b/} Based on the poverty level in the first year of the relevant period.

^{c/} Relates only to the eight major cities.

^{d/} Asunción metropolitan area.

the spread of these ratios is much narrower. One example of the countries in this group is Mexico, where the average household employment density was 0.42 in 1996, with a ratio of 0.30 for the lowest-income decile and of 0.59 for the top decile (see table I.5).

These cross-country differences in the distribution of employment densities can also be examined by studying the households close to the poverty line. In the first group of countries, these households have relatively low ratios—close to or below 0.30 (Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay)—and relatively high open unemployment rates (between 10% and 30%). In the second group of countries, on the other hand, the employment density of these households is around 0.40 and open unemployment is close to 10% or less (Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Venezuela). This disparity between the job markets of these two groups is probably an indication that the distribution of household employment density is associated with the spread of low-productivity jobs. In the second group of countries, there is an abundance of poorly-paid, low-productivity jobs, both because people are more willing to accept such jobs and because the labour supply is expanding more rapidly; this sort of situation fits in fairly well with Latin America's general image in this regard. In the first group, however, this segment of the labour market is smaller, partly because of the reluctance of better-educated people to accept poor-quality, low-productivity jobs and partly because such activities tend to die out as production and consumption patterns become more sophisticated. This situation underscores the fact that, in terms of the objective of poverty reduction, the various countries' labour policies should be similar to one another in some respects but need to take divergent approaches in others.

Household employment density has increased in most countries of the region in the 1990s, and this trend tallies with the rapid growth rate for

employment (3% per year) recorded during the decade. In some countries and for certain periods and population strata, increases in household employment density have been highly instrumental in reducing poverty levels. For example, between 1990 and 1996, the employment density of households close to the poverty line in Brazil rose from an average of 0.45 to 0.49; assuming that the incomes of job holders remained constant, this indicates an increase in household income. In Chile, the employment ratio for such households climbed from 0.31 in 1990 to 0.34 in 1996. On the other hand, in other countries, such as Colombia, this indicator has remained practically unchanged, at around 0.35.

In measuring changes in poor households' purchasing power, the most influential factors are variations in the prices of items in the shopping basket of staple consumer goods, since movements in the consumer price index (CPI) or in the gross domestic product (GDP) deflator do not always provide an accurate picture of changes in the real incomes of low-income groups. A good indicator of these groups' purchasing power can be obtained, however, by expressing their income levels in multiples of the poverty line. Without taking into consideration such forms of income as public or private transfers or the imputed value of owner-occupied housing units, a household generally requires an average income equivalent to 2.5 times the poverty line per employed person and an employment ratio of 0.40 in order to be above the poverty line; if a given household's employment ratio is 0.25, however, it would need an income equivalent to four times the poverty line in order to remain above that threshold.

Thus, it is clear that a combination of strong economic growth and a rapid expansion of employment in high-quality, well-paid jobs will yield exponential returns in terms of poverty reduction, since these factors will reduce heterogeneity at the same time that they boost both household employment density and household income.

3. In addition, policies that have succeeded in slashing very high (four-digit) rates of inflation in Argentina, Brazil and Peru have contributed to significant reductions in poverty levels, which had increased partly as a result of these inflation rates. Conversely, when inflation has soared, as in the case of Venezuela, poverty levels have been driven upward.

Nevertheless, in other countries of the region where variations in inflation and poverty have been less extreme, there is no evidence of a close link between the two variables. In Argentina, for example, the authorities have managed to bring inflation well under control, reducing the average monthly rate to just 0.16% for the period 1994-1997, but poverty still increased by three percentage points during those years. On the other hand, some countries have had quite high inflation rates and yet have managed to lower poverty levels. In Uruguay, for example, the monthly rate of inflation rose to 4.68% between 1990 and 1994 but the country nevertheless managed to achieve a six-point reduction in poverty; then, between 1994 and 1997, the inflation rate subsided to 2.09%, but poverty levels were unaffected. Brazil is the most noteworthy example of this seemingly contradictory phenomenon, whereby high inflation coincides with a decline in the poverty rate, since, despite a monthly inflation rate of 28% between 1990 and 1994, poverty eased by four percentage points (1990-1993); in the following years, the inflation rate was substantially lower while poverty levels continued to move downward. These examples demonstrate that, while both lower inflation and strong economic growth can and usually do have a positive effect in terms of poverty reduction, the connection between the two is much more complex than is generally recognized.

4. The percentage of total household income represented by transfers (whether public or private)

and especially retirement benefits and other pensions is another factor which accounts for differences in poverty levels and trends in Latin American countries.⁶ In some countries, transfers are an important source of income, while in others, they are much less so. In such countries as Argentina, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay, as of 1997 transfers in urban areas accounted for between 20% and 25% of the income of households in the lowest quintile (i.e., the bracket in which poverty and indigence are a problem). In others, including Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Honduras, Mexico and Venezuela, transfers usually account for approximately 10% and, in one case (Ecuador), as little as 5% (see table I.6).

The most interesting cases in this respect are Brazil and Uruguay. In Brazil, much of the progress made in reducing poverty during the period 1990-1993 was due to such transfers; this was especially true in rural areas, where poverty decreased from 64% to 53%. In these areas, the transfers received by groups close to the poverty line (the fifth, sixth and seventh lowest income deciles) increased from approximately 10% to over 20% of total income. The same thing occurred in urban areas, although the trend was somewhat less marked. A simulation exercise conducted for the country has demonstrated that if the level of transfers had remained as before, no significant reduction in poverty would have occurred in either rural or urban areas. In the case of Uruguay, the fact that transfers have remained high in percentage terms has played an important role in keeping poverty at its lowest level in the region.

In most countries, transfer statistics have not varied significantly in the 1990s. In cases where households close to the poverty line have received such increases, the additional sums have often been barely enough to compensate for the negative impacts of other factors that influence poverty levels; in fact,

6 Of course, the explanatory power of this variable is based not only on the level of transfers as a percentage of total income but also on the actual value of the transfers received by each household. This value, in turn, needs to be interpreted in relation to the structure and pattern of all other income components.

Table 1.6

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): TRANSFERS AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME ^{a/} 1990-1997 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Total	Quintile 1	Quintile 5	Households situated around the poverty line ^{b/}	Total	Quintile 1	Quintile 5	Households situated around the poverty line ^{b/}
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	8.4	21.3	4.0	16.2	-	-	-	-
	1997	10.4	24.5	7.3	24.9	-	-	-	-
Brazil	1990	12.8	13.8	13.2	11.1	8.4	5.5	7.7	8.6
	1996	17.8	12.3	18.9	15.1	19.2	3.3	23.5	24.8
Chile	1990	10.7	13.6	9.6	12.4	8.2	14.0	6.6	12.8
	1996	9.7	12.2	8.3	12.6	12.3	15.0	10.9	15.8
Colombia	1990 ^{c/}	11.6	7.4	12.5	11.1	-	-	-	-
	1997	14.4	10.1	16.0	11.3	8.8	7.7	10.3	6.1
Costa Rica	1990	10.0	15.1	11.1	8.1	4.5	12.2	4.3	4.3
	1997	12.2	20.5	13.3	11.5	7.0	19.7	6.4	8.7
Ecuador	1990	6.1	5.2	7.0	4.1	-	-	-	-
	1997	5.2	4.6	5.2	5.0	-	-	-	-
Honduras	1990	3.9	13.4	3.5	5.7	3.1	0.0	2.6	3.1
	1997	10.4	12.3	10.9	13.8	7.1	6.6	8.4	9.9
Mexico	1989	9.5	6.6	10.1	9.1	9.3	7.4	11.1	8.7
	1996	9.1	10.2	8.3	10.7	15.2	14.7	14.5	17.4
Panama	1991	15.7	23.1	15.9	12.7	19.6	21.8	19.4	19.7
	1997	17.5	23.3	17.3	17.5	24.6	23.4	25.0	23.0
Paraguay	1990 ^{d/}	5.9	7.9	4.7	6.9	-	-	-	-
	1996	10.3	16.0	10.7	9.9	-	-	-	-
Uruguay	1990	16.2	20.9	14.4	20.2	-	-	-	-
	1997	22.0	20.6	20.5	21.1	-	-	-	-
Venezuela ^{e/}	1990	3.3	23.9	1.0	5.4	-	-	-	-
	1997	6.7	12.9	5.6	8.5	-	-	-	-

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

^{a/} Public and private monetary transfers received by households as defined for the purposes of household surveys. Quintile 1 is made up of the poorest 20% of households in terms of per capita income and quintile 5 of the 20% of households having the highest per capita incomes.

^{b/} Based on the poverty level in the relevant geographic zone in the first year of the relevant period.

^{c/} Corresponds only to the eight major cities.

^{d/} Asunción metropolitan area.

^{e/} National total.

simulation exercises have shown that, in the absence of those increases, poverty levels would be higher than they are. This is the situation, for example, in Honduras, Paraguay and Mexico. In Mexico, the percentage of transfers did not vary substantially for households as a whole, but the targeting of such transfers was greatly improved and, as a result, they helped to raise the average figure for the fourth and fifth deciles from 8.5% to around 13.5%, with most of this improvement occurring in the rural areas of the country.

5. Other factors which are discussed much less in this connection but which also have a notable effect on poverty levels are changes in relative prices. The nature of the production structure, trade patterns, trade liberalization, certain characteristics of the agricultural sector and, on occasion, the impact of weather-related or seasonal factors on the size of harvests can all lead to appreciable differences, as mentioned earlier, between the average rates of variation recorded in the consumer price index (CPI) and in the prices of the items included in the shopping basket of staple products used by the poor. This phenomenon needs to be taken into account because it means that –as indeed has happened in many countries of the region in recent years– household income levels as expressed in multiples of the poverty line may differ substantially from the figures on disposable income in constant prices registered in national accounts. In point of fact, in most cases the prices of consumer staples have increased less in recent years than the average prices of domestic consumer goods, thus paving the way for an increase in the purchasing power of low-income groups.

In short, the experience of Latin America in the 1980s and 1990s shows that in the medium and long terms, the most stable and reliable means of reducing poverty is to improve autonomous household income levels by bringing about a sharp increase in

high-productivity jobs. This increase appears to be associated with rapid economic growth, which, among many other benefits, facilitates an expansion of transfer payments that does not involve adding to the tax burden, improves the household employment ratio and raises labour income, all of which helps to reduce poverty. By the same token, as noted earlier, although no direct linear correlation has been found to exist, poverty is indeed less prevalent in high-income countries. Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that in the vast majority of countries under consideration, growth rates have fallen short of the rates which most studies identify as the minimum levels required in order to do away with the social lags existing in the region over the medium and long terms.⁷

At the same time, the dispersion around the mean trend for the relationship between economic growth and changes in poverty levels may be attributed to factors which, in the absence of sustained growth, can account for variations in poverty rates and can help to reduce them. One such factor has to do with the different characteristics that may be taken on by the labour market in the presence of similar growth rates, as mentioned earlier. These include, in particular, the increase in the employment density of poor households that has been occurring in the 1990s as a result of the growing participation of women in the workforce; this phenomenon has resulted in significant inputs of additional income, especially in medium- and low-income countries, even though many of the jobs in question are low in quality and poorly paid. Success in curbing high inflation rates and in raising transfers to poor households from the low levels paid out in the past or the maintenance of high levels during growth periods have also played an important part.

The elimination of four-digit inflation in Argentina and Peru in the early 1990s and in Brazil towards the middle of the decade had a positive impact on real

7 See ECLAC (1996).

THE METHOD USED FOR MEASURING POVERTY

The poverty estimates contained in this report were computed using the "income method", which is based on the calculation of poverty lines. These lines represent the level of income required in order for a household to meet the basic needs of its members. Wherever the necessary information was available, the poverty line for each country and geographic area were estimated on the basis of the cost of a basket of staple foods that would meet the nutritional needs of the population, taking into account existing eating habits, the actual availability of different types of food and relative prices. The value of this basket was then added to the total estimated sum required by households to meet their basic non-food needs.¹

The "indigence line" denotes the cost of this basket of staple foods, and the indigent (or people living in extreme poverty) are defined as persons who reside in a household whose income is so low that even if all of that income were used to buy nothing but food, the household would still not be able to cover the nutritional needs of its members fully. In almost all of the countries concerned, the poverty line in urban areas worked out to be twice the indigence line, while in rural areas, it was calculated as being approximately 75% higher than the basic food budget² (see box 1.2).

In calculating the indigence lines, differences between food prices in metropolitan areas and those in other urban zones and in rural areas were taken into account. In most cases, estimates of the cost of the shopping basket of staple foods in non-metropolitan urban areas and in rural areas have been based on price levels 5% and 25% lower, respectively, than those used for metropolitan areas.

The information on family income used in the report comes from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries. The usual procedures were used to correct for non-responses to questions concerning income levels—in the cases of wage earners, self-employed workers and retirees—and for the probable bias introduced by under-reporting. These adjustments were made by comparing the income figures from the survey with specially prepared estimates based on official information from the household income and expenditure account of the System of National Accounts (SNA). The definition of income adopted for purposes of comparison with indigence and poverty lines encompasses wage income (monetary and in kind), income from independent labour (including production for own use and the consumptive value of goods produced by the household), property income, retirement and other pensions, and other transfers received by households. In most of the countries, the definition of household income also includes an imputed rental value for owner-occupied dwellings.

The percentages of poor and indigent households and people were obtained by comparing the per capita monthly value of the corresponding lines with the total per capita income of each household. National poverty and indigence indices were calculated as weighted averages of the corresponding indices for each geographical area. These indices are therefore influenced not only by the extent of poverty in each such area but also by the relative size of its population in terms of the country's total population.

1 Data on household consumption patterns (both for food and for other goods and services) were calculated on the basis of family budget surveys conducted in the different countries. When data from a recent household survey of this type were not available, other sources of information on household consumption patterns were used.

2 The only exceptions are Brazil and Peru. In the case of Brazil, the indigence lines used in this report are the new lines calculated for different subnational geographic areas by a joint board appointed for this purpose; this board is made up representatives from the Brazilian Geographical and Statistical Institute (IBGE), the Institute of Applied Economic Research (IPEA) and the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). In the case of Peru, these lines have been estimated by the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INEI).

income levels within a short space of time. Once it has been brought under control, keeping inflation in check helps to create more favourable conditions than those that would exist if inflation were on the rise, but it does not produce any other appreciable effects in the short run.

An increase in transfers to poor households, as reflected in the percentage of total household income which such transfers represent and in their magnitude in terms of the poverty line, has played a very important role in various countries, either by reducing the number of poor households, by helping to keep poverty levels low or by mitigating the effects of recessions. This is why the figures for countries such as Brazil, where sharp increases in transfers have been combined with a reduction in inflation from previously high levels, may diverge so much from the mean trend.

Given the proper initial conditions, these factors (which cannot always be replicated over time) provide an opportunity for combating poverty even during periods when economic growth is not yet rapid or stable enough to serve as a key instrument in the fight against poverty.

A more detailed analysis of figure 1.3 permits the identification of two extreme cases –Chile and Venezuela– where most of the factors mentioned above as having a positive (Chile) and negative (Venezuela) bearing on poverty have been present.⁸ Chile's success in reducing poverty (by 13 percentage points between 1990 and 1996) has been made possible by the fact that real per capita income rose by 47.8% between those same years; the percentage of the urban population employed in low-productivity sectors declined from 44.3% in 1992 to 34.4% in 1996; the average per capita income of the urban population rose from 4.7 to 5.9 times the poverty line; and urban unemployment fell

from 9.2% to 7.0% between 1990 and 1996. By contrast, the increase in poverty (by 8 percentage points between 1990 and 1997) seen in Venezuela is associated with the fact that per capita income contracted by 0.5%; inflation soared to 103.2% in 1996; the percentage of the urban population employed in low-productivity jobs climbed from 37.1% in 1990 to 49.4% in 1997; the same group's average per capita income fell from 4.4 to 3.6 times the poverty line; and urban unemployment rose from 11.0% to 11.9% (see tables 1, 11 and 12 of the statistical appendix).

These wholly favourable and unfavourable trends with respect to poverty do not, however, reflect the nature of the situation in most countries, where these factors exist in varying combinations.

The trend in Panama has been a positive one overall, with real per capita income rising by 24.1% (1991-1997); the percentage of the urban population employed in low-productivity sectors declined from 38.8% in 1991 to 33.6% in 1997 and this group's average income increased over the same period from 2.6 to 3.4 times the poverty line. However, the situation in Panama differs in two important ways from the circumstances found in Chile: slower growth in relative terms and an urban unemployment rate (15.3%) that is more than twice as high as Chile's. Be that as it may, Panama has achieved a very significant reduction in poverty levels (nine percentage points between 1991 and 1997), due in part to the effort made in this country to increase household income through government transfers. In fact, for the households in the bottom 40% of the income distribution scale in Panama, almost 22% of their total income came from government transfers (in Chile the figure is below 13%); this mechanism thus helps to make up for the higher unemployment rate existing among low-income households.

8 The effect of these factors is also influenced by the poverty (or indigence) indicator's sensitivity to changes in per capita household income or in the value of the poverty line, which depends, in turn, on the percentage of households situated near the poverty line. Generally speaking, in Latin America this indicator appears to be the most sensitive in countries where the poverty rate is between 40% and 50% in urban areas and between 50% and 60% in rural areas (the usual range of the modal values for income distribution).

Box 1.2

POVERTY LINES (PL) AND INDIGENCE LINES (IL), 1997
(Monthly budgets per person)

Country	Area	In local currency units a/		In United States dollars b/	
		PL	IL	PL	IL
Argentina	Urban	147.9	74.0	148.0	74.0
Bolivia	Urban	314.8	157.4	59.9	30.0
Brazil	Urban	108.3	46.1	100.4	42.8
	Rural	79.3	39.4	73.5	36.5
Chile	Urban	35 513.8	17 756.9	84.7	42.3
	Rural	23 944.2	13 682.4	57.1	32.6
Colombia	Urban	105 216.6	52 608.3	92.2	46.1
	Rural	75 977.0	43 415.4	66.6	38.1
Costa Rica	Urban	17 329.1	8 614.5	74.1	37.0
	Rural	11 876.7	6 786.7	51.1	29.2
Ecuador	Urban	263 637.0	131 818.5	65.9	33.0
El Salvador	Urban	579.6	289.8	66.2	33.1
	Rural	374.4	187.2	42.8	21.4
Honduras	Urban	938.0	469.0	72.1	36.1
	Rural	577.8	330.2	44.4	25.4
Mexico	Urban	952.5	476.2	120.4	60.2
	Rural	617.4	352.8	78.0	44.6
Nicaragua	Urban	486.7	243.3	51.5	25.8
Panama	Urban	81.0	40.5	81.0	40.5
	Rural	54.8	31.3	54.8	31.3
Paraguay	Urban	216 312.0	108 156.0	98.7	49.4
Peru	Urban	183.5	96.0	68.9	36.0
	Rural	115.4	77.1	43.3	28.9
Dominican Republic	Urban	223.5	611.7	85.8	42.9
	Rural	802.9	458.8	56.3	32.2
Uruguay	Urban	1 056.2	528.1	111.9	55.9
Venezuela	Urban	58 851.7	29 756.9	120.4	60.9
	Rural	42 103.5	24 059.2	86.2	49.2

Sources: ECLAC Statistics and Economic Projections Division.

a/ Expressed in average 1997 prices.

b/ Based on the average rate of exchange for 1997, "r" series published by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (*International Financial Statistics*, November 1998).

In Argentina, per capita income increased substantially (by 36.9% between 1990 and 1997); this coincided with a sharp drop in inflation at the beginning of the decade and, from 1995 onward, high unemployment (above 15%). The last factor has had an adverse effect in terms of poverty in urban areas, which, as noted earlier, lost half the ground that had been gained at the start of the decade (poverty rose by three percentage points between 1994 and 1997 after having decreased by six percentage points between 1990 and 1994). Nevertheless, this effect was mitigated by two factors. First, transfers have also played an important part in Argentina, since they account for almost 25% of household income among the two lowest deciles; second, although the percentage of the urban population employed in low-productivity sectors increased (from 43.1% in 1990 to 46.2% in 1997), there was also a significant upturn in the average income of this group, which, following an initial decline from 7.8 poverty lines in 1980 to 6.6 poverty lines in 1990, jumped to 9.3 poverty lines in 1994. This is far higher than the average figure for any other Latin American country and means that any employed person will be able to maintain his or her household in a position above the poverty line.

In Uruguay, there has also been a surge in per capita income (a 34.1% increase between 1990 and 1997), but in this case it has been accompanied by high and growing unemployment (11.5% in 1997). The country's urban unemployment rate has not been as high as Panama's or Argentina's, but it has nonetheless hovered around 10%, and the percentage of urban workers employed in low-productivity sectors has been increasing ever since 1980. In that year, low-productivity workers accounted for 35.2% of total employment; by 1990 the percentage had risen to 39.5% in and by 1997 to 42.5%. At the same time, mean income shrank from 6.1 times the poverty line in 1981 to 3.2 in 1990 and then rebounded slightly, rising to 3.5 times that line by 1997. This relatively unfavourable trend notwithstanding, Uruguay recorded a significant reduction in urban poverty between 1990 and 1997.

Contributing factors included economic growth, the increase in the employment density of lower-income households (for the two lowest deciles, this ratio was 0.31 in 1997, which was much higher, for example, than Argentina's ratio of just 0.18) and transfers, which account for a higher percentage of income than in any other country of the region.

As in the case of Uruguay, poverty statistics for Mexico also point to an alleviation of the problem in the early 1990s (poverty decreased by three percentage points between 1989 and 1994), but this improvement was reversed during the following years, with poverty increasing by six percentage points between 1994 and 1996. The economy also started to lose momentum, as the growth rate for per capita income slipped from a peak of 4.3% in 1989-1992 to 2.9% in 1992-1994 and then to -6.5% in 1994-1996, for a cumulative average for the seven-year period of 0.3%, one of the lowest in the region. Inflation also declined between 1989 and 1994, but then began to climb, reaching a monthly rate of 2.5% in 1996. The unemployment rate has increased gradually but is still low (5.5% in 1996). Data are unavailable on trends in the proportion of the urban population employed in low-productivity sectors and in that segment's mean income levels, but the figures do show that around 1996, the figures were similar to those recorded for Uruguay: approximately 44% of the employed population was working in low-productivity sectors and this group had an average income equivalent to 3.1 times the poverty line. On the basis of these statistics, it seems reasonable to conclude that in Mexico the worsening poverty situation is due, at least in part, to the sharp slowdown in economic growth that occurred towards the end of the period under consideration. Despite a major effort to augment transfers to low-income groups, such transfers were insufficient to offset the effects of this slump; the transfer payments received by the four lowest deciles of the population rose from 7.5% of their total household income in 1989 to 10.4% in 1996, but this still falls far short of the approximate 22% of total income represented by transfers to these groups in Argentina, Uruguay and Panama.

Brazil, like Mexico, has combined moderate increases in income (amounting to 12.4% between 1990 and 1996) with low unemployment (around 5% in those years). Nevertheless, both the percentage of the urban population employed in low-productivity sectors and this group's average income are slightly higher (46.6% and 3.5 times the poverty line, respectively, in 1996). At close to 30% per month between 1990 and 1994, inflation was much higher in Brazil, but it then fell sharply when the *Real Plan* was introduced in mid-1994. Despite these somewhat modest advances, Brazil has managed to reduce both urban and rural poverty substantially. As mentioned earlier, transfers have come to account for an increasingly high percentage of total income for the lower deciles (11.0% in 1990, 14.3% in 1993 and 15.8% in 1996) and have thus played an important role in this achievement. The increase in transfer income has been particularly significant for the rural population, since transfer payments, which accounted for only 8.4% of this group's total income in 1990, soared to 19.2% in 1997, thus helping to reduce rural poverty from 64% to 46% between 1990 and 1996. Furthermore, the effect of this increase in transfer income was heightened by the steep downturn in inflation that began in 1994. The downward trend in prices intensified in 1995, but wage indexation remained in place in many areas of the economy during the early months of the year, and real wages thus continued to rise after inflation had been brought under control. This generalized increase was reinforced when the minimum wage was raised in May 1995. In addition, the decline in agricultural prices had the effect of reducing the cost of staple foods in real terms and thus boosted the purchasing power of poor sectors of the population.

The significant reduction of poverty achieved in Brazil between 1990 and 1993 is all the more remarkable because the country's rate of economic growth during this period was fairly low. It should be noted, however, that the economy was in recession in 1990 and that its halting pace of growth masked a number of incipient structural changes. For example, in urban areas, wage labour fell from 72% to 68% of

total employment while the proportion of self-employed workers rose from 23% to 28% (see table 4 of the statistical appendix). At the same time, the industrial sector was beginning to decline in importance. As a result of these changes, wage earners' total income has remained practically constant and, although the survey used for 1990 does not distinguish between public- and private-sector wage earners, all indications are that the incomes of the two categories followed a similar path in the period 1990-1993. The mean income of private-sector wage earners in 1993 amounted to 3.5 times the poverty line, and that of unskilled self-employed workers employed in commerce and services was very similar (3.4 times the poverty line). In contrast, own-account workers employed in manufacturing and construction saw their mean income drop from 3.3 to 2.5 times the poverty line between 1990 and 1993. These last two sets of figures are not fully comparable, however, since employment in the latter two sectors increased as a percentage of the total labour force, and it is therefore quite possible that the decline in these workers' mean income is due to the number of new entrants in the workforce starting out at very low wage levels (see tables 6, 11 and 12 of the statistical appendix). This line of reasoning is corroborated by the fact that the poverty rate for unskilled own-account workers employed in commerce and services in urban areas fell from 36% to 33% during this period, whereas the rate for workers in manufacturing and construction rose from 41% to 43% (see table 18 of the statistical appendix). It should be noted that the workers in the first of these groups outnumber those in the latter by almost 3 to 1 (see table 20 of the statistical appendix). Moreover, an examination of mean income levels in rural areas shows that the incomes of wage earners during this period improved slightly while those of own-account agricultural workers remained stable (see table 7 of the statistical appendix). It should, in addition, be remembered that these were also the years when the sharpest upswing was seen in public transfers in urban areas and, above all, in rural areas. In urban areas, transfers to the fourth decile – the decile whose income level is around the poverty line – increased from 11% to

16% of total household income. In rural areas, the transfers received by the fifth, sixth and seventh deciles – the brackets in which the poverty line was situated between 1990 and 1993 – rose from 10.5% to 17.5% of total income.

It should be noted that a number of factors which influence poverty levels and trends in each country have far-reaching policy implications and that a wide range of options exists in this respect. This is a particularly important consideration because Governments are not always in a position to mobilize all the possible instruments for poverty reduction simultaneously. Latin American countries are starting out from very different conditions in terms of their historical backgrounds and their situation in the

1990s. In some instances, very serious problems (e.g., high inflation) may present both a challenge and an opportunity in terms of the scope they offer for poverty reduction. Brazil's success in curbing inflation is a good example of a policy which did not have a recessionary impact and has thus been instrumental in reducing poverty; on the other hand, once inflation has been brought down to a low level, it ceases to play a significant role in this regard. The situation is similar in the case of income-transfer policies. When such policies involve limited sums and are poorly targeted, the scope for effective remedial action is quite extensive; when the opposite is true, then there is of course less manoeuvring room, and the effectiveness of the policy will depend on the allocation of additional resources for these purposes.



Income distribution

DETERMINANTS AND TRENDS

INCOME DISTRIBUTION: DETERMINANTS AND TRENDS

In most Latin American countries, the behaviour of income distribution in the years in question attests to its resistance to change and its strong structural characteristics, as has been discussed in previous editions of the *Social Panorama*. These traits are associated with a number of underlying educational, occupational, demographic and patrimonial factors. The acceleration of economic growth, which culminated in an average regional rate of 5.2% in 1997, did not lead to an improvement in the distribution of income; in fact, the distributive pattern is relatively satisfactory only in Uruguay, thanks to that country's institutional characteristics and social infrastructure. Brazil and Mexico, for their part, registered conflicting trends in income distribution and poverty during the 1994-1997 period, with an improvement in one of these areas being accompanied by setbacks in the other.

The events of 1994-1997 confirmed the fact that rapid economic growth alone is not enough to improve income distribution and that, on the other hand, a decline in production activity generally leads to a worsening of income distribution.

In aggregate terms, it can be shown that in 4 of the 12 countries analysed, the concentration in income distribution in urban areas decreased (Bolivia,

Honduras, Mexico and Uruguay); in one, it remained unchanged (Chile); and in seven countries, increased –though to varying degrees– between 1990 and 1996-1997 (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Panama, Paraguay and Venezuela).¹ Among the four countries that exhibited positive results in this area during the specified period, two also showed an improvement between 1994 and 1997 (Honduras and Mexico); in

¹ Although Colombia should also be included in the countries studied, it is not mentioned in this list due to problems of comparability between figures for 1990 and for 1994 and 1997 because, as indicated earlier, the available information for the first of these years covers only part of the urban area of the country. In any case, it should be noted that figures for the last three years of the period point to a significant improvement in urban income distribution.

one, there was no change (Uruguay); and in the last, there was a decline (Bolivia). In the country in which the profile for urban income distribution did not undergo changes during the 1990s (Chile), the situation remained the same throughout the entire period studied. Lastly, among the seven countries in which distribution worsened, in three the level of inequality also increased during the 1994-1997 period (Brazil, Panama and Venezuela); in three others, the trend reversed direction in those years and slight improvements were achieved (Costa Rica, Ecuador and Paraguay); and in one, the situation tended to stabilize (Argentina) (see figures II.1a and II.1b).²

Among the countries in which progress was achieved, the most outstanding example is **Uruguay**, whose income distribution remains the best in the region. Furthermore, this was enhanced by the fact that between 1990 and 1997, the shares of total income of all low-income household groups increased by approximately two percentage points, while the percentage share of the highest decile fell from 31.2% to 25.8%. As a result of this process of redistribution, between 1990 and 1997, the Gini coefficient declined from 0.35 to 0.30 and the ratio of the median incomes of the highest and lowest deciles fell from 8.9 to 7.0. Nevertheless, it should be noted that this improvement occurred primarily during the period 1990-1994 since during the following three years, income distribution remained relatively stable.

One of the factors contributing to the positive performance of Uruguay is the important role played by transfers from the public sector, especially in terms of the level and coverage of retirement benefits and pensions. This feature of public expenditure has not, however, caused per capita output to grow at a slower rate than in the other countries in the region; on the contrary, the

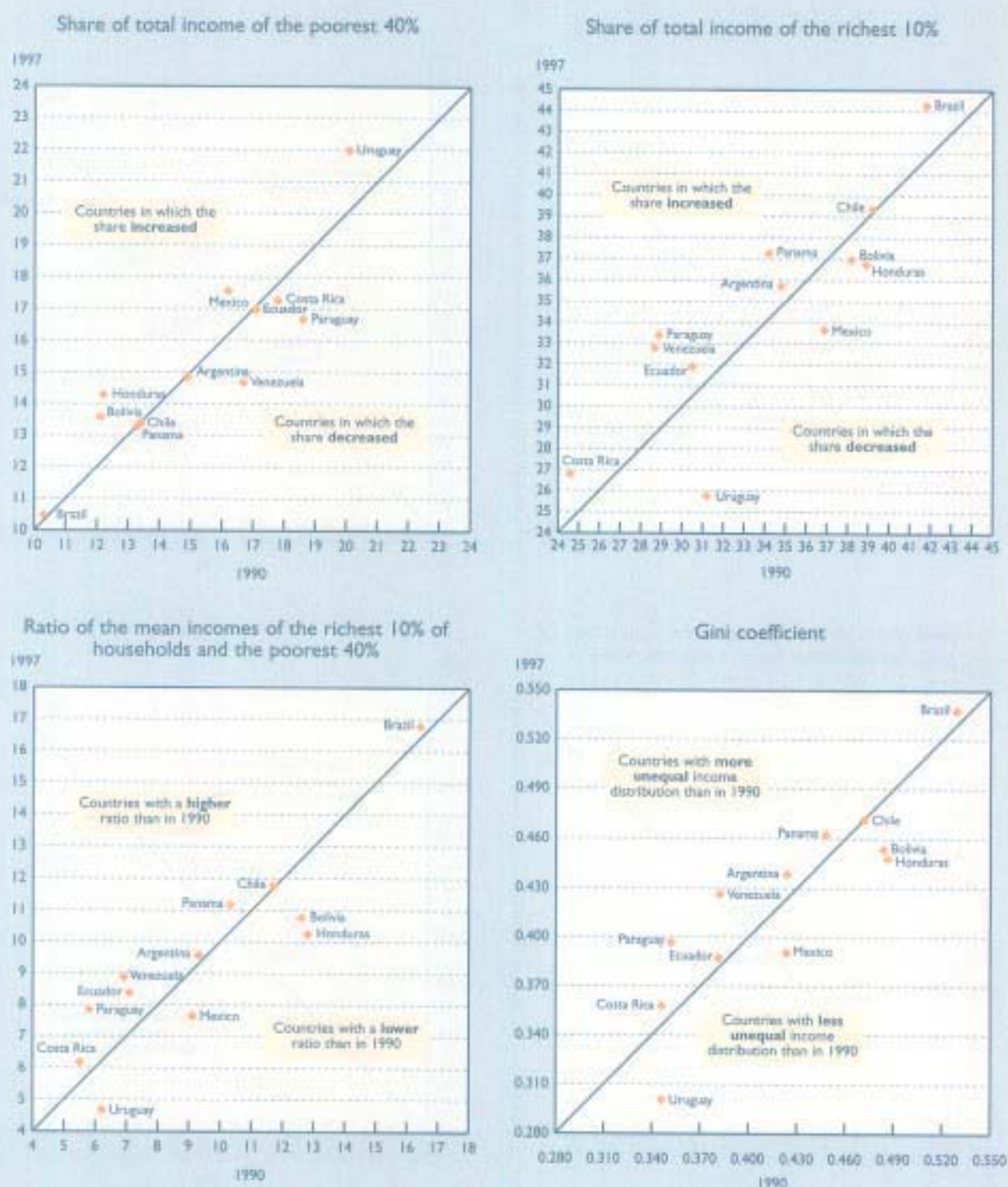
corresponding rate is almost double the regional average. The country also has an extensive network of social services infrastructure, which is accessible to the different population strata on relatively equal terms, and this has also provided more stable structural underpinnings for its pattern of income distribution.

Income distribution in **Mexico** also improved during the 1989-1996 period. Despite the country's meagre rate of economic growth during those years (1.9% of per capita GDP and 0.3% of per capita income), in what constituted a trend contrary to the predominant one in the region in cases of economic contraction or stagnation, the richest 10% of urban households' share of total income declined by approximately three percentage points (from 36.9% to 33.7%), with the differential being distributed in a relatively uniform way among the rest of the groups listed in table II.1 (from 1.4 to 0.7 points). As a result, the Gini coefficient improved from 0.42 to 0.39, along with the ratio of the mean incomes of the highest and lowest deciles, which decreased from 15.0 to 11.6. This process of redistribution coincided, however, with a significant increase in poverty levels during 1994-1996 caused by a drop in mean household income during those years; this does, however, demonstrate that the costs of Mexico's currency crisis were absorbed in a more or less equitable manner by the various segments of the population, at least with respect to the shrinking of current incomes, as compared to what has occurred in other countries faced with similar situations. This conclusion is also confirmed by the fact that the average income of working persons fell from 4.4 times the poverty line in 1994 to 3.7 in 1996, and that this trend was shared by almost all occupational categories, with the sole exception of professional and technical workers in the private sector (see table 6 of the statistical appendix). Furthermore, it is evident that the transfers to households by the

2 In these tables, figures for the Dominican Republic, El Salvador and Nicaragua, are also included. However, in the case of El Salvador, information is available only for 1995 and 1997, a period in which income distribution remained virtually unchanged; in the cases of Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic, only figures for 1997 are available.

Figure II.1a

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN INCOME CONCENTRATION, a/ 1990-1997
(Urban areas)

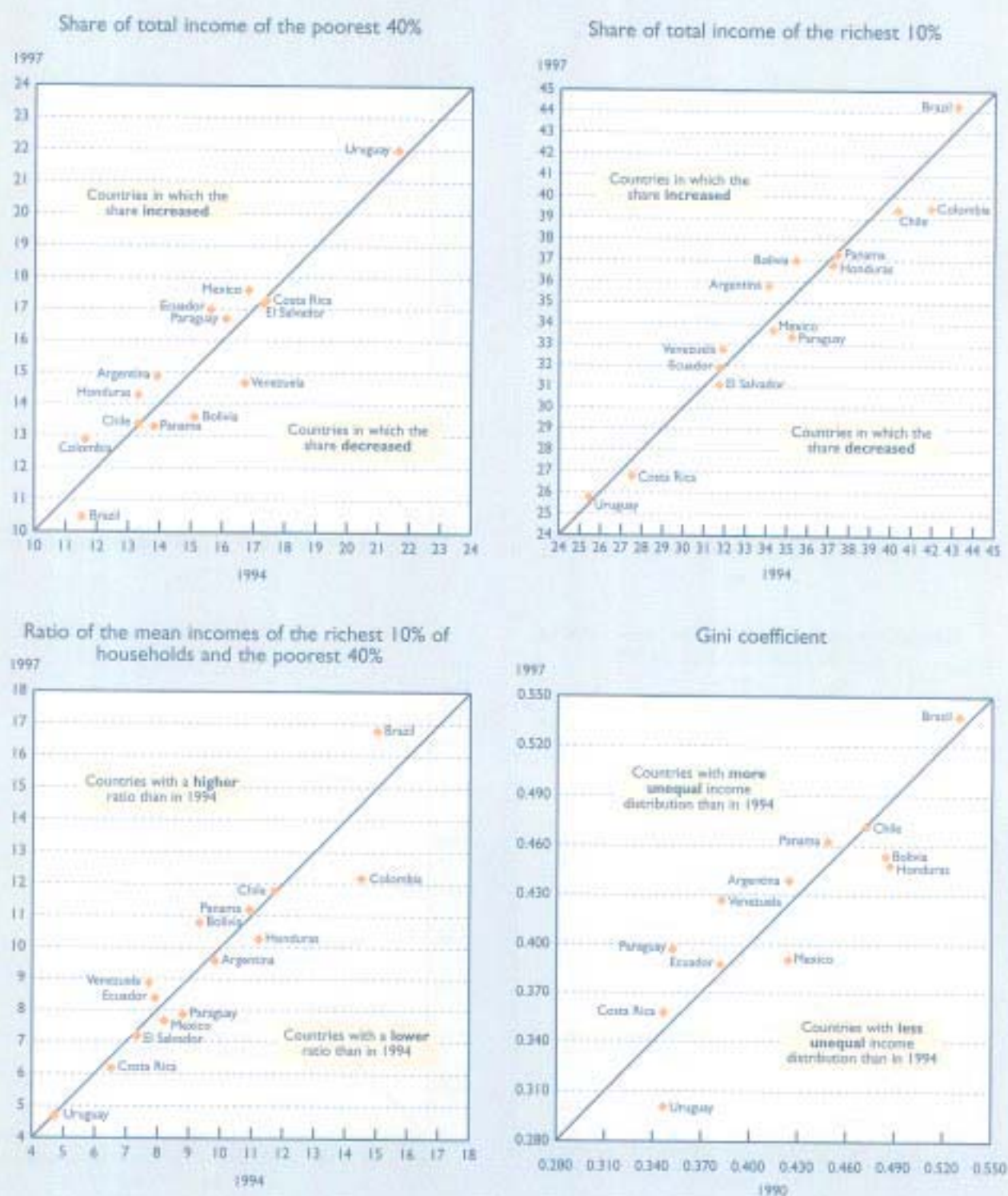


Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

a/ Calculated on the basis of per capita household income distribution, by decile. In the case of Venezuela, the data cover the entire country.

Figure II.1b

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN INCOME CONCENTRATION, a/ 1994-1997
(Urban areas)



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

a/ Calculated on the basis of per capita household income distribution, by decile. In the case of Venezuela, the data cover the entire country.

public sector were more accurately targeted than they were in most Latin American countries.

By the same token, in **Colombia**, during the 1994-1997 period (comparable figures for the total urban area are not available for 1990) the great majority of lower-income households (up to the 70th percentile) saw their share of total income increase, with the consequent deconcentration of distribution; thus, the Gini coefficient declined from 0.51 to 0.48 and the ratio of the mean incomes of households in the highest and lowest quintiles fell from 15.4 to 12.6. This achievement becomes all the more important in light of the fact that during this three-year period, the per capita income of the country rose by a mere 5.2%.

In **Chile**, where income distribution remained stable, virtually none of the household groups showed a noticeable change in their percentage of total income between 1990 and 1996. Thus, despite the rapid economic growth and the significant increase in social spending recorded during that period, the high rates of income concentration exhibited by the country for several years now have tended to remain constant; thus, the Gini coefficient for urban areas remains around 0.47 (a figure exceeded only by Brazil and similar to that of Colombia). The ratio of the mean incomes of households in the highest and lowest deciles is 23.2 which is also one of the highest in the region. Only between 1994 and 1996 was there a slight decline in the income share of the richest 10% of households (from 40.3% to 39.4% of total income), but this was not enough to alter the rates of concentration either for that biennium or for the 1990-1996 period as a whole (see tables II.1 and II.2).

Among the countries in which income distribution worsened, the case of **Brazil** is notable for the fact that this did not stand in the way of the significant progress made in reducing poverty during the 1990s, as discussed in the preceding chapter. Specifically, during the period 1993-1996, the poorest 40% of urban households suffered a decline from 11.5% to 10.5% in their share of total income, and the next-poorest 30% saw a decrease from 18.8% to 18.1%, while that of the highest decile rose from 43.2% to

44.3%. Between those same years, the Gini coefficient went from 0.52 to 0.54, the highest of all the Latin American countries for which there is information, and the income ratio for the highest and lowest quintiles went from 15.7 to 18.1. This process of concentration only served to reaffirm the trend observed since the beginning of the decade. One of a number of factors underlying this deterioration is the fact that the allocation of the country's increased public-sector transfers among the various sectors mirrored the country's existing distributional patterns, rather than being based on some sort of more explicit targeting policy; as a result, these transfers came to represent high percentages of the incomes of households in the top two deciles (19% and 18%, respectively). Nevertheless, given that the increase in transfers was significant for most of the deciles and that poverty lines constitute an absolute measurement, this general increase contributed both to a fall in poverty and to a worsening in distribution.

Another notable case is that of **Argentina**, where the expansion in economic activity thus far in this decade has been considerable, as shown by the increase in per capita income of close to 37%. However, this has been accompanied by a deterioration in income distribution. In effect, between 1990 and 1997, the proportion of total income received by the richest 10% of the households in Greater Buenos Aires rose from 34.8% to 35.8%, while the Gini coefficient went from 0.42 to 0.44; the ratio of the mean incomes of the highest and lowest deciles rose from 15.1 to 17.1, and the ratio for the highest and lowest quintiles from 8.0 to 9.6.

Lastly, in **Venezuela**, which had the worst growth performance, there was an evident erosion in income distribution. Between 1994 and 1997, the share of total income received by the poorest 40% of households decreased substantially (from 16.7% to 14.7%), while that of the households in the second-highest and third-highest deciles rose (from 27.0% to 28.6%), as did that of households in the highest income decile (from 31.4% to 32.8%). The diverging figures for the highest- and lowest-income groups accentuated the trend towards an increased

Table II.1

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): URBAN INCOME DISTRIBUTION, a/ 1990-1997					
Country	Year	Poorest 40%	Next 30%	10% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%
Argentina b/	1990	14.9	23.6	26.7	34.8
	1994	13.9	23.4	28.6	34.1
	1997	14.9	22.2	27.1	35.8
Bolivia	1989	12.1	21.9	27.8	38.2
	1994	15.1	22.3	27.2	35.4
	1997	13.6	22.5	26.9	37.0
Brazil	1990	10.3	19.4	28.5	41.8
	1993	11.5	18.8	26.5	43.2
	1996	10.5	18.1	27.0	44.3
Chile	1990	13.4	21.2	26.2	39.2
	1994	13.3	20.5	25.9	40.3
	1996	13.4	20.9	26.4	39.4
Colombia	1990 c/	13.7	22.5	28.9	34.9
	1994	11.6	20.4	26.1	41.9
	1997	12.9	21.4	26.1	39.5
Costa Rica	1990	17.8	28.7	28.9	24.6
	1994	17.4	26.8	28.3	27.5
	1997	17.3	27.6	28.4	26.8
Ecuador	1990	17.1	25.4	27.0	30.5
	1994	15.6	26.3	26.4	31.7
	1997	17.0	24.7	26.4	31.9
El Salvador	1995	17.3	25.1	25.8	31.7
	1997	17.2	24.8	26.9	31.1
Honduras	1990	12.2	20.8	28.1	38.9
	1994	13.3	23.0	26.5	37.2
	1997	14.3	22.8	26.1	36.8
Mexico d/	1989	16.2	22.0	24.8	36.9
	1994	16.8	22.8	26.1	34.3
	1996	17.6	23.2	25.5	33.7
Nicaragua	1997	14.4	23.0	27.1	35.4
Panama	1991	13.3	24.3	28.2	34.2
	1994	13.8	23.3	25.5	37.4
	1997	13.3	22.4	27.0	37.3
Paraguay	1990 e/	18.6	25.7	26.8	28.9
	1994	16.1	22.6	26.1	35.2
	1996	16.7	24.6	25.3	33.4
Dominican Republic	1997	14.8	23.8	25.8	35.5
Uruguay	1990	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2
	1994	21.6	26.3	26.7	25.4
	1997	22.0	26.1	26.1	25.8
Venezuela	1990	16.8	26.1	28.7	28.4
	1994	16.7	24.9	27.0	31.4
	1997 f/	14.7	24.0	28.6	32.8

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

a/ Refers to the share of urban households in total income, arranged in order of per capita income.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Eight major cities.

d/ Special tabulations from the survey of income and expenditure surveys.

e/ Asunción metropolitan area.

f/ National total.

concentration of income that had begun in 1990.³ In line with this trend, during the 1990-1997 period, the Gini coefficient rose from 0.38 to 0.43, and the differential between the mean incomes of the highest and lowest deciles widened, with the ratio moving from 14.2 to 18.2, while the ratio between the highest and lowest quintiles (20% of households) climbed from 7.9 to 9.8; the ratio between the richest 10% of households and the poorest 40% rose from 6.8 to 8.9.

In terms of income distribution in rural areas, the available information for some countries indicates the existence of a range of situations which do not always coincide with the trends observed in these indicators in urban areas between 1990 and 1997. In Brazil, the Gini coefficient showed a degree of stability in the rural environment (around 0.46), although there was a deterioration in the ratio of the mean incomes of the richest 10% of households and the poorest 40% (from 10.6 to 11.8). In Chile, there was a major improvement in distribution at the rural level, after the sharp deterioration that occurred between 1987 and 1990, in contrast to the relative stability in urban income distribution in the course of the decade; the Gini coefficient fell from 0.49 to 0.40, and the share of the poorest 40% of households rose by three full percentage points (from 13.8% to 16.8%). In Colombia, there was also a significant deconcentration of rural income, in this case between 1994 and 1997, as shown by the drop in the Gini index from 0.49 to 0.40, a rise from 10% to 15.4% in the share of the poorest 40% of households, and the resulting decrease in the gap between the mean incomes of this group and of the richest 10% of households from 13.8 to 7.8. In Costa Rica, on the other hand, there was a slight deterioration in rural distribution, whereas El Salvador and Honduras recorded a noticeable

improvement (in the case of El Salvador, this occurred during the period 1995-1997).

Mexico made a somewhat limited degree of progress, as shown by the increase of 1.6 percentage points in the share of the poorest 40% of households, but the share of the richest 10% also rose (by 0.9 points), all of which was to the detriment of middle-income groups. In Panama, the concentration of income increased slightly (the Gini coefficient went from 0.43 to 0.44), with an expansion of 2.1 percentage points being registered in the share of the highest-income households, also at the expense of the middle-income groups. Lastly, in Venezuela there was a considerable deterioration in rural income distribution; in fact, the increase in concentration exceeded that recorded in urban areas between 1990 and 1994, as the share of the richest 10% of households rose 5.5 points, to the detriment of all other groups of households (see table 23 of the statistical appendix).

This overview once again points up the poor performance of the region in the area of income distribution in recent years, especially in view of the economic recovery experienced by the vast majority of the countries. This reactivation has paved the way for an increase in real per capita gross national income throughout the region, with the exception of only two countries,⁴ and also, therefore, for a reduction in poverty and extreme poverty, but has not led to improved equity in income distribution.

One important factor in explaining the pattern of income distribution is the trend in employment and labour income during the 1994-1997 period, which corroborates the analyses presented in the editions of the *Social Panorama* published in the initial years of the 1990s. In this respect, it can be seen that the

³ Notice should be taken, however, of the fact that the trend indicated by these figures is overestimated because the data for 1997 are for the entire country whereas the data for the two previous years (1990 and 1994) cover only urban areas. Nevertheless, according to simulations that have been conducted, this does not alter the general trend indicated, since in the last three years income concentration also increased in the country's urban areas as a whole.

⁴ The exceptions are Nicaragua and Venezuela, which registered average annual decreases in per capita income of 0.2% and 0.1%, respectively, between 1991 and 1997 (see table 1.4).

Table II.2

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): URBAN INCOME CONCENTRATION, 1990-1997								
Country	Year	Gini index ^{a/}	Ratios					
			Average household income ^{b/}			Average per capita income ^{b/}		
			D ¹⁰ /D ¹	D ¹⁰ /D ¹⁻⁴	Q ⁵ /Q ¹	D ¹⁰ /D ¹	D ¹⁰ /D ¹⁻⁴	Q ⁵ /Q ¹
Argentina ^{c/}	1990	0.423	15.1	9.3	8.0	26.6	13.5	13.5
	1994	0.439	16.1	9.8	10.2	30.4	15.5	15.6
	1997	0.429	17.1	9.6	9.6	34.1	34.1	16.4
Bolivia	1989	0.484	53.1	12.8	35.9	61.5	17.0	21.2
	1994	0.434	18.0	9.3	9.6	31.4	19.6	15.5
	1997	0.455	23.9	10.8	11.3	41.4	17.2	18.3
Brazil	1990	0.528	37.0	16.4	17.9	72.3	27.5	30.1
	1993	0.519	35.5	15.0	15.7	70.7	25.1	27.7
	1996	0.538	42.0	16.8	18.1	86.9	28.9	32.4
Chile	1990	0.471	22.8	11.7	11.7	36.6	17.0	17.5
	1994	0.473	23.5	11.7	11.7	37.3	17.1	17.5
	1996	0.473	23.2	11.8	11.7	36.8	17.4	17.6
Colombia	1990 ^{d/}	0.450	22.8	10.2	11.2	40.6	17.0	18.4
	1994	0.505	26.7	14.5	15.4	62.0	22.4	24.1
	1997	0.477	27.6	12.1	12.6	47.7	19.8	20.7
Costa Rica	1990	0.345	15.4	5.5	7.2	27.2	9.1	11.3
	1994	0.367	17.0	6.5	7.7	26.5	10.1	11.6
	1997	0.357	14.2	6.2	7.0	23.0	9.4	11.0
Ecuador	1990	0.381	14.7	7.1	7.8	25.8	11.4	12.3
	1994	0.397	21.1	7.9	9.1	37.0	13.0	11.7
	1997	0.388	15.4	8.4	7.4	25.0	11.5	12.2
El Salvador	1995	0.382	14.8	7.3	7.5	24.9	11.1	11.8
	1997	0.384	14.3	7.2	7.2	24.2	11.2	12.0
Honduras	1990	0.487	26.9	12.8	14.0	44.1	19.2	20.6
	1994	0.459	28.7	11.2	11.7	46.4	17.1	18.8
	1997	0.448	25.9	10.3	11.2	45.9	17.3	19.0
Mexico ^{e/}	1989	0.424	13.0	9.1	8.3	31.0	16.3	15.4
	1994	0.405	11.9	8.2	7.3	26.2	14.6	14.4
	1996	0.392	11.6	7.7	6.9	24.8	13.4	13.2
Nicaragua	1997	0.443	28.8	9.8	11.6	52.5	17.5	19.6
Panama	1991	0.448	32.2	10.3	13.1	60.9	18.3	22.7
	1994	0.451	23.7	10.9	11.3	46.2	18.3	20.2
	1997	0.462	27.1	11.3	12.2	51.6	19.6	21.6
Paraguay	1990 ^{f/}	0.350	10.7	5.8	6.1	19.0	10.1	10.6
	1994	0.423	17.0	8.8	9.0	33.0	15.2	15.4
	1996	0.295	14.7	7.9	7.7	27.2	13.0	13.4
Dominican Republic	1997	0.432	23.6	9.6	10.5	40.5	15.9	17.3
Uruguay	1990	0.345	8.9	6.2	5.4	17.5	9.4	9.4
	1994	0.301	7.0	4.7	4.5	16.0	8.1	8.8
	1997	0.300	7.0	4.7	4.5	16.6	8.5	9.1
Venezuela	1990	0.377	14.2	6.8	7.9	26.1	11.8	13.0
	1994	0.387	12.8	7.5	7.5	24.2	12.2	12.5
	1997 ^{g/}	0.435	18.2	8.9	9.8	33.5	14.9	16.1

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

a/ Calculated on the basis of per capita household income distribution, by deciles.

b/ D¹ represents the poorest 10% (decile) of households. D¹⁰ represents the richest 10% of households. The same notation is used in the case of quintiles (Q), which represent groups consisting of 20% of all households.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight major cities.

e/ Special tabulations of the results from income and expenditure surveys.

f/ Asunción metropolitan area.

g/ National total.

incomes of employers have remained well above the average for the working population; this trend has been so strong, in fact, that in 1997, in the urban areas of Argentina, Brazil, the Dominican Republic, Honduras and Venezuela, the ratio between the two groups reached values above 3.0, and in Chile, Mexico and Nicaragua, above 4.0. In Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay, this coefficient ranged between 2.0 and 3.0, and only in Costa Rica was there a lower level (1.5). At the same time, in nearly all of the countries in which income concentration increased during 1990-1997, the differential between the average income of employers and that of all working persons also increased, while in all the countries where there was improvement, just the opposite occurred (see table 6 of the statistical appendix).

On the other hand, public-sector employment, where income usually exceeds that of the overall average in the great majority of the countries in the region, has for some years been experiencing a moderate but progressive decline in relative terms (see tables 4 and 5 of the statistical appendix). In addition, the income of non-technical, non-professional own-account workers is usually below

the average for the work force as a whole, so that in cases where this category has been gaining in terms of its share of total employment, there has tended to be an erosion in the distribution of labour income. This is the case, for example, for the urban areas of Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Honduras, Panama, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela. At the same time, the income of professional and technical workers, which systematically exceeds the average, has held steady or increased in relation to the above-mentioned group, thus strengthening the share of the middle- and high-income strata in total income.

Thus, trends in employment and labour income in the region have played a part in accentuating certain regressive trends and in consolidating the income distribution profile. This situation has been aggravated, moreover, by the fact that the financial crises and weather-related problems that have affected Latin America in the past years have led to a comparatively greater decline in income for low-productivity occupations, which is also the category showing the greatest job growth, while during periods of economic reactivation, distributive structures have remained relatively constant.



Recent trends in the labour market

A. THE CONTINUING GROWTH OF THE LABOUR FORCE

The decline in the rate of population growth during the last few decades and the success of efforts to keep young people in the educational system for a longer period of time are factors that would be expected to slow the rate of expansion of the labour force. Nevertheless, the continued entry of women into the labour market and the need of poor and middle-income households to increase their employment density as a means of raising their incomes have outweighed these factors, and the increase in the participation rates for women and young people—especially in the case of lower-income households—has become a hallmark of Latin America's labour force in the 1990s.

At the beginning of the 1990s it was thought that a number of the factors that tend to lead to a decline in the growth rate of the labour supply would make their impact felt to an increasing degree in most of the countries of Latin America. This belief was based on several assumptions: the growth rate of the working-age population would continue to decline; as the ability of the educational system to keep young people in school improved, young people would no longer be entering the labour market at an early age; and a faster pace of economic growth would act as a disincentive for any increase in household employment density.¹ On the other hand, at that time it was still not clear how sharply the female

labour participation rate would rise. Moreover, because of the differences existing across countries in terms of their stages of demographic transition, their ability to increase spending on education and their economic potential, it was foreseeable that trends would differ from country to country. The information available for the 1990s does indicate, however, that the labour supply has not contracted; on the contrary, women and young people have, in general, continued to enter the labour market at a rapid pace. One of the contributing factors in this regard has been the fact that a full recovery has not occurred in the region's economies or, in particular, in the incomes of poor households.

¹ These effects may be countered, however, by other factors that tend to increase the size of the urban labour force, such as rural-urban migration or the high fertility rates which are still exhibited, in some cases, by the region's poorest households.

The relative influence of these factors has varied from country to country, giving rise to different trends. Nevertheless, a slowdown in the growth rate of the working-age population, for example, has occurred in all the countries; thus, the average annual growth rate for this population in the region as a whole fell from 2.69% in 1980-1985 to 2.55% in 1985-1990 and then to 2.48% in 1990-1995.

Labour force participation rates have risen in almost all the countries of Latin America during the 1990s. Indeed, of the 16 countries considered here, the rate has fallen only in El Salvador and the Dominican Republic, and in both of these cases it had previously climbed to levels above the regional average; in Venezuela, meanwhile, it jumped by more than seven percentage points. The growing number of women entering the workforce (an issue which was discussed in depth in the 1997 edition of the *Social Panorama*) continues to be the central factor accounting for this trend. Thus, during the period 1990-1997, the female labour force participation rate rose steadily and much more sharply than the male activity rate did. This was especially true in countries such as Argentina, Chile and Venezuela, where the rate of increase steepened during the period in question (probably because the rate had been relatively low at the beginning of the decade), and Brazil, where, after rising between 1990 and 1993, it appears to have levelled off at around 50% (see table III.1 and tables 2 and 3 of the statistical appendix).

In many countries, the increase in the female participation rate has been concentrated in lower-income households, which are also the ones in which this rate is usually well below the average; to a certain extent, this tends to support the hypothesis that the pressure on these households to have additional workers is still strong, even though the rate of per capita GDP growth appears to be favourable. If participation rates are analysed by income quartiles

(25% of all households), it will be seen, for example, that in Venezuela the rate for the poorest 25% of all households rose by more than 60% between 1990 and 1997; in Argentina, by more than 40%; and in Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Honduras and Mexico, by more than 20%² (in Mexico an increase of approximately the same magnitude was registered for women in high-income households as well). There are, however, some countries in which this has not happened, and the participation rate for women has increased more in middle- and high-income households than in low-income groups (Chile, Colombia, Honduras and Panama).³ As will be discussed in more detail below, in some countries an increase in the number of women joining the labour force has been coupled with rising levels of employment in low-productivity sectors, which serve as a refuge for many unskilled women coming from households headed by persons (either themselves or men who also lack work skills) who have been displaced from the dynamic sectors and who need to work in order to contribute to the household's income. In some cases, too, the institutional changes that have occurred in the sphere of education, such as the introduction of early schooling or the lengthening of the school day, have made it possible for women in low-income sectors to enter the labour market by reducing the associated child-care costs.⁴

At the same time, it is also important to look at the trends characterizing the segment of the labour force composed of persons between the ages of 15 and 24, since—as will be seen in section 4—this is the age group that has the greatest difficulties in finding employment. In half of the countries studied, the participation rate for this age group has increased during the 1990s, while in the other half it has decreased; in the first group the outstanding example is once again Venezuela, where the number of young people participating in the labour force has risen by more than 23%. If the figures are broken down by

2 This has not altered the fact, however, that the labour force participation rate for women—and for the population in general, for that matter—rises sharply as household income increases.

3 Persons employed as live-in domestic servants have not been included in this analysis because the aim here is to examine people's activity levels in relation to the living standards of their households of origin.

4 Although it is still too early for an evaluation, some countries have implemented educational policies designed specifically to meet the needs of these groups. For example, the educational reform programme launched in Uruguay in 1995 is designed to provide universal education from age 4 or 5 on; this policy measure targets low-income households by placing these services in schools located in extremely poor neighbourhoods.

Table III.1

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): URBAN LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE, BY SEX AND HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL, 1990 AND 1997 a/											
Country	Sex	Total		Quartile 1		Quartile 2		Quartile 3		Quartile 4	
		1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997
Argentina b/	Both sexes	55.7	59.4	42.5	43.3	48.2	54.7	60.9	62.6	72.1	72.6
	Men	75.7	76.0	66.0	69.2	70.7	74.0	78.6	77.1	86.4	84.6
	Women	38.0	44.3	22.5	31.6	30.0	38.1	44.3	49.0	58.4	61.4
Bolivia c/	Both sexes	58.4	60.2	44.5	53.5	59.3	60.3	64.0	62.1	65.2	64.7
	Men	73.1	73.3	59.1	72.6	74.9	73.6	79.0	72.3	78.3	74.7
	Women	45.0	48.2	32.0	37.9	45.3	48.6	50.2	52.1	53.0	54.8
Brazil d/	Both sexes	62.5	64.1	55.2	60.6	63.2	64.8	66.1	65.5	65.4	65.5
	Men	82.5	80.1	78.5	79.7	85.0	81.6	85.0	80.8	81.0	78.1
	Women	44.3	49.6	35.5	43.8	43.2	49.5	48.0	51.6	51.0	54.1
Chile d/	Both sexes	52.0	55.4	45.1	47.5	50.5	54.5	54.1	57.0	58.6	63.1
	Men	72.1	74.5	72.1	74.1	72.0	75.3	71.5	73.2	72.8	75.3
	Women	31.2	38.1	22.6	24.6	31.2	35.7	38.6	42.4	45.7	51.4
Colombia	Both sexes	60.3	62.2	56.0	54.7	58.6	61.1	61.3	64.7	65.8	68.5
	Men	79.2	77.9	80.0	75.2	78.6	78.7	79.0	78.9	73.3	78.7
	Women	43.9	48.7	35.8	38.8	41.9	46.4	45.9	52.3	53.0	59.0
Costa Rica	Both sexes	57.3	58.3	44.5	46.0	55.9	56.4	62.6	63.2	65.7	67.2
	Men	77.7	76.9	68.3	67.3	79.8	79.4	80.5	81.0	80.9	78.0
	Women	38.8	41.3	25.0	30.7	34.4	34.5	46.5	45.9	50.2	56.2
Ecuador	Both sexes	60.4	63.9	51.0	56.3	58.1	62.0	63.6	65.6	69.3	73.0
	Men	80.0	80.7	76.1	78.7	79.2	80.5	81.3	80.6	83.1	83.3
	Women	42.2	47.9	29.9	37.4	38.3	44.3	46.4	50.5	55.7	62.5
Honduras	Both sexes	60.2	64.7	52.5	59.6	58.9	63.1	60.5	67.2	67.7	69.0
	Men	80.8	83.2	78.5	81.5	81.1	83.1	82.3	85.6	80.9	82.5
	Women	43.4	49.2	35.0	42.4	39.9	46.4	41.1	50.9	56.9	57.6
Mexico e/	Both sexes	56.8	59.3	53.0	55.8	55.5	57.2	59.5	61.0	60.0	64.8
	Men	79.7	80.0	81.7	81.6	78.3	79.6	78.8	78.1	80.2	80.6
	Women	36.1	40.6	26.8	32.7	34.8	36.9	41.9	45.4	42.2	50.2
Panama f/	Both sexes	57.5	62.3	51.5	54.6	55.8	61.1	60.8	65.0	62.7	68.7
	Men	74.1	78.9	75.5	79.3	75.0	79.6	74.2	78.3	71.6	78.3
	Women	42.0	46.7	30.7	33.6	37.7	43.4	47.6	52.1	54.2	59.4
Uruguay	Both sexes	57.6	58.5	55.6	60.1	56.2	57.1	59.4	57.0	59.7	59.9
	Men	74.7	72.7	75.9	76.9	72.1	70.6	74.5	70.1	76.4	72.4
	Women	43.3	46.4	38.4	45.2	42.7	45.5	46.8	46.1	46.2	49.6
Venezuela	Both sexes	57.1	64.4	43.6	55.2	52.4	62.1	61.6	68.0	70.8	72.0
	Men	79.4	82.7	71.9	80.7	77.1	81.0	81.4	84.2	86.0	84.8
	Women	34.3	45.9	20.0	32.7	27.9	43.7	39.4	50.8	53.2	57.8

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

a/ Does not include live-in domestic employees.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ 1989-1997.

d/ 1990-1996.

e/ 1992-1996.

f/ 1991-1997.

gender, it will be noted that in all countries except Costa Rica and El Salvador the participation rate for young women rose much more between 1990 and 1997 than the rate for young men, which in some cases actually decreased.⁵ In a number of countries, the greatest increase in the young labour force occurred in the poorest households (Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador, Honduras, Mexico and Venezuela); in others, it was concentrated in middle- and high-income households (Colombia, Panama and Uruguay). There were also other countries, however, in which the participation rate for young people simply declined in all or nearly all income groups (Brazil, Chile and Costa Rica).

It is therefore valid to conclude that, generally speaking, the increase in Latin America's labour force participation rate is mainly attributable to the rising numbers of women and members of the youngest segments of the working-age population who are entering the labour market. Although women's educational levels are on the rise, the main

reason why their average participation rate is climbing lies in the behaviour of women from the poorest households, and the majority of these women cannot be expected to find employment in the modern sector of the economy. Likewise, the lower levels of education of young people seeking early employment (because many have dropped out of school) does not provide any basis for optimism with regard to the quality of the jobs they may obtain in the future. All this also leads to the conclusion that participation in the labour force is often a choice made on the basis of decisions taken within the household, rather than a personal decision of the individual in question; in this framework, it may be that the recovery in economic growth achieved in recent years is not in itself sufficient to prevent those households that are having the greatest difficulties in adapting to the uncertainties and instabilities of the 1990s from deciding that their secondary labour force should be actively, and perhaps prematurely, involved in the task of regaining their former income levels.

5. Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica and Mexico are some of the countries in which the participation rate for males between the ages of 15 and 24 fell during this period (see table III.5).

B. TYPES OF JOBS BEING CREATED AND TRENDS IN UNEMPLOYMENT

During the 1990s, and notwithstanding the substantial economic growth achieved in some years, there has been a trend in Latin America towards the consolidation of an uneven pattern of increases in employment and wages that is marked by a divergence between small core groups of high and growing productivity and much larger sectors in which productivity is low. In the latter, despite the strong growth of employment, the level of urban unemployment recorded in many countries in 1997 was higher than at the beginning of the decade, and in 1998 it reached 8.4%, which was 1.2 percentage points more than the year before. A conspicuous aspect of this general trend, which indicates that it is becoming progressively more difficult for people to find work, is the relative increase in unemployment among women and young people, especially among those from poor households.

Rates of job creation in the region have been only slightly lower than the growth rates of GDP and of the labour force. In the first eight years of this decade (1990-1997), employment increased at an average annual rate of 2.9%, while GDP growth was 3.2% and the labour force expanded by 3.1%, which means that labour productivity increased by a modest 0.3%. In 1998, however, GDP increased by 2.3% and, according to preliminary estimates, the economically active population (EAP) in urban areas maintained the same rate of increase as in the previous period (3.2%), while employment rose by 2.6% (a rate below the average for the preceding years).⁶

As pointed out in earlier editions of the *Social Panorama*, this situation would appear to confirm that the economic growth that has occurred in Latin America during the last few years (which peaked in 1997 at a rate of 5.2%) has not translated into a substantial increase in good-quality employment, given the concentration of new jobs at the lowest productivity levels of the private sector and, in general, in activities related to non-tradable goods. Indeed, if the net variation in employment in the region during the 1990s is analysed, it can be seen that the main contribution to the increase has come from the growing number of self-employed persons engaged in a wide variety of occupations; wage

6 See *Panorama Laboral '98* (ILO, 1998), which is based on data from ECLAC and official figures published by the relevant countries.

labour has also risen, but at a slower pace. Another important feature of the labour market has been the steady decline in public-sector employment. The structure of employment in the region's urban areas shows a rise in the percentage of wage earners in Argentina, Chile, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador and Panama, but in the last three of these countries, the available information indicates that this is mainly due to an increase in wage earners in the private sector, which would appear to have more than offset the decrease in salaried workers in the public sector.⁷ At the same time, an increase was observed between 1990 and 1997 in the percentage of the EAP accounted for by self-employed workers and unpaid family workers in Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela, and it was also seen that in almost all these countries the largest increase occurred among the least skilled workers in this category (see table 4 of the statistical appendix).

The persons employed in low-productivity sectors—defined as self-employment, unskilled and unpaid workers, employment in domestic service and microenterprises—have increased as a percentage of the urban labour force since 1990 in Argentina, Bolivia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Uruguay and Venezuela, while the proportion of such workers has declined in Brazil. In a number of other countries, such as Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay, although the share of total employment represented by these segments has shrunk or remained unchanged during this period, it is still quite high (see table 11 of the statistical appendix).

This suggests that the restructuring of the economy—a process that has mainly affected the industrial sector, the production of tradable goods and the public sector—and the low job creation rate for skilled occupations have brought about a much larger increase in low-productivity jobs than in jobs in the modern sectors of the economy, despite the major efforts made by most of the countries in the region to raise the educational and skill levels of

their labour force. The proliferation of jobs that do not provide standard benefits and the increase in the use of flexible forms of labour contracting based on fixed-term arrangements and subcontracting, all of which is being driven by the new organizational structures arising in industry and some types of services, have contributed to the increase in the number of workers in these types of jobs. Although more highly skilled workers, such as professionals and technicians, are also often faced with problems of job instability and insecurity and other forms of occupational uncertainty, these types of problems are of course much more serious in the case of the first group, since workers with low skill levels are unable to surmount the huge income disparities that have arisen.

The figures clearly reflect the widening income differentials existing between skilled and unskilled work. The gap between the pay levels of professionals and technicians in the private sector and of persons who lack these skills and work in enterprises employing more than five people has grown dramatically and progressively since the 1980s in almost all countries except Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras. In Bolivia, for example, this differential increased by more than 40%, with the ratio rising from 1.95 in 1989 to 2.75 in 1997; in Paraguay it grew by more than 50%, although starting from relatively similar income levels for the two groups at the beginning of the decade; and in both Panama and Uruguay the differential increased by 42%. Income differentials between salaried professionals and technicians and unskilled self-employed workers are in many cases even greater (see table 6 of the statistical appendix). This suggests that the modern sector of the economy—under ever-increasing pressure to raise its competitiveness and productivity while at the same time subject to external and internal macroeconomic instabilities—is to some extent succeeding in attracting the more highly skilled segments of the working population, while the low-productivity sectors have become the main recourse for the unskilled segments of the EAP;

7 In the cases of Argentina and Chile (1990 and 1994, respectively) no distinction is made between wage earners in the public and private sectors in the figures from household surveys which are presented in the statistical appendix. It is known, however, that in Argentina wage labour has increased in recent years mainly in medium-sized and large firms in the private sector, while the trends in other areas have been mixed (see ILO, 1998).

as discussed in the preceding chapter, this has also helped to consolidate a certain rigidity in income distribution; as a result, when viewed from an international perspective, the region continues to be notable for its high degree of income concentration.

Meanwhile, in the field of education, as of 1997 most of the countries' labour forces were more highly educated than they had been at the beginning of the decade. Nevertheless, some countries continue to lag behind in this respect; examples include Honduras and Brazil, where more than 62% and 55%, respectively, of the employed population has completed eight years of school or less (see table III.6).

The share of both total regional employment and rural employment accounted for by agricultural employment has been declining. At the same time, the percentage of rural wage earners in these areas has decreased in some countries. In Brazil, this proportion shrank from 44.3% to 34.3% between 1990 and 1996, while the figure for self-employed workers rose from 52.7% to 63.8%. In the Dominican Republic, it fell from 52.4% in 1992 to 45.6% in 1997, while the percentage of self-employed workers climbed from 43.7% to 51.0%. In Colombia and Mexico a similar –though less marked– trend was observed, while in Panama the figures moved in the opposite direction. In the other seven countries studied, the structure of rural employment remained relatively constant (see table 5 of the statistical appendix). The highest incidence of poverty among those employed in rural areas is among non-professional, non-technical self-employed workers, while the group that has been comparatively least affected by this problem is composed of wage earners in enterprises employing more than five workers (see table 21 of the statistical appendix). In line with this observation, the available data suggest that during this period the introduction of agricultural machinery and technology has been influential in the region's ability to attain higher yields per hectare, although the process has been marred by a sharp dichotomy between high- and low-productivity sectors which

has, in turn, translated into substantial differentials in the pay levels of the workers in these two sectors (see table 7 of the statistical appendix).

When employment figures are broken down by sector, it may be seen that during the period 1990-1997 there has been a gradual decline in the percentage of the EAP employed in manufacturing and a sustained increase in the percentage working in the tertiary sector (commerce and services). Thus, the share of total employment represented by commerce and services rose in 10 of the 14 countries analysed and fell only in Bolivia, Panama and the Dominican Republic, while remaining unchanged in Honduras. Meanwhile, employment in manufacturing has decreased in relative terms in all the countries except Bolivia, the Dominican Republic, Honduras and Mexico; in the latter case it should also be noted that the increase was accounted for by higher employment levels in Mexico's *maquila* sector, since a decrease was registered in traditional manufacturing activities (see table III.2).

When the situation is viewed from the standpoint of the absorption of the labour force, there are also some worrisome signs. Unemployment in Latin America, after exhibiting a downward trend from the mid-1980s until the early 1990s, began to rise again in the mid-1990s, partly as a result of the adverse effects that the 1995 Mexican crisis had on some of the countries of the region. Then, in 1997, when unemployment figures seemed to be heralding a reversal in this upward trend, the Asian crisis and its repercussions on the regional economy, especially in countries such as Brazil, forced a revision of these predictions. Thus, it is estimated that the rate of unemployment in the region for 1998 will border on 8.4% –1.2 percentage points higher than in 1997– due mainly to increases in unemployment in Brazil, Chile and Colombia.⁸

In most of the countries of Latin America –including those with the largest populations (Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, Colombia and Venezuela), in which the bulk of the region's

8 See *Panorama Laboral '98* (ILO, 1998).

Table III.2

**LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): URBAN EMPLOYMENT STRUCTURE,
BY SECTOR OF ACTIVITY, 1990 AND 1997 a/**

Country	Year	Total	Agriculture and mining	Manufacturing	Construction	Transport and communications	Commerce and services
Argentina b/	1990	100.0	0.4	25.3	6.3	6.7	61.3
	1997	100.0	0.3	19.4	6.8	8.8	64.6
Bolivia	1989	100.0	4.3	15.0	7.8	7.8	65.0
	1997	100.0	9.8	18.5	8.4	7.9	55.4
Brazil	1990	100.0	6.8	25.2	1.0	4.8	62.2
	1996	100.0	8.7	16.0	7.5	4.6	63.2
Chile	1990	100.0	8.1	28.0	20.0	8.3	35.6
	1996	100.0	8.5	17.0	9.4	7.8	57.3
Colombia	1990	100.0	2.0	24.2	5.7	6.6	61.5
	1997	100.0	3.0	18.2	6.3	7.1	65.3
Costa Rica	1990	100.0	3.8	23.5	6.0	5.3	61.4
	1997	100.0	3.1	18.6	6.0	6.3	66.0
Ecuador	1990	100.0	7.5	18.9	7.2	5.7	60.6
	1997	100.0	7.2	15.9	6.0	5.7	65.2
Honduras	1990	100.0	10.3	20.6	7.7	4.4	57.0
	1997	100.0	8.7	24.8	5.9	3.5	57.2
Mexico	1992	100.0	9.2	21.5	6.7	4.8	57.8
	1996	100.0	2.9	22.7	6.0	5.4	63.0
Panama	1991	100.0	4.6	13.0	3.6	8.6	70.2
	1997	100.0	2.9	12.9	6.9	8.5	68.8
Paraguay	1990	100.0	2.3	19.2	8.2	5.8	64.5
	1996	100.0	3.2	18.1	8.0	5.2	65.5
Dominican Republic	1992	100.0	8.6	18.4	4.1	6.8	62.1
	1997	100.0	5.4	21.3	6.9	7.6	58.9
Uruguay	1990	100.0	3.5	22.3	6.7	5.8	61.6
	1997	100.0	5.0	18.0	6.7	5.9	64.3
Venezuela	1990	100.0	14.6	16.1	7.3	6.2	55.9
	1997	100.0	10.7	15.0	8.7	6.5	59.1

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

a/ Does not include live-in domestic employees.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

unemployment is concentrated— the rate of urban unemployment in 1997 was higher than at the start of the decade;⁹ the rate was lower only in Bolivia, Chile, Honduras and Panama, while in the remaining countries it showed no significant variations. In several cases, women had higher unemployment rates (with the exception of El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico and Nicaragua), and in every case without exception, the rate for young people between the ages of 15 and 24 was well above the average for the EAP as a whole, and in some instances was so much so that it was more than double the general rate. In many countries, unemployment is also particularly high among the segment of the population whose level of educational attainment is in the mid-range (from 6 to 12 years of schooling), as compared with those segments that have not completed their primary schooling or have completed 13 or more years of formal education (see table 15 of the statistical appendix).

Unemployment is also much higher among the members of households in the lowest income quartile, which shows that this phenomenon is associated with the problems of poverty and income differentials that were discussed earlier. It is also in this group of households that the highest percentages of young people who are neither studying nor working are to be found, which very often constitutes

a worse situation than open unemployment itself. Nevertheless, it is of interest to note that in the countries in which unemployment rose during the period 1990-1997, the bulk of this increase was accounted for by higher rates of joblessness in the middle- and upper-income groups of the population (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Uruguay and Venezuela), while in others, such as Colombia and Mexico, it was the lower-income groups that were most affected. In the case of Mexico, for example, the 20% increase in the average rate of unemployment between 1992 and 1996 was due to changes in employment levels in the poorer half of society, since unemployment actually declined in the other half (see table III.3).

Such findings merely underscore the fact that unemployment in Latin America is a particularly serious problem for women and, in particular, the youngest members of the workforce. At the same time, poor households generally have the highest percentages of unemployment, although in the 1990s unemployment appears to be increasingly affecting the middle- and upper-income sectors as well; this is at least to some extent in keeping with the trend whereby young people having intermediate levels of educational attainment are having increasing difficulties in finding work.

9 In Argentina this rate rose from 6% to 14.3%; in Brazil, from 4.5% to 8.1% (1990-1996); in Mexico, from 4.3% to 5.1% (1992-1996); in Colombia, from 10.6% to 12.1%; and in Venezuela, from 9.8% to 10.7% (in the latter case, the figures are for the country as a whole) (see table III.3). It should be noted that these figures may not be the same as those given in table I of the statistical appendix due to differences in the years covered and the sources of information used.

Table III.3

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): URBAN OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATE, BY SEX AND HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL, 1990 AND 1997 ^{a/}											
Country	Sex	Total		Quartile 1		Quartile 2		Quartile 3		Quartile 4	
		1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997
Argentina ^{b/}	Both sexes	6.0	14.3	17.3	31.9	6.0	17.0	3.4	9.7	1.1	3.0
	Men	5.7	12.4	15.9	28.8	4.4	13.0	3.3	8.1	1.0	1.4
	Women	6.5	17.3	20.8	38.0	9.1	23.7	3.6	12.0	1.1	5.0
Bolivia ^{c/}	Both sexes	9.7	4.5	24.6	8.8	9.2	5.2	6.4	3.4	3.5	1.5
	Men	9.6	4.5	24.7	9.7	8.0	4.7	6.3	2.5	3.9	1.9
	Women	9.8	4.6	24.3	7.5	11.0	5.9	6.6	4.6	3.0	1.0
Brazil ^{d/}	Both sexes	4.5	8.1	9.6	15.3	4.5	8.0	3.1	5.5	1.6	3.8
	Men	4.8	6.7	10.8	13.1	4.3	6.0	3.1	4.3	1.6	3.1
	Women	4.1	10.2	7.3	18.8	4.9	11.0	3.2	7.2	1.7	4.7
Chile ^{d/}	Both sexes	8.9	6.0	20.2	14.4	10.0	6.7	4.9	3.2	2.5	1.6
	Men	8.1	5.1	18.0	11.4	8.6	5.4	4.2	2.5	1.8	1.4
	Women	10.2	7.6	25.9	22.0	12.8	9.3	6.1	4.3	3.5	1.8
Colombia	Both sexes	10.6	12.1	18.7	24.1	12.3	12.3	7.8	8.7	4.6	5.2
	Men	8.2	9.7	13.4	19.1	9.7	9.2	6.0	6.6	3.9	4.8
	Women	14.2	15.4	28.4	31.6	16.4	16.7	10.5	11.4	5.4	5.7
Costa Rica	Both sexes	5.4	5.9	13.8	14.9	5.1	5.2	3.5	4.2	1.8	1.9
	Men	4.9	5.3	13.9	14.1	4.0	4.7	2.2	3.6	1.8	1.5
	Women	6.3	6.8	13.6	16.3	7.4	6.2	5.7	5.4	1.8	2.5
Ecuador	Both sexes	6.2	9.3	12.4	17.4	6.4	10.3	5.0	6.9	2.3	3.8
	Men	4.2	6.9	9.0	14.0	3.9	7.0	3.2	4.6	1.4	2.7
	Women	9.6	13.1	19.6	23.5	11.4	16.0	8.2	10.6	3.5	5.3
Honduras	Both sexes	6.9	5.4	14.3	12.9	8.1	4.9	5.2	3.0	2.5	1.8
	Men	7.6	5.9	16.4	14.5	8.8	4.7	4.9	3.2	2.5	2.2
	Women	5.9	4.6	11.1	10.6	7.0	5.2	5.6	2.7	2.4	1.3
Mexico ^{e/}	Both sexes	4.3	5.1	6.6	8.8	4.5	6.0	3.2	3.2	2.7	2.1
	Men	4.4	5.8	6.6	9.7	4.4	6.3	3.7	3.8	2.3	2.3
	Women	3.9	3.9	6.5	6.8	4.6	5.5	2.3	2.3	3.2	1.7
Panama ^{f/}	Both sexes	19.1	15.3	32.5	28.1	23.3	17.8	14.5	12.2	7.2	5.5
	Men	16.0	12.8	25.2	22.9	18.2	13.2	13.4	10.3	5.8	4.9
	Women	24.3	19.4	47.9	38.4	32.9	25.9	16.3	15.0	8.9	6.3
Uruguay	Both sexes	9.0	11.4	16.6	19.9	8.8	11.4	5.9	7.0	3.7	4.5
	Men	7.4	8.9	13.7	14.7	7.2	8.8	4.2	5.7	3.0	3.5
	Women	11.3	14.8	21.5	27.7	11.1	14.8	8.1	8.6	4.7	5.7
Venezuela	Both sexes	9.8	10.7	25.6	21.8	10.6	11.8	6.0	7.5	2.7	4.5
	Men	10.2	9.0	26.1	15.6	10.6	9.6	6.0	6.1	2.7	3.5
	Women	8.6	13.8	24.0	28.8	10.7	15.8	6.0	10.1	2.5	6.1

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

a/ Does not include live-in domestic employees.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ 1989-1997.

d/ 1990-1996.

e/ 1992-1996.

f/ 1991-1997.

C. ABSORPTION OF YOUNG PEOPLE INTO THE LABOUR MARKET: HETEROGENEITY AND DISEQUILIBRIA

The insufficient economic dynamism observed in most of the countries in the region and the relative scarcity of good-quality jobs make it difficult for today's increasingly educated young people to find suitable positions in the labour market. Meanwhile, because of the precarious situation of low-income households, their younger members often seek gainful employment at an early age. This trend consolidates –and even exacerbates– the inequitable distribution of education among people from households of different socio-economic levels.

The young people of Latin America are particularly subject to problems of unemployment and job insecurity, as well as to the effects of the lag between what they are taught in the educational system and the new demands generated by productive and institutional change. At the same time, the insufficient economic dynamism of the region translates into demands that pressure the poorer households to have their young people seek work at an early age, which adversely affects their educational attainment and, ultimately, their possibilities of getting a good job in the future. Some of the characteristics of the employment situation of this segment of the population are examined below, with special reference to the participation of young people in the workforce, the sectors of production in which they are incorporated, a breakdown of their unemployment levels by educational profile and family income, the situation of first-time job-seekers and the duration of unemployment.

Young people between the ages of 15 and 24 make up between a fifth and a quarter of the labour force

in Latin America. In the countries with the highest fertility rates, this proportion may be even higher than 25% (Brazil, the Dominican Republic, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua and Paraguay). During the 1990s, the participation of this age group in economic activity has been increasing in Argentina, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, Uruguay, Honduras, Paraguay and Venezuela, and has been rising at a particularly rapid rate in the last three years (see table III.4). If the participation rate of young people is analysed on the basis of the level of income of the households to which they belong, it will be noted that, with some exceptions, in the countries where the proportion has risen, the increase has been especially sharp in the poorest quartile. In Honduras, for example, almost 40% of the 11% increase in young people's economic activity was accounted for by the lowest income quartile, while the increase in the highest income quartile was only 2.4%. In Bolivia, where the participation rate for young people remained stable (at around 38%), there was an increase of 11% among young people from households in the poorest quartile and a decrease

Table III.4

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): URBAN LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATES FOR PEOPLE BETWEEN THE AGES OF 15 AND 24 a/								
Country	Year	Labour force participation rate		Unemployment rate		Percentage of young people in total EAP	Percentage of unemployed young people in total unemployed	Youth unemployment rate / total unemployment rate (ratio)
		Total	Youth	Total	Youth			
Argentina b/	1990	56	52	5.9	13.0	19.2	42.1	2.20
	1994	57	54	13.0	22.8	21.8	38.1	1.75
	1997	59	53	14.3	24.2	20.6	35.0	1.69
Bolivia	1989	59	41	9.4	17.4	23.1	43.0	1.85
	1994	62	43	3.2	5.8	24.2	44.0	1.81
	1997	62	41	3.7	6.4	21.9	38.3	1.73
Brazil	1990	63	62	4.5	8.3	28.2	52.7	1.84
	1993	66	64	7.4	14.3	27.1	52.4	1.93
	1996	64	61	8.0	15.1	26.3	49.3	1.89
Chile	1990	52	38	8.7	17.9	19.5	40.1	2.06
	1994	55	40	6.8	16.1	18.2	43.1	2.37
	1996	56	37	6.0	13.2	14.3	36.1	2.20
Colombia	1990	61	49	10.3	20.1	23.8	46.5	1.95
	1994	62	50	8.0	16.2	22.8	46.0	2.03
	1997	63	48	11.8	24.3	21.8	44.8	2.06
Costa Rica	1990	57	51	5.3	10.5	25.3	49.8	1.98
	1994	57	47	4.2	9.7	22.0	50.4	2.31
	1997	58	47	5.8	13.0	21.9	49.1	2.24
Ecuador	1990	61	44	6.1	13.5	23.8	53.0	2.21
	1994	63	49	7.1	14.9	24.3	51.3	2.10
	1997	64	48	9.2	18.9	23.3	48.2	2.05
El Salvador	1990	64	51	9.9	19.3	26.1	51.0	1.95
	1995	62	48	6.8	14.0	25.1	51.6	2.06
	1997	60	43	7.3	14.6	21.9	43.8	2.00
Honduras	1990	60	48	6.9	11.2	28.9	46.7	1.62
	1994	60	48	4.1	7.3	29.4	51.7	1.73
	1997	65	55	5.2	8.9	29.4	50.1	1.71
Mexico	1989	53	43	3.3	8.1	27.8	69.0	2.45
	1994	57	47	4.5	9.4	26.9	55.8	2.09
	1996	59	47	5.1	12.5	25.2	61.6	2.45
Nicaragua	1997	61	45	13.1	20.9	35.8	41.1	1.60
Panama	1989	65	47	27.0	37.1	22.7	31.2	1.37
	1994	62	51	15.7	31.0	23.7	47.0	1.97
	1997	63	50	15.4	31.5	22.0	45.3	2.05
Paraguay c/	1990	65	59	6.3	15.5	26.6	65.6	2.46
	1994	69	64	4.4	8.3	27.3	51.5	1.89
	1996	71	65	8.4	17.8	27.6	58.3	2.12
Dominican Republic	1992	69	66	19.7	34.1	33.8	58.4	1.73
	1995	60	51	17.0	30.6	38.8	51.8	1.80
	1997	64	56	17.0	27.8	30.5	50.0	1.64
Uruguay	1990	58	57	8.9	24.4	19.5	53.5	2.74
	1994	60	62	9.7	24.7	31.5	54.5	2.55
	1997	59	61	11.4	26.3	21.6	49.8	2.31
Venezuela d/	1990	57	41	9.6	17.8	22.9	43.5	1.85
	1994	59	44	8.4	15.6	22.7	42.2	1.86
	1997	64	50	10.6	19.8	23.3	43.4	1.87

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

a/ Includes live-in domestic employees.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Asunción.

d/ Nationwide total.

among the rest. It is also important to take note of the more or less generalized increase in the participation of young women. In 11 of the 16 countries analysed it was found that during this decade their participation rates have risen much faster than the rates for men; this phenomenon has been the most pronounced in Venezuela, while in Costa Rica the situation is the reverse, with a marked decrease in the participation rate for young women¹⁰ (see table III.5).

The question of early entry into the labour force is closely bound up with the ability of the educational system to retain students and with the economic status of the household, which may delay or accelerate the incorporation of young people into the labour market. Both situations are also related to the way in which households –and young people– perceive the usefulness of investment in human capital. In this connection, it should be pointed out that the young labour force has recently evidenced a sustained (although not yet sufficiently rapid) increase in the average number of years of schooling; there are very few countries in which the number of years spent in school by the young members of the EAP has stagnated or declined, although in Brazil, Honduras and Nicaragua these numbers are still very low (see table III.6).

With regard to the type of jobs held by young people as compared with the occupational profile of the employed labour force as a whole, it will be noted that in most countries this age group is also concentrated in commerce and services, with the percentages ranging from 48% (Honduras) to 70% (Panama) in 1997. In addition, in all the countries except Panama, the proportion of young workers in the manufacturing sector is higher than the percentage of the total employed population employed in that sector (see table III.7). In low-productivity urban sectors, young workers account for between 14% and 25% of the total workforce. Chile is the country where the percentage of young

people in these sectors is the lowest and Honduras is the country where it is the highest, while in Argentina, Colombia, Costa Rica and Uruguay they account for less than one fifth of the total. This indicates that employment in these sectors is not a special characteristic of the young, but also –indeed particularly– involves older people.

Young people are, however, less successful in finding jobs than the rest of the labour force; in fact, the rate of unemployment of the active population between the ages of 15 and 24 represents more than half of all unemployment in the urban areas of Latin America. In 1997, these groups accounted for about 60% of unemployment in such countries as Mexico and Paraguay, while the figure was about 50% in Brazil, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Honduras and Uruguay. The percentage of total unemployment corresponding to young people is smaller in Argentina, Bolivia and Chile, where it is mainly the older age groups that are affected. At the same time, it will also be observed that in many countries the rate of unemployment among young people is more than twice as high as the overall rate, which attests to the scale of the problem. Panama's young people have the highest rate of unemployment in the region (31.5%), but rates are also high in Argentina (24.2%), Colombia (24.3%), Dominican Republic (27.8%), Nicaragua (20.9%) and Uruguay (26.3%) (see table III.4).

If the unemployment of young people is analysed on the basis of the income levels of their households, it will be seen that during the period 1990-1997 the ratio between the rates in the poorest and richest quartiles has increased in 8 out of the 12 countries studied;¹¹ this gap has narrowed only in Brazil, Venezuela and Ecuador, while in Uruguay it has remained stable. There are some striking differences across countries. For example, in Honduras in 1997 the rate of unemployment for the first income quartile was 13.1 times more than it was for the fourth (highest income) quartile, and there was also

¹⁰ If live-in domestic servants are not counted as part of the EAP, then it may be seen that the increase in the participation rate for young women has also been concentrated in the poorest households.

¹¹ For the purposes of the classification of households by quartiles and the analysis of their characteristics, live-in domestic workers have been excluded, since they do not correlate with the household's income level.

Table III.5

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): URBAN LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE FOR PEOPLE BETWEEN THE AGES OF 15 AND 24, BY SEX AND HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL, 1990 AND 1997 a/											
Country	Sex	Total		Quartile 1		Quartile 2		Quartile 3		Quartile 4	
		1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997
Argentina b/	Both sexes	51.4	53.0	41.8	48.9	52.1	49.5	56.9	54.8	56.7	61.3
	Men	61.7	61.3	57.9	60.7	65.3	62.3	63.3	58.5	59.9	64.8
	Women	40.2	43.9	29.3	35.8	37.3	37.3	48.3	50.5	52.5	57.3
Bolivia c/	Both sexes	38.2	38.0	28.2	31.4	41.4	39.9	43.3	42.8	38.8	37.0
	Men	46.7	45.8	33.4	40.2	52.5	46.3	54.0	50.5	45.4	45.1
	Women	30.2	30.4	23.5	24.4	31.1	34.0	33.4	34.7	32.3	28.0
Brazil d/	Both sexes	61.7	60.3	54.8	54.3	65.6	64.2	67.0	66.5	58.1	56.6
	Men	77.5	71.8	74.4	69.3	83.3	76.7	80.9	76.5	67.7	62.5
	Women	46.0	48.7	36.9	40.6	47.8	51.4	52.7	55.7	48.5	50.4
Chile d/	Both sexes	36.9	36.2	31.7	31.3	39.9	41.7	42.7	40.6	32.8	30.1
	Men	46.7	44.4	46.9	44.0	51.3	51.5	49.8	47.4	35.3	31.9
	Women	27.4	27.9	19.4	19.6	28.3	31.9	35.3	33.5	30.0	28.0
Colombia	Both sexes	47.3	46.9	44.3	41.2	48.3	48.6	52.6	52.0	42.4	45.5
	Men	59.0	55.3	59.1	51.6	61.9	58.3	64.2	59.6	47.0	50.1
	Women	37.0	39.3	32.2	32.7	37.0	40.0	41.7	44.9	38.1	41.1
Costa Rica	Both sexes	50.6	46.8	39.8	38.7	51.8	49.0	58.4	51.7	51.2	47.5
	Men	61.9	60.4	51.8	55.5	66.8	67.2	67.8	63.3	58.8	52.9
	Women	38.7	32.9	28.1	26.0	35.8	29.0	49.1	38.5	41.3	41.0
Ecuador	Both sexes	43.4	46.8	34.4	43.6	42.2	48.1	48.7	47.4	49.1	48.6
	Men	56.3	58.1	48.8	56.6	56.7	61.8	61.6	59.6	57.6	51.6
	Women	30.8	35.6	21.7	33.1	27.8	34.0	35.8	33.7	40.6	45.5
Honduras	Both sexes	48.4	53.7	40.5	56.5	51.4	49.9	50.0	57.0	50.5	51.7
	Men	65.7	69.7	61.0	76.6	72.3	68.6	70.5	72.7	55.7	59.9
	Women	34.5	39.9	25.7	38.0	32.2	34.0	32.6	43.4	46.8	44.9
Mexico e/	Both sexes	48.8	47.9	49.3	50.4	49.8	49.4	49.4	48.5	46.0	39.0
	Men	62.9	60.1	71.3	67.2	62.7	63.9	59.8	56.5	54.1	44.2
	Women	35.0	35.6	28.3	33.5	37.6	35.7	38.8	39.7	37.2	33.3
Panama f/	Both sexes	45.5	49.4	44.8	46.0	47.6	51.7	47.6	51.5	39.6	47.8
	Men	57.5	61.7	60.9	64.4	60.1	64.9	57.7	61.3	45.9	52.5
	Women	33.1	36.8	29.0	29.3	35.0	37.5	36.4	40.6	32.6	43.1
Uruguay	Both sexes	56.6	60.8	54.7	58.6	56.5	64.8	62.1	62.6	53.8	56.6
	Men	67.7	70.5	70.7	71.2	67.5	73.2	68.9	71.4	59.5	62.4
	Women	45.7	50.7	40.4	46.9	46.0	55.8	53.7	52.4	48.2	50.3
Venezuela	Both sexes	40.6	50.0	33.1	43.4	38.6	51.0	45.7	54.8	47.0	50.9
	Men	58.8	65.7	54.4	63.9	58.3	66.2	62.7	69.8	59.2	61.8
	Women	21.4	33.6	14.3	25.0	17.3	34.8	25.8	38.0	32.8	38.6

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

a/ Does not include live-in domestic employees.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ 1989-1997.

d/ 1990-1996.

e/ 1992-1996.

f/ 1991-1997.

Table III.6

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE URBAN LABOUR FORCE (Percentages)								
Country	Year	Employed persons with 8 or more years of schooling as a percentage of total employed	Unemployed persons with 8 or more years of schooling as a percentage of total unemployed	Unemployed young persons with 8 or more years of schooling as a percentage of total youth unemployment	Employed persons with 12 or more years of schooling as a percentage of total employed	Unemployed persons with 12 or more years of schooling as a percentage of total unemployed	Unemployed young persons with 12 or more years of schooling as a percentage of total youth unemployment	Average years of schooling completed by young labor force
Argentina a/	1997 b/	0.630	0.550	0.590	0.456	0.353	0.335	10.03
Bolivia	1989	0.579	0.467	0.815	0.367	0.377	0.392	9.48
	1994	0.617	0.713	0.771	0.390	0.486	0.465	9.46
	1997	0.569	0.710	0.787	0.351	0.484	0.428	8.97
Brazil	1990	0.398	0.374	0.380	0.111	0.048	0.028	6.62
	1993	0.396	0.376	0.419	0.109	0.051	0.036	6.60
	1996	0.447	0.402	0.447	0.119	0.052	0.031	7.06
Chile	1990	0.759	0.744	0.866	0.483	0.385	0.430	10.49
	1994	0.789	0.795	0.898	0.528	0.459	0.518	10.85
	1996	0.805	0.788	0.893	0.542	0.473	0.530	10.94
Colombia	1990	0.549	0.568	0.608	0.184	0.134	0.091	8.34
	1994	0.563	0.623	0.709	0.181	0.128	0.114	8.57
	1997	0.595	0.636	0.718	0.200	0.135	0.109	8.92
Costa Rica	1990	0.556	0.524	0.568	0.230	0.158	0.112	8.55
	1994	0.580	0.469	0.432	0.252	0.179	0.170	8.72
	1997	0.601	0.591	0.612	0.272	0.153	0.108	8.94
Ecuador	1990	0.524	0.680	0.740	0.347	0.498	0.532	9.08
	1994	0.591	0.713	0.784	0.416	0.515	0.537	9.47
	1997	0.615	0.716	0.764	0.445	0.525	0.534	9.48
El Salvador	1990	0.406	0.511	0.615	0.243	0.287	0.325	7.65
	1995	0.487	0.545	0.658	0.292	0.306	0.358	8.06
	1997	0.525	0.601	0.682	0.327	0.368	0.398	8.50
Honduras	1990	0.314	0.397	0.372	0.198	0.258	0.219	6.58
	1994	0.368	0.377	0.365	0.238	0.211	0.177	6.89
	1997	0.375	0.379	0.313	0.241	0.238	0.177	7.15
Mexico	1989	0.484	0.631	0.446	0.232	0.176	0.130	8.53
	1994	0.549	0.582	0.654	0.263	0.235	0.175	8.73
	1996	0.607	0.685	0.752	0.170	0.151	0.099	8.73
Nicaragua	1997	0.467	0.535	0.556	0.139	0.121	0.058	7.49
Panama	1989	0.630	0.657	0.793	0.403	0.388	0.444	9.57
	1994	0.691	0.764	0.768	0.457	0.456	0.448	9.75
	1997	0.706	0.766	0.785	0.493	0.464	0.455	9.99
Paraguay c/	1990	0.554	0.647	0.730	0.376	0.340	0.396	9.06
	1994	0.567	0.513	0.652	0.353	0.213	0.263	9.02
	1996	0.524	0.517	0.599	0.334	0.274	0.270	8.63
Dominican Republic	1992	0.644	0.733	0.774	0.371	0.363	0.344	9.49
	1995	0.603	0.663	0.714	0.357	0.333	0.342	9.01
	1997	0.579	0.587	0.618	0.314	0.268	0.241	8.54
Uruguay	1990	0.567	0.602	0.699	0.220	0.171	0.187	9.13
	1994	0.604	0.616	0.692	0.240	0.151	0.178	9.13
	1997	0.623	0.622	0.684	0.275	0.219	0.240	9.27
Venezuela d/	1990	0.455	0.429	0.440	0.129	0.084	0.044	7.51
	1994	0.471	0.486	0.500	0.144	0.113	0.082	7.70
	1997	0.537	0.537	0.598	0.177	0.130	0.115	8.43

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ The surveys for 1990 and 1994 did not include a question about the number of years of schooling completed.

c/ Asunción.

d/ Nationwide total.

Table III.7

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): URBAN EMPLOYMENT STRUCTURE FOR PEOPLE BETWEEN THE AGES OF 15 AND 24, BY SECTOR OF ACTIVITY ^{a/}							
Country	Year	Total	Agriculture and mining	Manufacturing	Construction	Transport and communications	Commerce and services
Argentina ^{b/}	1990	100.0	0.4	29.2	6.1	4.5	59.7
	1997	100.0	0.1	21.4	7.3	9.0	62.1
Bolivia	1989	100.0	3.1	16.0	8.9	6.6	65.3
	1997	100.0	8.8	23.9	9.8	5.6	52.0
Brazil	1990	100.0	6.4	28.3	0.5	3.4	61.4
	1996	100.0	7.5	18.3	7.0	3.3	63.9
Chile	1990	100.0	9.3	29.3	22.6	6.7	32.2
	1996	100.0	7.9	20.1	9.7	6.6	55.8
Colombia	1990	100.0	1.4	24.7	6.0	4.0	63.9
	1997	100.0	2.2	19.6	6.7	5.0	66.4
Costa Rica	1990	100.0	3.9	26.5	6.0	4.1	59.6
	1997	100.0	3.2	23.8	6.1	5.1	61.9
Ecuador	1990	100.0	7.3	21.5	8.7	3.7	58.8
	1997	100.0	8.0	18.4	7.6	4.8	61.1
Honduras	1990	100.0	10.6	23.4	10.9	3.2	51.8
	1997	100.0	8.7	33.6	6.6	3.1	47.9
Mexico	1992	100.0	9.1	25.4	6.6	3.2	55.6
	1996	100.0	2.2	29.6	5.3	3.7	59.2
Panama	1991	100.0	5.0	12.7	2.9	5.3	74.0
	1997	100.0	2.5	12.4	7.8	6.8	70.4
Paraguay	1990	100.0	1.5	18.8	7.6	5.7	66.5
	1996	100.0	2.0	18.5	9.0	4.7	65.8
Dominican Republic	1992	100.0	6.7	25.2	3.2	6.0	58.9
	1997	100.0	3.0	27.5	5.2	6.1	58.1
Uruguay	1990	100.0	4.1	24.5	6.8	3.5	61.1
	1997	100.0	6.0	18.7	6.6	4.9	63.8
Venezuela	1990	100.0	18.6	17.9	7.3	4.3	51.9
	1997	100.0	13.6	15.9	10.5	5.0	55.0

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

a/ Does not include live-in domestic employees.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

a significant gap in Argentina (9.5) and Bolivia (8.3). This ratio underscores the fact that the burden of unemployment is falling mainly on these vulnerable groups. In Argentina, the rate of open unemployment in urban areas was nearly 50% in 1997 among young people in the poorest quartile, whereas it was 24.3% for all young people as a group; a similar ratio may be seen in Colombia and Panama, although in Panama the figures should be viewed within the context of the country's overall high rates of youth unemployment (see table III.8).

It is mainly young people, of course, who are faced with the choice of whether to continue their education or to look for work or, as is very often the case, with the need to pursue both activities simultaneously. At the same time, it is those who work rather than study who feed population growth, for they have the highest rates of fertility and thus perpetuate the cycle of poverty. There is also a significant number of young people in the region who are neither seeking work nor going to school. In most cases, this occurs when young people have become discouraged after unsuccessful job searches, but in some cases it is because they have found other ways of securing income outside the labour market. Studies carried out in various countries indicate that these groups are closely associated with the phenomena of urban marginality and illegal activity, which are regrettably becoming more prevalent in the region. Hence the need to identify and devise policies which will either help to keep young people in the educational system or assist them in finding an appropriate position within the labour market.

As already pointed out, hard-core unemployment among the young population is found among young people from low-income households who do not continue their education and very often do not make an effort to find work. This group appears to be in a very vulnerable position given the structure of employment that has been emerging during the 1990s, which is characterized by a clearly insufficient rate of job creation and an ever-increasing disparity

of income between skilled and unskilled workers. In addition, the particularly slow growth of skilled employment is leading to very stiff competition for jobs, including even relatively less skilled jobs, as the labour force's educational level continues to rise. This is compounded by the fact that unemployment among young people who do not attend school is highest among those from low-income households. In Argentina, for example, an increase of 6 percentage points between 1990 and 1997 in the proportion of young people from poor households who are not attending school¹² correlates with an increase of more than 15 points in the rate of unemployment, while in Brazil the rate of unemployment has gone up by 8 points within a context of reduced activity caused, in particular, by the fact that the female participation rate has ceased to rise. Mexico shows an increase of 3 points in the unemployment rate for young people from poor households who are not attending school while the participation rate remained stable during this period (see table III.9).

What is the educational profile of unemployed youth in Latin America? In addition to the fact, as mentioned earlier, that the educational level of young members of the labour force has been rising, in almost all of the countries except Brazil and Honduras more than half of all unemployed young people have completed eight or more years of schooling (see table III.6). In Chile, for example, nearly 90% of unemployed youth had reached this level of education as of 1996, whereas in Honduras the proportion was only 31% in 1997. Furthermore, in countries such as Chile, Ecuador and Panama, roughly half the young unemployed have completed 12 years of school or more. Clearly, then, the educational levels of the underutilized workforce in the region are not low, but the insufficient dynamism of the production system in creating jobs, especially in the modern sectors, does not allow young people to find more appropriate forms of employment. Consequently, although raising the quality of educational systems and providing work-related professional or vocational training are necessary

¹² It should be emphasized that the existence of a growing number of young people who neither attend school nor work - a phenomenon of crucial importance from the standpoint of policy design - leads to the underestimation of the unemployment rate for this age group.

Table III.8

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): URBAN OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATE FOR PEOPLE BETWEEN THE AGES OF 15 AND 24, BY SEX AND HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL, 1990 AND 1997 a/											
Country	Sex	Total		Quartile 1		Quartile 2		Quartile 3		Quartile 4	
		1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997
Argentina b/	Both sexes	13.2	24.3	27.7	45.7	13.4	27.5	8.2	16.0	4.7	4.8
	Men	11.5	21.1	25.2	40.8	8.7	21.5	8.5	13.2	4.3	2.4
	Women	16.1	29.2	31.7	54.9	22.7	37.1	7.5	19.8	5.3	7.9
Bolivia c/	Both sexes	19.3	8.5	37.8	16.5	20.0	9.2	15.1	6.9	9.7	2.0
	Men	18.4	7.5	37.8	16.1	19.1	8.6	13.2	4.8	10.1	2.3
	Women	20.6	9.9	37.8	17.0	21.4	9.9	17.9	10.0	9.1	1.3
Brazil d/	Both sexes	8.6	15.3	14.0	22.7	8.4	14.9	6.5	11.4	4.7	10.1
	Men	8.8	12.8	14.8	18.4	7.7	12.0	6.5	9.8	4.9	9.3
	Women	8.3	19.1	12.6	29.4	9.5	19.2	6.4	13.8	4.3	11.1
Chile d/	Both sexes	18.5	13.5	35.2	25.8	18.8	12.9	9.0	7.9	8.2	5.8
	Men	17.0	10.7	31.3	21.9	17.3	8.7	8.2	5.7	6.4	3.8
	Women	20.8	18.0	42.7	33.8	21.5	19.6	10.2	11.1	10.5	8.4
Colombia	Both sexes	21.7	25.5	34.1	44.0	22.8	24.3	14.7	17.6	13.1	15.0
	Men	18.0	20.7	27.9	35.1	18.4	18.1	11.7	14.0	11.9	16.1
	Women	26.9	31.5	43.4	55.4	28.8	32.5	19.0	21.9	14.4	13.7
Costa Rica	Both sexes	10.6	13.1	23.5	26.7	9.7	11.3	6.4	10.3	6.4	6.2
	Men	9.8	11.4	25.0	24.5	6.2	10.3	5.5	8.3	6.9	4.7
	Women	11.8	16.4	20.7	30.2	16.4	13.7	7.6	14.1	5.5	8.6
Ecuador	Both sexes	14.1	19.7	27.2	32.1	13.1	19.6	11.8	15.6	6.7	8.7
	Men	11.2	15.1	22.3	26.4	10.1	13.2	8.9	12.1	5.0	7.6
	Women	19.2	27.2	36.8	40.1	19.2	31.3	16.8	22.6	9.2	10.1
Honduras	Both sexes	11.2	9.4	20.6	19.6	15.3	11.0	7.2	5.8	3.7	1.5
	Men	11.5	9.2	20.4	18.7	15.6	9.9	5.6	5.3	4.4	1.8
	Women	10.7	9.7	21.0	21.2	14.9	12.9	10.1	6.7	3.1	1.1
Mexico e/	Both sexes	9.9	12.5	16.6	18.9	9.1	12.3	3.6	7.3	8.7	5.7
	Men	10.1	13.8	16.9	21.1	8.9	12.2	3.3	8.2	8.1	6.4
	Women	9.6	10.3	15.8	14.4	9.3	12.4	4.2	5.7	9.7	4.8
Panama f/	Both sexes	37.4	31.5	47.5	45.0	40.1	31.8	29.0	26.8	24.2	17.4
	Men	32.0	26.8	39.7	36.9	32.9	25.6	27.6	22.6	19.5	17.9
	Women	47.1	39.7	63.5	61.3	52.6	43.4	31.3	33.7	31.5	16.8
Uruguay	Both sexes	24.7	26.4	35.8	35.5	21.8	25.3	17.4	17.8	15.7	15.4
	Men	22.2	21.8	33.2	28.9	18.8	21.3	13.8	15.1	14.6	12.2
	Women	28.5	33.1	39.8	44.8	25.9	30.8	23.1	22.0	17.1	19.7
Venezuela	Both sexes	18.4	20.0	36.1	33.6	19.9	20.5	12.9	14.5	6.5	12.2
	Men	17.8	16.4	34.2	30.0	18.8	16.6	12.2	11.0	6.6	8.7
	Women	19.9	27.5	42.5	44.0	23.7	28.3	15.0	21.8	6.5	18.4

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

a/ Does not include live-in domestic employees.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ 1989-1997.

d/ 1990-1996.

e/ 1992-1996.

f/ 1991-1997.

Table III.9

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): URBAN LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATES FOR PEOPLE BETWEEN THE AGES OF 15 AND 24 FROM POOR HOUSEHOLDS WHO ARE NOT ATTENDING SCHOOL a/			
Country	Year	Participation rate	Unemployment rate
Argentina b/	1990	58.6	40.0
	1997	64.6	55.4
Bolivia	1989	61.5	24.1
	1997	69.1	10.5
Brazil	1990	64.5	13.3
	1996	60.7	21.4
Chile	1990	52.6	31.9
	1996	52.0	31.1
Colombia	1990	63.4	30.5
	1997	66.6	36.3
Costa Rica	1990	55.0	24.3
	1997	46.7	34.9
Ecuador	1990	64.4	16.3
	1997	70.8	25.1
Honduras	1990	61.0	14.8
	1997	68.4	13.1
Mexico	1992	64.6	16.4
	1996	64.7	19.4
Panama	1991	64.2	43.6
	1997	66.4	43.7
Uruguay	1990	69.5	39.5
	1997	67.1	45.3
Venezuela	1990	51.4	34.8
	1997	64.5	27.6

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

a/ Does not include live-in domestic employees.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

steps, they are not in themselves sufficient to improve the employment opportunities available to the young population.

Since most people enter the labour market between the ages of 15 and 24, it is also of interest to determine the characteristics of new entrants, that is, of first-time job seekers. First-time job searches are an important factor in terms of unemployment among young people in the region. In some

countries, such as Ecuador, young people who have never worked but who wish to do so account for more than half of all unemployed persons in this age group, and the percentage is also high in a number of other countries: Bolivia (46%), Panama (43%), Colombia (39%), Uruguay (37%) and Venezuela (37%). In 8 out of the 10 countries for which this information is available, the majority of those looking for their first job in this age group are not studying. The percentages vary, however; in Bolivia

Cuadro III.10

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): CHARACTERISTICS OF FIRST-TIME JOB SEEKERS BETWEEN THE AGES OF 15 AND 24, URBAN AREAS, 1997													
Country	Total	Percentage of youth unemployment corresponding to first-time job seekers	Sex		Per capita household income quartile				Years of schooling			Education	
			Male	Female	1	2	3	4	0-6	7-12	13 +	Attending school	Not attending school
Argentina a/	100.0	29.0	41.1	58.9	42.2	29.5	19.8	8.6	2.6	80.0	17.3	26.6	73.4
Bolivia	100.0	45.7	58.8	41.2	40.5	33.5	23.5	2.5	14.7	67.1	18.2	56.6	43.4
Chile b/	100.0	25.1	44.6	55.4	54.9	27.2	9.0	8.9	8.1	72.1	19.9	10.3	89.7
Colombia	100.0	39.4	42.6	57.4	44.7	25.7	17.9	11.7	14.7	76.1	9.2	26.4	73.6
Costa Rica	100.0	26.6	37.7	62.3	44.1	8.5	27.3	20.1	16.0	67.7	16.3	41.9	58.1
Ecuador	100.0	50.5	43.5	56.5	43.7	25.8	23.1	7.5	14.1	72.3	13.5	29.3	70.7
Honduras	100.0	25.1	51.4	48.6	42.4	25.4	29.2	2.9	36.9	38.0	5.1	20.8	79.2
Panama	100.0	43.0	50.4	49.6	35.3	34.8	21.0	8.9	15.9	71.1	13.0	27.3	72.7
Uruguay	100.0	36.7	45.6	54.4	49.3	28.8	14.0	7.9	18.2	73.0	8.2	46.2	53.8
Venezuela	100.0	37.1	44.7	55.3	32.8	27.2	24.2	15.7	24.1	61.5	14.4	64.5	35.5

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ 1996.

and Venezuela, in 1997 a majority of new entrants were attending educational establishments (57% and 65%, respectively), while in other countries the percentages were somewhat different: Uruguay (46%), Costa Rica (42%), Ecuador (29%), Panama (27%), Argentina (27%), Colombia (26%) and Chile (10%). In all the countries except Honduras, the majority of entrants have over six years of schooling and belong to households in the two lowest income quartiles (see table III.10).

Finally, the duration of unemployment is, in general, a source of concern because when the situation is prolonged it erodes human capital, especially since potential employers take applicants' work experience

into consideration and look for people who have not had long periods of unemployment. In this connection, it should be cautioned that measurements of the average duration of unemployment obtained by means of household surveys are not always reliable, among other reasons because such data are normally recorded in truncated form.¹³ Nevertheless, for those countries that do have this information, it provides a useful indicator for gauging how severe the problem of unemployment is. The data available for five countries indicate that the duration of unemployment among young people was in most cases less than six months, although with variations over time. In Argentina, long-term unemployment (more than one year) affected about 9% of the young unemployed; in

¹³ Very few studies on this specific phenomenon have been conducted in the region; further analyses of this subject would make it possible to determine the duration of such periods more accurately and to gain a better understanding of labour-market dynamics.

Colombia, 7.5%; in Ecuador, 12.5%; in Honduras, 1.5% (after having reached 9.6% in 1990); and in Venezuela, 8.5%. In all the countries the duration of unemployment was in most cases between one and six months, which suggests that the creation, loss and rotation of jobs for this age group can be described as a dynamic phenomenon. Although further analysis is needed, it may be said by way of a

preliminary conclusion that, for the majority of the young labour force, job searches are fairly short in duration. It is also true, however, that the instability of employment is greater for this age group; this is mainly associated with unsatisfactory forms of employment in low-productivity sectors or recruitment for short periods on fixed-term contracts (see table III.11).

Table III.11

LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES): DURATION OF YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT IN URBAN AREAS						
Country	Year	Total a/	One month or less	1 month & 1 day-6 months	6 months & 1 day-12 months	More than 12 months
Argentina b/	1990	100.0	16.2	48.4	24.1	-
	1997	100.0	14.6	38.3	21.0	8.9
Colombia	1990	100.0	24.8	41.1	25.1	8.9
	1997	100.0	21.7	42.1	28.7	7.5
Ecuador	1990	100.0	13.2	34.8	19.9	8.6
	1997	100.0	12.4	35.0	21.7	12.5
Honduras	1990	100.0	36.4	36.8	14.7	9.6
	1997	100.0	48.9	41.2	8.4	1.5
Uruguay	1990	100.0	21.9	39.7	25.2	9.0
	1997	100.0	21.0	43.1	26.7	8.5

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

a/ The entries may not add up to 100 due to the existence of responses "do not know".

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.



Public social expenditure

CURRENT SITUATION AND OUTLOOK

A. TRENDS IN SOCIAL SPENDING

1. RECENT AND LONG-TERM CHANGES

So far in the course of this decade, the region has made considerable progress in raising its levels of public expenditure, with increases being registered in 14 out of 17 countries. This has enabled 12 of the countries to more than make up for the social spending cuts of the 1980s, with the result that today's figures are higher than the 1980-1981 levels. However, in 1996-1997 the growth rate in such expenditure slowed to an average annual rate of 3.3%, or less than half the 1990-1995 rate of 6.4%.

The region's average level of per capita public social expenditure in 1996-1997 amounted to US\$ 457, compared to US\$ 331 (both in 1997 dollars) for the period 1990-1991.¹ The difference represents an increase of 38% and corresponds to an annual growth rate on the order of 5.5% (see table IV.1).

A more accurate picture of the overall trend can be obtained by looking at various groups of countries' levels of social expenditure relative to regional spending levels in 1996-1997.² Spending in the group of countries with lower expenditure levels rose significantly more than in the two higher-expenditure groups. It should be taken into account, however, that the initial level of expenditure in this group was

extremely low, at around US\$ 60 per capita in 1990-1991. An 84% increase brought it close to US\$ 110 in 1996-1997, for a rise double that of the medium- and high-expenditure groups, whose per capita spending levels increased by 32% and 34%, respectively, during this period.

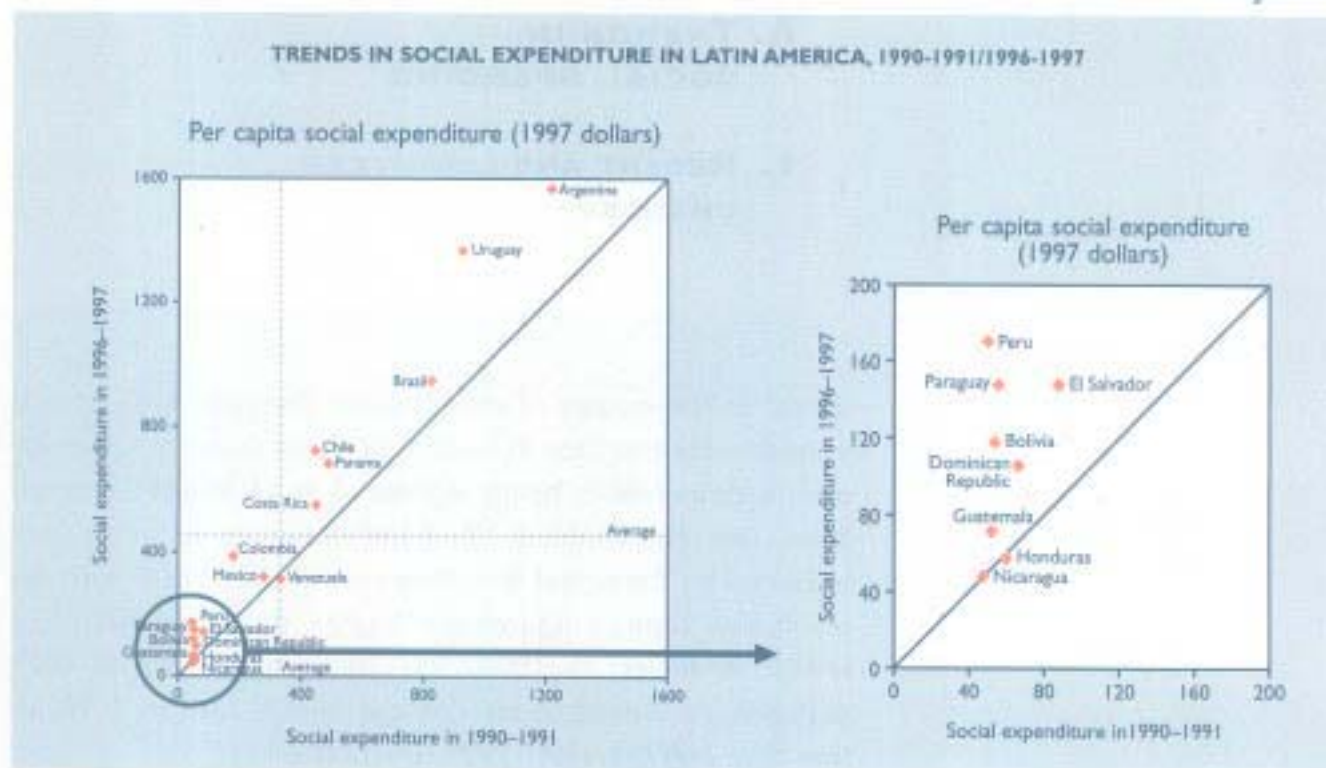
Nevertheless, the increases in spending in the latter groups were much higher in absolute terms: US\$ 248 in the high-expenditure group and US\$ 86 in the medium-expenditure group, as compared to US\$ 50 in the low-expenditure group.

Considering the countries individually, the sharpest relative increases were registered in Colombia, Peru, Paraguay and Bolivia, which more than doubled

¹ These figures are based on the simple average of the 17 countries for which data are available. If a weighted average were calculated based on the size of each country's population, the absolute increase in per capita expenditure would still be around US\$ 25, though the starting and ending levels and the percentage of change would be different. The region would then have an average per capita expenditure of US\$ 655 for 1996-1997 and of US\$ 531 for 1990-1991, resulting in a growth rate of 23% for the period, as opposed to the 38% obtained using a simple average.

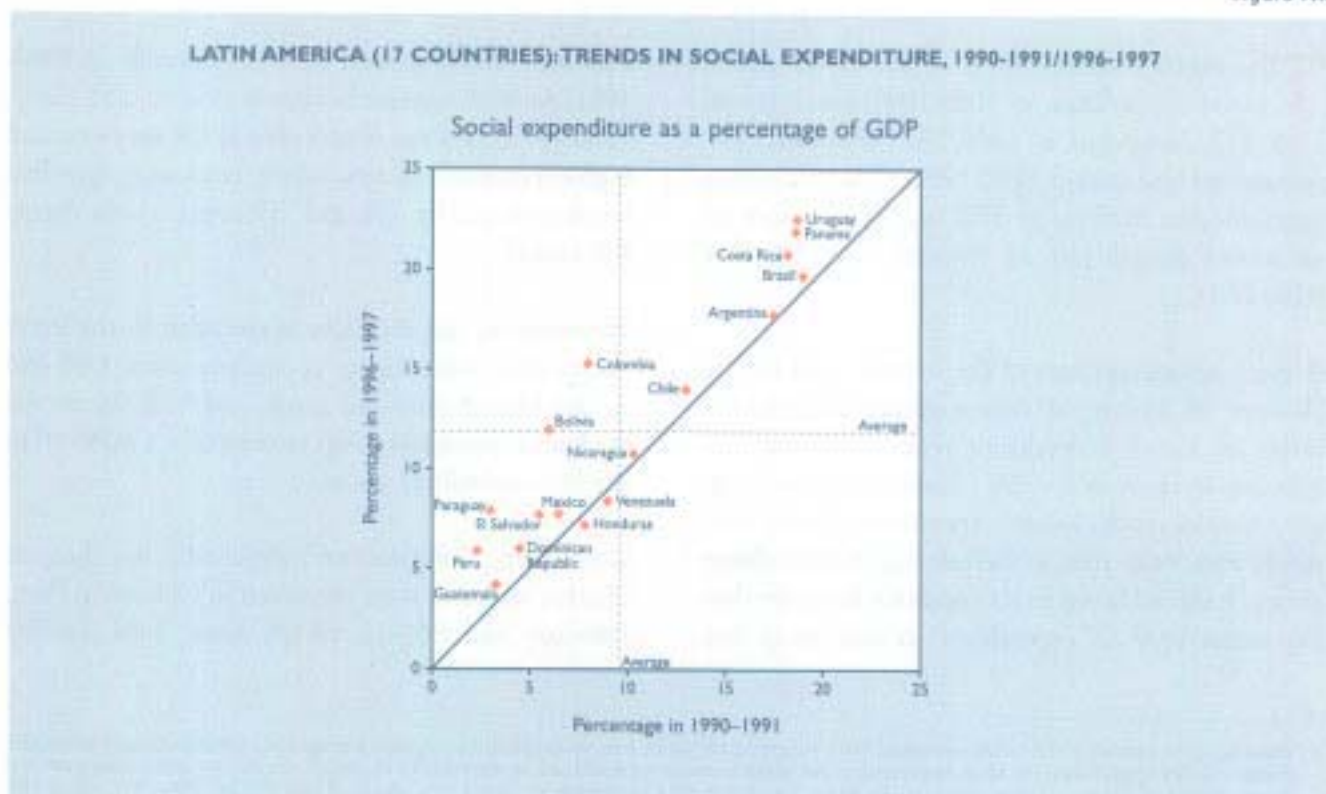
² For information on the make-up of these groups, see the following section, where differences in per capita social expenditure are analysed.

Figure IV.1



Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

Figure IV.2



Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

Table IV.1

TRENDS AND LEVELS OF PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE IN LATIN AMERICA (Averages) a/								
Country	Real per capita social expenditure (1997 dollars)		Variation for the period	Annual rate of variation	Social expenditure / GDP		Social expenditure / total public expenditure	
	1990-1991	1996-1997			1990-1991	1996-1997	1990-1991	1996-1997
High and medium-high levels of social expenditure	727	975	34.1	5.0	17.5	19.5	58.2	60.8
Coefficient of variation	0.40	0.38			0.12	0.15	0.14	0.16
Argentina	1 222	1 570	28.6	4.3	17.7	17.9	62.2	65.1
Uruguay	929	1 371	47.5	6.7	18.7	22.5	62.3	69.8
Brazil	821	951	15.8	2.5	19.0	19.8	59.5	59.1
Chile	451	725	60.5	8.2	13.0	14.1	60.8	65.9
Panama	494	683	38.1	5.5	18.6	21.9	40.0	39.9
Costa Rica b/	445	550	23.6	3.6	18.2	20.8	64.4	65.1
Medium level of social expenditure	267	353	32.3	4.8	7.9	10.5	35.1	43.4
Coefficient of variation	0.24	0.09			0.13	0.32	0.14	0.16
Colombia	181	391	116.6	13.7	8.1	15.3	29.7	38.2
Mexico	283	352 c/	24.5	3.7	6.5	7.8	41.6	52.9
Venezuela	338	317	-6.1	-1.0	9.0	8.4	33.9	39.0
Low level of social expenditure	59	109	83.9	10.7	5.3	7.7	30.3	38.4
Coefficient of variation	0.21	0.42			0.50	0.25	0.27	0.17
Peru	51	169	229.5	22.0	2.3	5.8	16.7	40.9
Paraguay	55	148	166.8	17.8	3.0	7.9	39.9	47.1
El Salvador	87	147	69.7	9.2	5.4	7.7	21.9	26.5
Bolivia	55	119	118.1	13.9	6.0	12.0	25.8	44.2
Dominican Republic	66	107	62.8	8.5	4.5	6.0	36.9	39.0
Guatemala	52	71	37.4	5.4	3.3	4.2	29.8	42.1
Honduras	59	58	-1.7	-0.3	7.8	7.2	33.1	31.9
Nicaragua d/	48	49	2.1	0.3	10.3	10.7	38.3	35.6
Regional average	331	457	38.0	5.5	10.1	12.4	41.0	47.2
Coefficient of variation	1.05	0.99			0.59	0.49	0.36	0.27

Source: ECLAC, database on social expenditure.

a/ Countries are listed in descending order of social expenditure for 1996-1997.

b/ Only 1996 figures were available for the period 1996-1997.

c/ This figure does not include housing expenditure. If housing is considered, real per capita social expenditure for 1996-1997 would be around US\$ 446.

d/ Only 1991 figures were taken into consideration for the period 1990-1991 due to problems of hyperinflation during 1990.

their 1990-1991 per capita social spending levels. Chile, the Dominican Republic and El Salvador saw increases of between 60% and 70%, while the figure for Uruguay was slightly under 50% (see table IV.1 and figure IV.1).

For the other six countries in which per capita social spending rose (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Mexico and Panama), the increase was between 15% and 40%.

Honduras and Nicaragua showed practically the same levels at the beginning and end of the period, while Venezuela reduced real per capita social expenditure by 6%.

Between 1990-1991 and 1994-1995, per capita social spending rose to an annual rate above 7% in over half the countries studied (9 out of 17). In 1996-1997, however, the growth rate slowed in most cases, and only five countries' rates remained above

DECENTRALIZATION AND FINANCING OF SOCIAL EXPENDITURE: THE CASE OF BRAZIL

The case of Brazil serves to illustrate the importance of using consolidated national totals when conducting comparative regional and diachronic analyses of total public spending and public social spending in countries where the funding of public expenditure is highly decentralized. This is important not only to avoid significantly underestimating levels of expenditure, which becomes more and more of a problem as the degree of decentralization increases (in other words, when government funding is administered at the state or municipal level), but also to ensure accuracy in measuring real absolute and relative variations in total and sectoral per capita spending.

For example, if only federal spending is considered, then Brazil's per capita level of social expenditure for 1990-1991 totals US\$ 476 (in 1997 dollars) and US\$ 566 for 1996-1997, with a real increase for the entire period of approximately 19%.

However, when spending at the three levels of government—federal, state, and municipal—is consolidated, the figures for per capita social spending (in 1997 dollars) turn out to be US\$ 821 for 1990-1991 and US\$ 951 for 1996-1997, which amounts to a 16% increase over the period in question and a level of expenditure that is 70% higher than the federal spending level.

Differences of magnitude and variation are even more significant when the figures are broken down by sector, owing to the fact that fiscal responsibility for different areas varies from level to level of the governmental structure.

For instance, the decentralization of funding for education drove up the sector's consolidated expenditure/federal expenditure coefficient from 2.9 in 1990-1991 to 3.8 in 1996-1997, which points not only to major changes in spending levels but also a radical shift in trend during the decade. According to the consolidated figure, per capita spending has grown by 2%, while if only federal spending were considered it would appear to have dropped by 23%. This is because per capita federal spending on education was US\$ 55 and US\$ 43 for the 1990-1991 and 1996-1997 periods, respectively, while consolidated spending for the same time periods was US\$ 161 and US\$ 164.

The different total and sectoral levels of per capita social spending appear below, together with the absolute and percentage changes in these variables as measured according to whether the figures for federal spending (FS) or for consolidated spending (CS) are used.^{a/}

Sector		Per capita spending (in 1997 dollars)		Absolute variation (in dollars)	Percentage variation
		1990-1991	1996-1997		
Total	FS	476	566	90	19
	CS	821	951	130	16
Education	FS	55	43	-12	-23
	CS	161	164	3	2
Health	FS	115	89	-26	-23
	CS	155	138	-17	-11
Social security	FS	254	384	130	51
	CS	352	487	135	38
Housing	FS	36	29	-7	-19
	CS	153	162	9	6

It should be noted that education also includes culture; health includes food and nutrition; social security includes social assistance and employment; and housing includes water and sewerage as well as urban development.

Finally, it should be pointed out that the extent of decentralization of the sources (federal versus state or municipal) of funding for social expenditure is tending to rise in Brazil, albeit with marked sectoral differences and with slight-to-moderate changes in consecutive or proximate years. In the last 18 years, the implicit coefficients for the expansion of federal expenditure into consolidated spending were around 1.50 from 1980 to 1983, mostly between 1.60 and 1.65 from 1984 to the end of the 1980s, and in the neighbourhood of 1.70 during the 1990s, according to the figures available for some of the years in the decade.

Source: For 1990-1991: André C. Medici, "A dinâmica do gasto social no Brasil nas três esferas de governo: uma análise do período 1980-1992" Foundation for Administrative Development/Institute of Public Sector Economics (FUNDAPE/IESP), June 1994; for 1996-1997: Institute of Applied Economic Research (IPEA), "Gastos sociais das três esferas de governo - 1995", 1995.

a/ The estimates of consolidated spending presented here were calculated using the available official figures on federal spending and the expanded figures for each sector as calculated on the basis of the relevant coefficients.

that threshold level: Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, El Salvador and Peru (see box IV.2).

Brazil and Costa Rica also maintained their rates of growth in both sub-periods, but at a level of less than 4% annually.

Approximately one third of the countries increased their levels of social expenditure in both sub-periods, but their growth rate was lower in the more recent of the two. This was the case in Paraguay and Uruguay, where the growth rate in spending went from an average annual rate of over 7% between 1990 and 1995 to a range of 4%-7%. Guatemala's and Panama's rates also slipped from comparable initial levels in the first half of the decade to less than 4% between 1995 and 1997, and the Dominican Republic, as well, saw a decline to less than 4% from the rate of over 7% reached in 1990-1995.

Meanwhile, per capita social expenditure in Argentina, Mexico and Nicaragua actually decreased in the most recent sub-period after having risen in the first half of the decade.

On the other hand, in the last two years Venezuela began to regain some of the ground lost between 1990 and 1995. The same was true of Honduras, where the growth rate was minimal—close to 1% annually—for both periods.

As to the long-term trend in per capita social spending, it should be noted that the strong increases of the 1990s have enabled almost three quarters of the countries (12 out of 17) to more than make up for the decline in spending levels recorded in the 1980s, and their 1996-1997 levels of expenditure were therefore higher than their 1980-1981 levels (see box IV.3).

Brazil, Colombia, Panama, Uruguay, Bolivia and Paraguay increased their per capita public social spending by more than 50% between 1980-1981 and 1996-1997. The first four of these countries had already surpassed their spending levels of the early 1980s by the start of the 1990s. Bolivia and Paraguay did so more recently, in 1994-1995.

Box IV.2

SOCIAL SPENDING TRENDS IN THE 1990s, BY SUB-PERIOD				
Variation 1994-1995 / 1996-1997	Variation 1990-1991 / 1994-1995			
	High growth Average annual rate above 7%	Medium growth Average annual rate between 4% and 7%	Low growth Average annual rate under 4%	Decrease Negative average rate
High growth Average annual rate above 7%	Bolivia Chile Colombia El Salvador Peru			
Medium growth Average annual rate between 4% and 7%	Uruguay Paraguay			Venezuela
Low growth Average annual rate under 4%	Dominican Republic	Guatemala Panama	Costa Rica Brazil	Honduras
Decrease Negative average rate	Argentina	Mexico	Nicaragua	

Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

Box IV.3

PER CAPITA SOCIAL SPENDING OVER THE LONG TERM: 1996-1997 VERSUS 1980-1981				
Change during the period	Performance in relation to 1980-1981 level			
	Exceeded in 1990-1991	Exceeded in 1994-1995	Exceeded in 1996-1997	Not yet exceeded
Rose by more than 50%	Brazil Colombia Panama Uruguay	Bolivia Paraguay		
Rose by between 30% and 40%		Chile Dominican Republic		
Rose by between 10% and 20%		Argentina Costa Rica Mexico	Peru	
Unchanged				Honduras
Decreased				El Salvador Guatemala Nicaragua Venezuela

Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

Chile and the Dominican Republic also exceeded their 1980-1981 levels in 1994-1995, but their total increase for the period from the start of the 1980s to 1996-1997 was only between 30% and 40%.

Expenditure levels in Argentina, Costa Rica, Mexico and Peru are currently from 10% to 20% above the corresponding 1980-1981 figures. Peru did not surpass its 1980-1981 levels until the last two years, while the other countries did so in 1994-1995.

In the case of Honduras, the beginning and ending figures for the period under consideration are quite similar, while for El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Venezuela, current spending levels are lower than they were in the early 1980s, with the reduction amounting to more than 30% in most cases.

The fact that most of the Central American countries –Costa Rica is the exception– have low or very low spending levels owing to a significant decline or a failure to increase per capita social spending since the beginning of the 1980s is attributable to the political, economic and social crises experienced by the subregion over the last 20 years.

These countries need to budget for sustainable annual increases in social spending and expand the scope of the programmes they fund as they surmount the effects of the disturbances and constraints that have arisen in the past, as well as the impacts of armed conflicts and radical changes in the economic system. In the cases of Honduras and Nicaragua, and to some extent in that of the Dominican Republic, the outlook in terms of output and tax revenues following the devastating effects of Hurricanes Mitch and Georges are raising a series of new questions as well.

2. DIFFERENCES IN PER CAPITA SOCIAL EXPENDITURE

Although a high degree of heterogeneity continues to exist in the region in terms of the amount of resources which the countries allocate for social spending, the increases in such expenditure observed during the 1990s have reduced these differences slightly. This is due in particular to the very sharp rise seen in those countries which spend the least; the average annual increase for this group was 10.7%, or more than double the rates of increase recorded for the medium- and high-expenditure groups, which were 4.8% and 5%, respectively.

In view of the considerable differences in the various Latin American countries' levels of public social spending, it may be of interest to classify them on the basis of their positions in this regard relative to the region as a whole. In terms of real annual per capita social spending for 1996-1997 (expressed in 1997 dollars), the 17 countries for which information is available can be divided into three groups of countries that reflect the degree of heterogeneity existing in the region (see figures IV.3 and IV.4).

The first group, which may be designated as the high-expenditure category, is made up of Argentina, Uruguay and Brazil, where annual per capita figures for social spending are above US\$ 1,000, followed by Chile, Panama and Costa Rica, with figures between US\$ 550 and US\$ 750. The effort that this level of spending represents for each economy (i.e., social expenditure/GDP) is around or above 20%, except in the case of Chile, where it is 14% (see table IV.1).

The second group—the medium-expenditure category—is made up of Colombia, Mexico and

Venezuela, with annual per capita spending levels of from US\$ 300 to US\$ 400. For these countries, social spending represents around 8% of GDP except in the case of Colombia, where it is 15%.

The third group corresponds to the low-expenditure countries and is made up of Peru, Paraguay, El Salvador, Bolivia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua, with per capita figures that range from US\$ 50 to US\$ 175 a year. When measured in terms of their macroeconomic significance, these spending levels generally represent between 6% and 8% of GDP, except in the cases of Bolivia and Nicaragua, where they are above 10%, and Guatemala, where the figure is just 4%.

Focusing further on per capita social spending, it can be observed that the coefficient of variation (cv), which measures the relative dispersion of these expenditure levels, fell from 1.05 at the beginning of the 1990s to 0.99 in 1996-1997. These figures reflect both the heterogeneity existing in the region, inasmuch as the dispersion of these values is equal to the

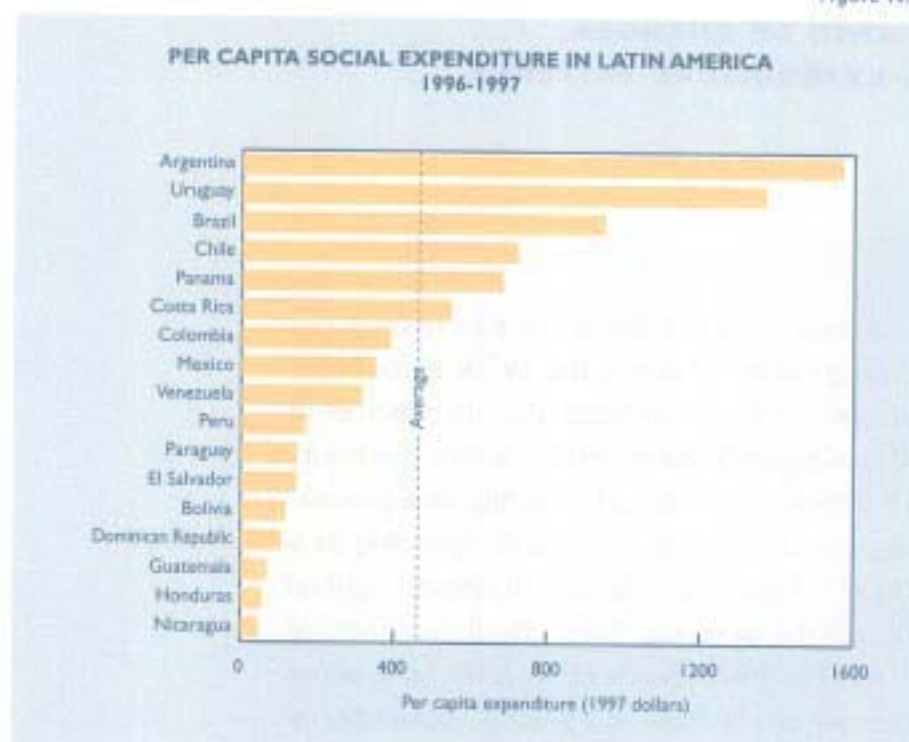
mean, and the slight reduction of these differentials during the 1990s (see table IV.1).

Over the course of the decade, this trend translated into a slight reduction in the variations existing among the high-expenditure countries (whose cv edged downward from 0.40 to 0.38), a sharp decrease in the dispersion among medium-expenditure countries (whose cv dropped from 0.24 to 0.09) and a considerable increase in the range of variation existing among the low-expenditure countries (where the cv jumped from 0.21 to 0.42). The increase in the low-expenditure group is attributable to the uneven growth rates registered for these countries, which taken together were twice as high as those of the other two groups over the course of the period in question. The net result for all the

groups, taken as a whole, was a slight decline in the degree of heterogeneity existing in this respect.

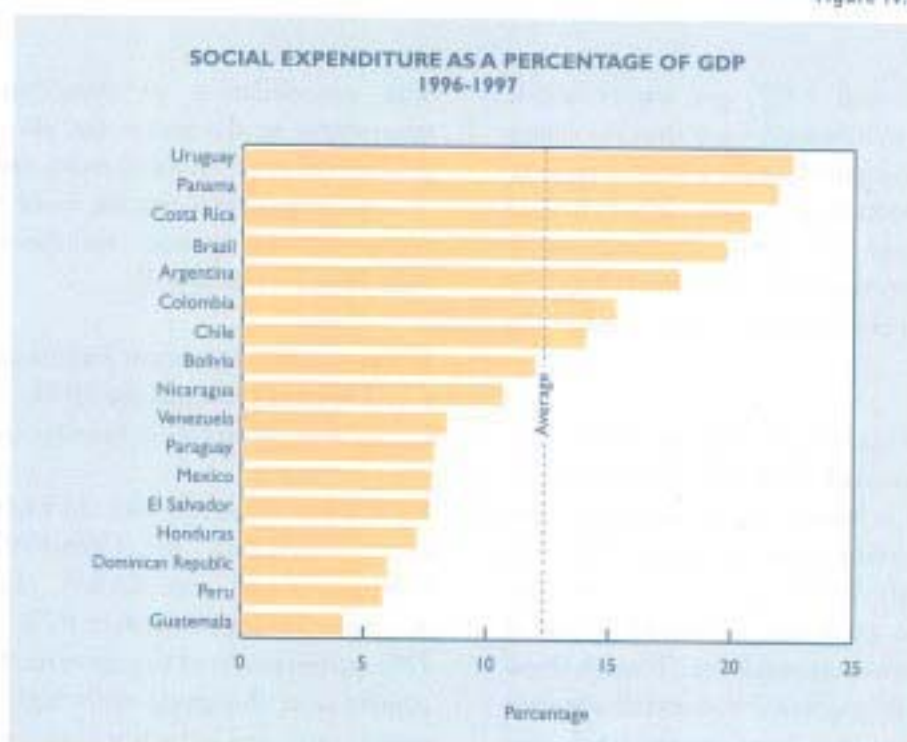
Though significant variations across countries are also seen when social spending is measured as a percentage either of GDP or of total public expenditure, because these measurements are percentages, the dispersion is more limited than in the case of the per capita figures. Hence, the coefficients of variation are significantly lower. The important point here is that these indicators also show some decline in the differentials among the countries studied. The coefficient of variation in the ratio of social spending to GDP for the region as a whole shifted from 0.59 at the beginning of the 1990s to 0.49 in 1996-1997, while in the case of the ratio of social spending to total public spending, the cv moved from 0.36 to 0.27 over the same period.

Figure IV.3



Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

Figure IV.4



Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

3. DETERMINANTS OF CHANGES IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE PATTERNS

Economic growth accounts for two thirds of the increase in per capita social spending observed during the 1990s in the high-expenditure countries. On the other hand, the main factors in the medium- and low-expenditure countries, where there was also a rise, were the increases in social spending as a percentage of total public spending and in total public spending as a percentage of GDP. These two factors together explain approximately 70% of the upswing. The current prospects of slower growth in most of the region's economies raise some question as to whether or not there is a realistic possibility of consolidating the gains made to date in terms of spending levels, especially considering the role that economic growth has played in expenditure trends over the last few years.

Between 1990 and 1997, per capita social spending rose significantly more than per capita output in all of the countries that recorded growth. In most of these countries, per capita output climbed by between 10% and 30%, while per capita social spending rose by between 20% and 70% and, in four cases, more than doubled the figures recorded at the start of the decade.

This expansion of social spending has been made possible by the increased availability of State funds generated by both economic growth and privatizations. In addition, many countries have undertaken major educational, health and social security reforms which are premised on higher levels of investment and current expenditure. Though these increases were initially covered with extrabudgetary funding, they have since been incorporated into national budgets.

The consolidation of democratic systems of government in the region has also helped to focus growing attention on social issues, and the availability of new lines of financing for social programmes and additional funding from multilateral organizations have played a role as well.

In view of the significant increases made in public social spending during the 1990s, an examination of explanatory factors is in order (see box IV.4).

For the four countries with the highest levels of per capita spending in 1996-1997 (Argentina, Uruguay, Brazil and Chile), economic growth accounts for approximately 97%, 48%, 69% and 78%, respectively, of the increase. In the other two countries in the group with high levels of social expenditure, the influence of economic growth has also been considerable. In Panama, the increase is

associated with the effect of the expansion of public spending as a percentage of total output, while in Costa Rica this factor has been somewhat less influential (see tables IV.3a and IV.3b).

In those countries whose per capita public social spending is near or above 20% and can be maintained at that level, any further increase becomes increasingly difficult to achieve. Coefficients in this range are the result of a high ratio of total public spending to GDP (PS/GDP) and a high ratio of public social spending to total public spending (SS/PS), with levels close to and often exceeding 30% and 60%, respectively.

These countries also show a rise in at least one of these other two factors (PS/GDP and SS/PS), which has made it possible to increase per capita social spending significantly more than per capita output. For example, in Argentina, Uruguay and Chile, the main factor that has been associated with economic growth is an increase in SS/PS, while in Brazil it is an increase in PS/GDP. In Panama and Costa Rica, this factor equals or exceeds the effect of economic growth.

This means that the available margin for any additional increase that would raise per capita spending at a pace in excess of the economic growth rate becomes increasingly smaller. It is hard to raise government spending to anything above one third of GDP, and it is equally difficult to increase allocations for social spending when social items already take up almost two thirds of the public budget. The most pressing challenge may be to consolidate the levels that have now been reached, especially in view of the current signs that growth may be dampened by the crises of the last few years.

Among the eight countries with medium and low levels of expenditure in which social spending rose significantly, the predominant factors were, first, the increase in social spending as a percentage of total public expenditure and, second, the expansion of total public spending as a percentage of GDP.

The assignment of a higher priority to social spending (SS/PS) was the main explanatory factor in the cases of Mexico, Peru, Bolivia and Guatemala, accounting for more than 80% of the rise in social spending in each of these countries. This was also the second most influential factor in Colombia and Paraguay, where the increase in public spending as a percentage of output (PS/GDP) was the most important factor, being credited with an average of more than 50% of the increase in social spending (see tables IV.3a and IV.3b).

In El Salvador, both factors were important and had just as much influence as economic growth did in terms of raising per capita social spending. In the Dominican Republic, the main factor was the increase in total public spending relative to GDP, closely followed by the effect of the expansion of output.

In Honduras, the slight positive effect of the country's moderate pace of economic growth (5% over the period) was offset by declines in the other two factors (PS/GDP and SS/PS). Nicaragua, on the other hand, experienced a decline (1% over the period) due to the fact that the increase in public spending as a percentage of output was outweighed by the lower budget priority assigned to social spending.

Venezuela is the only one of the countries under review in which per capita social spending decreased (-6%); this downturn was a result of a significant reduction (close to 20%) in public spending as a percentage of GDP which was only partially offset by the expansion of social spending as a percentage of public expenditure (15%) within the context of a poor economic performance (1%) during the period in question.

Most of the medium- and low-expenditure countries have a substantial amount of leeway for increasing per capita social spending at a rate in excess of the rise in per capita output, whether by assigning a higher priority to social spending in the fiscal budget or by increasing public spending as a percentage of output.

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF CHANGES IN SOCIAL SPENDING

Per capita public social spending (SSpc) can be expressed as the product of the following three components: per capita GDP (GDPpc), the ratio of total public spending (PS) to GDP (PS/GDP), and the ratio of public social spending (SS) to total public spending (SS/PS).

In other words, $SSpc = GDPpc \cdot PS/GDP \cdot SS/PS$

Based on this identity, the change in SSpc for any period can be expressed as a function of the change in each of its three components. Disaggregation makes it possible to quantify the relative magnitude of the change in each of the components independently of the others, thus reflecting the effect of the following factors: economic performance, the influence exerted by the State over the economy as a whole through its spending patterns, and the priority given to social spending in the allocation of government resources.

In addition to these independent effects, the equation quantifies the weight of pairs of factors or of the three taken as a unit. As indicated below, these are grouped under the name "combined effect" and take their reciprocal impacts into account. The combined effect reflects, for example, the changes produced by the interaction of economic growth with an increase or decrease in the weight of government spending in the economy and/or with changes in the fiscal priority assigned to social expenditure.

If it is determined that $GDPpc = P$, $PS/GDP = F$ and $SS/PS = S$, and if the subscript "i" is used to indicate the initial moment for each component, and the subscript "f" for the final moment, we can then state that:

- initial per capita social spending (SSpc_i) is equal to $P_i \cdot F_i \cdot S_i$, and

- final per capita social spending (SSpc_f) is equal to $P_f \cdot F_f \cdot S_f$.

Since the percentage change in SSpc during the period is calculated as

$$\left[\frac{SSpc_f}{SSpc_i} - 1 \right] \cdot 100, \text{ substituting for the above identities, we obtain}$$

$$\left[\frac{P_f \cdot F_f \cdot S_f}{P_i \cdot F_i \cdot S_i} - 1 \right] \cdot 100 = \{[(P_f/P_i) \cdot (F_f/F_i) \cdot (S_f/S_i)] - 1\} \cdot 100, \text{ and since}$$

$P_f/P_i = 1 + \text{change in } GDPpc$, which we shall write as $1+VP$

$F_f/F_i = 1 + \text{change in } PS/GDP$, which we shall write as $1+VF$

$S_f/S_i = 1 + \text{change in } SS/PS$, which we shall write as $1+VS$

Then $\{[(P_f/P_i) \cdot (F_f/F_i) \cdot (S_f/S_i)] - 1\} \cdot 100$ is equal to

$\{[(1+VP) \cdot (1+VF) \cdot (1+VS)] - 1\} \cdot 100$; and carrying out the multiplication, we obtain

$\{VP+VF+VS+(VP \cdot VF)+(VP \cdot VS)+(VF \cdot VS)+(VP \cdot VF \cdot VS)\} \cdot 100$, so that, as indicated above, we can distinguish:

- the percentage effect of the change in the product $(VP \cdot 100)$,
- the percentage effect of the change in the ratio of public spending to GDP $(VF \cdot 100)$,
- the percentage effect of the change in the ratio of social spending to public spending $(VS \cdot 100)$; and
- the sum of the joint percentage effects of pairs of factors and of the three factors

$\{(VP \cdot VF)+(VP \cdot VS)+(VF \cdot VS)+(VP \cdot VF \cdot VS)\} \cdot 100$, which we will call the "combined effect."

MACROECONOMIC AND FISCAL PRIORITY OF SOCIAL SPENDING

The macroeconomic priority of social spending, defined as the percentage of GDP that public social spending represents, rose by between 2% and 2.5% in the different groups of countries. In the high-expenditure group, it climbed from a simple average of 17.5% in 1990-1991 to 19.5% in 1996-1997, while the figure for the medium-expenditure group rose from 7.9% to 10.5% and that of the low group from 5.3% to 7.7% (see table IV.1).

The fiscal priority of social spending, defined as the percentage of total public spending that social spending represents, rose by 3% (from 58% to 61%) for the high-expenditure group of countries, which means that in 1996-1997 the majority of these countries allocated between 60% and 65% of their total public expenditure to social items. The medium- and low-expenditure countries raised this ratio even more sharply (8%), although it still remained below the ratio recorded for the higher-spending countries. This measurement of fiscal priority rose from 35% to 43% for the medium-expenditure group and from 30% to 38% for the low-expenditure group.

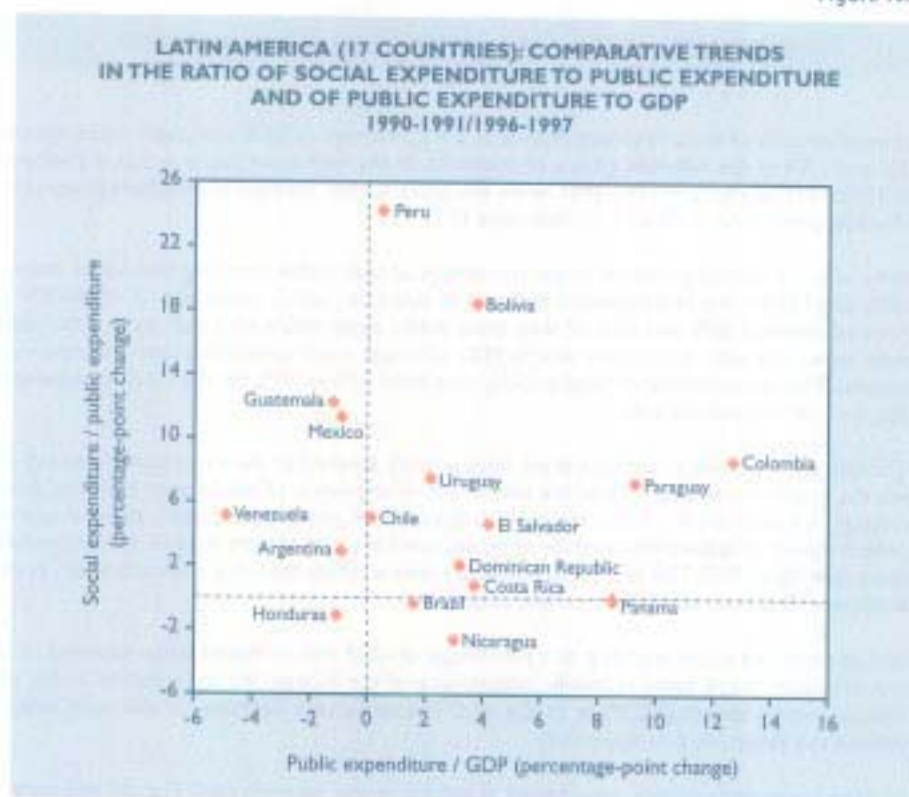
In 13 out of 17 countries, there was an increase in the fiscal priority assigned to the social components of public spending. In 9 out of 12 cases, the improvement occurred in the context of an expansion of total public spending as a percentage of GDP. Even more strikingly, in four of the five countries in which this ratio fell, social expenditure's share of total public spending actually increased, which signals an appreciable amount of protection for social sectors despite the budget reductions made by some Governments (see figure IV.5). This pro-social budgetary stance differs from the approach taken in the 1980s, when social spending was affected disproportionately by budget cuts.

The combination of expanded public spending as a percentage of GDP and increased social spending as a percentage of public spending, with the latter trend being relatively independent of the former, led to increases in the macroeconomic priority of social spending (social spending/GDP) in 15 out of 17 countries, with decreases in this ratio being recorded only in the cases of Honduras and Venezuela (see figure IV.6).

On the basis of this positive performance, a number of observations may be made regarding the real scale of public social expenditure relative to output. It should be noted that the 1996-1997 levels of public social expenditure of the countries in the high-expenditure group (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Panama, and Uruguay), along with Colombia, were between 14% and 23% of GDP, which is very close to, and in some cases more than, the figures for some of the developed countries. It will become more and more difficult for these countries to continue increasing this ratio, and especially in those cases where it has already passed the 20% mark. Consequently, the main means of increasing per capita expenditure in the coming years will be by expanding output, and attention should therefore centre primarily on increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of such expenditure, in addition to maintaining and eventually improving the ratio somewhat.

The resources allocated for social items by medium- and low-expenditure countries generally amounted to less than 9% of output; they therefore face the threefold challenge of simultaneously raising per capita output, expanding the share of output allocated to social spending, and taking steps to ensure the quality of expenditure in terms of its impact.

Figure IV.5



Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

Figure IV.6



Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

4. SECTORAL TRENDS IN SOCIAL SPENDING AS VIEWED FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF SOCIAL EQUITY

The expansion of social spending in the region as a whole was fairly evenly divided between progressive and regressive sectors in terms of its distribution over the socio-economic spectrum. Education and health, both of which are progressive items of expenditure, accounted for 44% of the total increase (25% and 19%, respectively), while another 41% of the upswing was channelled into the social security system, where spending is regressive. In the medium- and low-expenditure countries, however, the generally more progressive areas (i.e., education and health) accounted for the bulk of the overall increase (61%), while social security represented only 21%. In contrast, in the high-expenditure countries, spending on social security represented almost 50% of the increase.

For Latin America as a whole, the notable increase in social spending seen in the 1990s has been fairly evenly divided between progressive and regressive sectors in terms of the distribution of resources among the various income strata.

When the Gini inequality index³ is applied to the distribution of social spending by income brackets, it yields coefficients ranging between -1 and 0 when the distribution is progressive and between 0 and 1 when it is regressive; thus, the application of this index to a number of countries in the region makes

it possible to rank the various sectors on the basis of the progressivity or regressivity of expenditure.⁴ In most cases, the coefficient is between -0.20 and -0.40 for primary education and between -0.10 and -0.20 for secondary education, which indicates that expenditure on these items is progressive. Spending on education as a whole is therefore also progressive, with the overall index for this item ranging between -0.10 and -0.20, even though the higher-education component is regressive, with a coefficient of between 0.20 and 0.40. Health and welfare are clearly progressive, with coefficients generally

³ For further details on the formula used and other methodological considerations, see chapter IV of the 1994 edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* (ECLAC, 1994).

⁴ It should be noted that a regressive distribution of social expenditure can still have a progressive distributional effect as long as income distribution in the country concerned is even more regressive than the pattern of expenditure is. For example, if the Gini coefficient for social security expenditure is 0.20 while the coefficient for income distribution is 0.40, then social security spending will have a progressive effect.

between -0.20 and -0.30 , while social security is classified as regressive, since its Gini coefficients range from 0.20 to 0.40 . The coefficients obtained for expenditure on housing are mixed, but the general –and fairly pronounced– tendency is for spending in this sector to be regressive.

Education, which is the second most progressive sector, accounted for 25% of the region's total increase, while health and social assistance, which are generally the most progressive sectors, represented 19% and 6%, respectively. These three sectors, taken together, therefore represented 50% of the total increase for 1990-1997 (see table IV.4b).

As for the regressive sectors, social security spending accounted for 41% of the increase in the region, while housing represented 5%. Hence, 46% of the increase was in sectors where spending is regressively distributed. The remaining 4% corresponds to "other expenditures", a category which is quite heterogeneous in terms of the progressivity or regressivity of its component items.

The results obtained using the above classification indicate that in the countries with the highest social spending levels (Argentina, Uruguay and Brazil, followed by Chile, Panama and Costa Rica), regressive sectors were somewhat more dominant, since 55% of the total increase corresponded to social security and housing, while education, health and welfare accounted for 41%. In Brazil and Uruguay, social security was the area in which the largest increase was registered, while in the other four countries of the group it shared this distinction with the education sector.

On the other hand, in medium- and low-expenditure countries where spending rose (Colombia and Mexico in the former group and Paraguay, El Salvador, Bolivia, Dominican Republic and Guatemala in the latter), progressive sectors were dominant. Education, health and welfare accounted for 69% of the increase, while social security and housing represented only 28%. Education absorbed more than a 50% share of the increase in the Dominican Republic, Mexico and

Paraguay and for nearly as much in Bolivia, while health care was the sector with the sharpest upturns in Colombia and El Salvador.

As for the individual trends in each social area, education and social security showed the largest relative increases in the 1990s, with roughly 40% each for the period as a whole. Health and housing follow with approximately 32% and 20%, respectively (see table IV.5).

The significant upswing in the resources allocated for education is associated with the implementation of major reform programmes aimed at achieving improvements in both quality and equity, especially in primary and secondary education. These reforms have included measures dealing with teacher training and the provision of higher salaries, which, in view of their strong impact on the budget for the entire sector and their importance for faculty members, will be analysed below as specific considerations in the discussion of teachers' pay levels and their well-being in relative and absolute terms.

Other objectives of these reform programmes which have entailed increased national budget allocations for items of current and capital expenditure have been the upgrading of physical and technological infrastructure, the modernization of teaching methods and materials, and the measurement of the results of the educational process. As in the case of the other reforms being undertaken in this sector, these increases will be financed with both internally generated funds and loans from the multilateral banking system.

In absolute terms, per capita spending on education for persons between 5 and 24 years of age rose by more than US\$ 100, thus exceeding the average regional increase of US\$ 95, in more than half the countries: Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay. The largest percentage increases were registered in Bolivia, the Dominican Republic and Paraguay, which more than doubled their per capita spending on education for persons between the ages of 5 and 24, although their expenditure levels, both in the early 1990s and now,

are still low in the context of the region as a whole. Among the countries with the highest levels of spending, the increase was between 40% and 50%, which was also the most prevalent range of variation (see table IV.6 and figure IV.6).

In the health sector, the countries recording the sharpest rise in spending in absolute terms were Argentina, Chile, Colombia and Uruguay, with an increase of between US\$ 55 and US\$ 90 per capita, which was much more than the average gain of US\$ 27 for the region as a whole. In percentage terms, Colombia and Paraguay stand out, having more than trebled their per capita levels of spending; this brought Colombia close to the regional average, but Paraguay's level of expenditure remains far below the mean figure. Chile, the Dominican Republic and El Salvador also recorded notable increases of between 70% and 90% (see table IV.5).

The largest absolute increases in spending on social security were in Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Uruguay.

The first three of these countries showed a per capita increase of between US\$ 100 and US\$ 150, while the figure for Uruguay was somewhat over US\$ 300. Bolivia, Colombia, the Dominican Republic and Paraguay recorded particularly striking increases in this sector, but nonetheless continue to have relatively low per capita spending levels (see table IV.5).

Some of the most influential factors in the increases seen in this sector were the readjustments of retirement benefits and pensions implemented in the first four countries mentioned; this was particularly true in the case of Uruguay, where, pursuant to a constitutional amendment that had been approved in 1989, adjustments were made every four months at the start of the 1990s. Other factors include the write-offs and amortization of cumulative liabilities in the system, especially in some of the countries that registered particularly large increases in absolute terms, and the expansion of coverage and benefits, which occurred primarily in countries that recorded large increases in relative terms.

PER CAPITA SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION AND HEALTH: RELEVANT POPULATION GROUPS

Although the entire population in each country is usually considered in sectoral analyses of per capita social spending because of the simplicity and relative ease of making comparisons across sectors on this basis, this method obviously involves varying extents of distortion, depending on the sector concerned. With a view to achieving a greater degree of analytic accuracy, some illustrative examples are examined below.

If, in the case of education, a much more relevant group than the total population is chosen as a denominator, such as the population between the ages of 5 and 24, it may be seen that neither the classification of countries nor the percentage changes involved undergo major shifts, but the differences in the scale of per capita spending are very significant, as are the absolute changes in spending levels.

In 1996-1997, spending on education per person between the ages of 5 and 24 averaged US\$ 310 at the regional level, versus US\$ 122 when the entire population is used in the calculations; this type of differential appears in the cases of all the countries taken individually as well, with the figure for per capita expenditure doubling or trebling when the change is made from one definition to the other. The relative differences between countries also widen. When dividing by the entire population, the per capita level of expenditure of the highest-spending country is approximately 17 times that of the lowest spender whereas, when the population base used is a closer approximation to the beneficiaries of spending on education (e.g., persons between the ages of 5 and 24), then the multiplier separating the highest- and lowest-spending countries rises to 22.

In most of the countries, the absolute change in educational spending per capita also doubles or triples. Thus, for the 1990s, the regional average rises from US\$ 35 to US\$ 95.

If, in addition, consideration is given to the fact that, as is indicated by an examination of the distribution of expenditure on education by socio-economic stratum, spending on primary and secondary education primarily benefits the population between the ages of 5 and 17 from households in the first four quintiles of the per capita income distribution while spending on higher education mostly benefits people between the ages of 18 to 24 from the second to fifth quintiles of the income distribution, then the per capita level of spending on the segment of the population that is most likely to benefit from government expenditure rises somewhat more, with the regional average reaching US\$ 380 and the average absolute increase for the region in the 1990s amounting to US\$ 129.

In the case of health care, an examination of public spending by socio-economic stratum suggests that the entire population living in households in quintiles one through four of the per capita income distribution constitutes the most relevant group. When this segment of the population is used as the base, the order of the countries does not change a great deal compared to the results for the total-population approach, but the level of per capita spending rises by around 20% in most cases. The absolute change for the 1990s also increases by between 15% and 20%, with figures for the countries under review as a group jumping from the US\$ 27 figure obtained when the total population is considered to US\$ 32 when the bottom four income quintiles are used.

Finally, mention should be made of the fact that these population specifications have major implications for medium- and long-term diachronic comparisons, given the differing demographic and socio-economic dynamics at work in the countries of the region.

BASIC COMPONENTS OF EXPENDITURE ON HUMAN CAPITAL

The resources that Governments allocate for social sectors may be of two kinds: funds intended, either on a temporary or permanent basis, to compensate for given changes in the income levels of the population; and funds that represent a medium- or long-term investment in human capital and are intended to foster individuals' intellectual and physical development and, hence, their productive potential. Within this category, resources used to satisfy basic needs such as nutrition, health care and housing are of special importance. While it is difficult to arrive at an entirely accurate specification of which components should be considered investments in human capital -there is no single definition of the concept of basic needs itself, for that matter- a first approximation is to define all or part of the expenditure on education and health as being such an investment. Thus, for example, various studies classify investments in basic health care and primary education as "expenditure on human development".

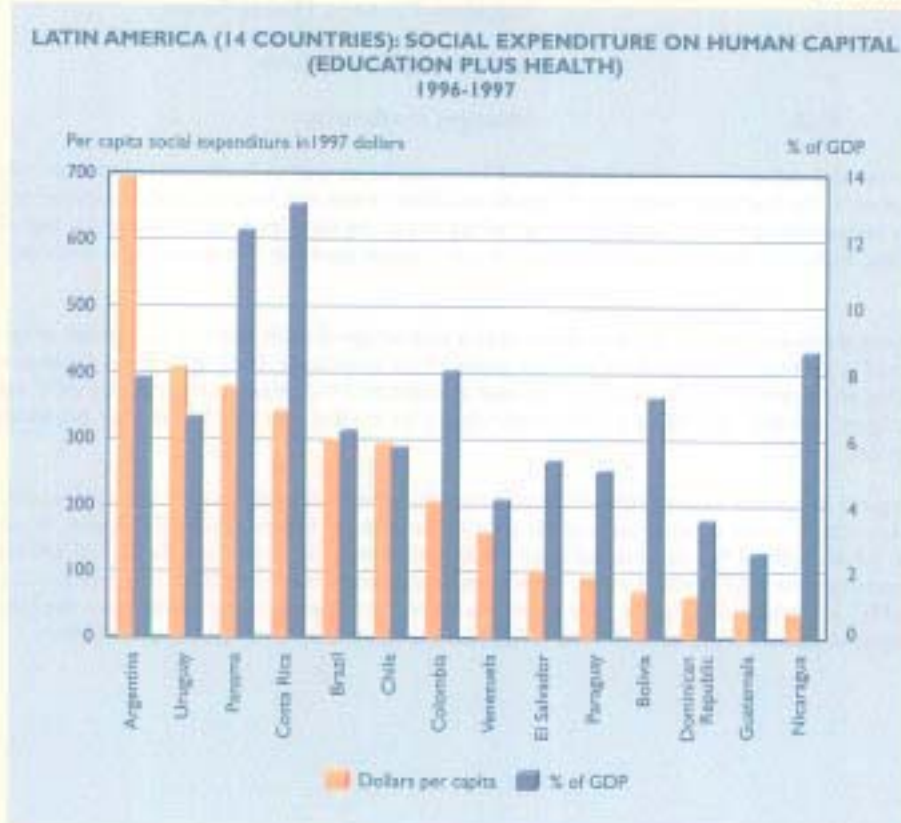
However, depending on the degree of socio-economic development that a country has attained, it may be necessary to use a broader definition of expenditure on human capital in order to include items whose ultimate purpose extends beyond the realm of basic needs, such as secondary and higher education and improved health care. Although a portion of the total investment made in education and health may ultimately not be considered as effective expenditure on human capital, in this report the broader concept is used because it comes closer to the above connotation than does the narrower interpretation of the concept, which restricts human capital investment to basic education and primary health care.

As with other types of expenditure, spending on human capital varies widely from country to country. While half of the countries spend over US\$ 200 per capita, with levels of US\$ 300 to US\$ 400 predominating, the other half of the countries have very low levels of spending, mostly under US\$ 100.

When spending on human capital is measured as a percentage of GDP, the resulting coefficients exceed 12% only in the cases of Costa Rica and Panama, while in the majority of the countries the figure is between 6% and 8%. This indicates that there may be some room for an increase in this category of expenditure.

On the other hand, in the countries with the lowest levels of spending in absolute terms, expenditure on human capital amounts to less than 6% of GDP in most cases; these countries therefore need to make a major effort to increase allocations and channel more resources into these areas of social investment.

Figure IV.7



Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES AND SOURCES OF SOCIAL EXPENDITURE STATISTICS

Series on public social spending in the region differ in terms of methodology and coverage from one country to the next. The most important methodological differences have to do with accounting methods and definitions of social spending. The main variations in coverage are associated with differences in the Governments' institutional structures and with the choice of whether or not to include local government expenditure.

Public spending can be broken down according to the different agencies involved. An initial distinction may be drawn between expenditures by the public financial sector (PFS), which includes the central bank and other State-owned financial institutions, and the non-financial public sector (NFPS), which includes the central government (CG), public enterprises (PE) and local governments (LG). In three of the countries in question, the coverage of these series corresponds to NFPS expenditure.

In 11 of the 17 countries studied, the series refer to spending by the central government. Within this category, a distinction can be made between agencies having an autonomous budgetary status (AA) and those whose funds come directly from the central government budget (CGB). Coverage in two of the countries corresponds to the latter. In another case, the series cover general government expenditure (GG), which includes spending by the central government and local governments.

The following list shows the classification of the countries according to the institutional coverage of their social expenditure series.

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

Given the accounting definitions used in the series of 17 countries, as well as the social expenditure funding and execution procedures of each, the figures for 16 of the 17 countries under review can be described as reasonably comparable. The fact that Mexico's series do not include social spending carried out at the local level, combined with a high degree of decentralization in funding, translates into an underestimation of public social spending that limits the comparability of the figures for that country.

Indicators based on measurements of social spending as a percentage of GDP and as a percentage of total public expenditure are calculated at current prices for each year. Per capita social spending in 1997 dollars was calculated on the basis of total social spending at current prices. To express this value at constant 1997 prices, the implicit of GDP deflator was used, and the resulting figure was then divided by the mean exchange rate for that year and by the total estimated population for the same time period.

The official figures in current values provided by government agencies in each country are used as the sources of data on total public expenditure, social expenditure and the sectoral breakdown for the latter. GDP figures at current prices and the GDP deflator are also official figures obtained from the ECLAC Annual Statistics Data Bank (BADEANU). The exchange rate used is the mean rate for 1997 in the *rf* series, taken from *International Financial Statistics*, a publication of the International Monetary Fund (IMF). The population figures used come from population projections calculated by the Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre -Population Division (CELADE) and published in its *Demographic Bulletin*.

Table IV.2

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE (Averages) a/					
Country	Real per capita social expenditure (1997 dollars)			Annual rate of variation	Annual rate of variation
	1990-1991	1994-1995	1996-1997	1990-1991 / 1994-1995	1994-1995 / 1996-1997
High social expenditure	727	924	975	6.2	2.6
Argentina	1222	1638	1570	7.6	-2.1
Uruguay	929	1260	1371	7.9	4.3
Brazil	821	888	951	2.0	3.5
Chile	451	612	725	7.9	8.8
Panama	494	641	683	6.7	3.2
Costa Rica b/	445	513	550	3.6	3.5
Medium social expenditure	267	321	353	4.7	4.9
Colombia	181	317	391	15.1	11.1
Mexico	283	360	352 c/	6.2	-1.1
Venezuela	338	287	317	-4.0	5.1
Low social expenditure	60	88	100	9.9	6.7
Paraguay	55	130	148	23.7	6.7
El Salvador	87	117	147	7.9	11.9
Bolivia	55	88	119	12.7	16.2
Dominican Republic	66	100	107	10.9	3.6
Guatemala	52	66	71	6.3	3.7
Honduras	59	57	58	-0.6	0.4
Nicaragua d/	48	56	49	3.7	-6.1
Regional average	349	446	475	6.3	3.3

Source: ECLAC, database on social expenditure.

a/ Countries are listed in descending order of social expenditure for 1996-1997.

b/ Only 1996 figures were available for the period 1996-1997.

c/ This figure does not include housing expenditure. If housing is considered, real social expenditure for 1996-1997 would be around US\$ 446.

d/ Only 1991 figures were taken into consideration for the period 1990-1991 due to problems of hyperinflation during 1990.

Table IV.3a

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): EXPLANATORY FACTORS FOR CHANGES IN PER CAPITA SOCIAL EXPENDITURE BETWEEN 1990-1991 AND 1996-1997 (In 1997 dollars)					
Country	Change in per capita social expenditure (1997 dollars)	Contributions for variation of per capita social expenditure			
		Effect of change in GDP	Effect of change in public expenditure relative to GDP	Effect of change in social expenditure relative to public expenditure	Combined effect
Argentina	349	338	-46	58	1
Uruguay	441	211	68	112	51
Brazil	130	90	41	-6	4
Chile	273	214	3	37	19
Panama	188	85	90	-1	15
Costa Rica	105	39	58	5	6
Colombia	210	28	84	52	49
Mexico	69	10	-15	77	-2
Venezuela	-27	2	-63	51	-10
Peru	118	15	2	74	26
Paraguay	93	1	67	10	13
El Salvador	60	17	15	18	10
Bolivia	65	5	9	39	11
Dominican Republic	41	14	17	4	6
Guatemala	19	4	-5	21	-1
Honduras	-1	3	-3	-2	0
Nicaragua	1	-1	5	-3	0

Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

Table IV.3b

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): EXPLANATORY FACTORS FOR CHANGES IN PER CAPITA SOCIAL EXPENDITURE BETWEEN 1990-1991 AND 1996-1997 (Percentages)					
Country	Change in per capita social expenditure (Percentages)	Contributions for variation of per capita social expenditure			
		Effect of change in GDP	Effect of change in public expenditure relative to GDP	Effect of change in social expenditure relative to public expenditure	Combined effect
Argentina	29	28	-4	5	0
Uruguay	48	23	7	12	5
Brazil	16	11	5	-1	0
Chile	61	47	1	8	4
Panama	38	17	18	0	3
Costa Rica	24	9	13	1	1
Colombia	117	15	46	29	27
Mexico	24	4	-5	27	-1
Venezuela	-6	1	-19	15	-3
Peru	229	30	4	145	51
Paraguay	167	1	122	18	24
El Salvador	70	20	17	21	12
Bolivia	118	9	17	71	20
Dominican Republic	63	22	26	6	9
Guatemala	37	9	-10	41	-2
Honduras	-2	5	-5	-4	0
Nicaragua	2	-1	11	-7	-1

Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

Table IV.4a

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): COMPOSITION OF INCREASE IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE, BY SECTOR (In 1997 dollars)								
Country	Sectors							Total
	Education <i>Absolute change</i>	Health <i>Absolute change</i>	Social security <i>Absolute change</i>	Social assistance <i>Absolute change</i>	Subtotal Social security and assistance	Housing <i>Absolute change</i>	Other <i>Absolute change</i>	
High social expenditure (average)	54	43	120	8	128	12	11	248
Argentina	106	89	97	32	129	4	21	249
Uruguay	50	64	314 a/	...	314	14	0	441
Brazil	3	-16	133	1	134	9	1	130
Chile	78	57	90	11	100	21	17	273
Panama	48	47	51 b/	...	51	17	25	188
Costa Rica	39	19	36	3	38	8	0	105
Medium and low social expenditure (average)	30	22	18	7	25	6	2	86
Colombia	43	70	53	17	70	24	3	210
Mexico	41	23 c/	6	69
Paraguay	50	17	27	2	29	-3	0	93
El Salvador	17	26	13 b/	4	16	2	0	60
Bolivia	30	3	18 a/	...	18	13	0	65
Dominican Republic	24	10	0 d/	6	6	-11	13	41
Guatemala	3	2	0 b/	...	0	14	0	19
Overall average	41	32	69	9	78	9	7	167

Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

a/ Includes social assistance. b/ Includes labour. c/ Includes social security. d/ Labour only.

Table IV.4b

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): COMPOSITION OF INCREASE IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE, BY SECTOR (Percentages)								
Country	Sectors							Total
	Education	Health	Social security	Social assistance	Subtotal Social security and assistance	Housing	Other	
High social expenditure (average)	22	17	48	3	52	5	4	100
Argentina	30	25	28	9	37	1	6	100
Uruguay	11	14	71 a/	...	71	3	0	100
Brazil	2	-12	102	1	103	7	1	100
Chile	29	21	33	4	37	8	6	100
Panama	25	25	27 b/	...	27	9	13	100
Costa Rica	37	18	34	3	36	8	0	100
Medium and low social expenditure (average)	35	25	21	9	29	7	4	100
Colombia	21	33	25	8	33	11	2	100
Mexico	59	33 c/	8	100
Paraguay	54	19	29	2	31	-3	0	100
El Salvador	28	43	21 b/	6	27	3	0	100
Bolivia	47	5	28 a/	...	28	21	0	100
Dominican Republic	57	24	0 d/	15	15	-27	31	100
Guatemala	17	9	0 b/	...	0	73	0	100
Overall average	25	19	41	6	47	6	4	100

Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

a/ Includes social assistance. b/ Includes labour. c/ Includes social security. d/ Labour only.

Table IV.5

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE, BY SECTOR				
Sector	Real per capita social expenditure (1997 dollars)		Absolute change (1997 dollars)	Percentage change
	1990-1991	1996-1997		
Education	87	122	35	39.5
Argentina	228	334	106	46.6
Uruguay	135	185	50	36.8
Panama	124	172	48	38.5
Chile	89	167	78	87.9
Brazil	161	164	3	1.8
Mexico	113	153	41	36.0
Costa Rica	113	153	39	34.6
Venezuela	130	119	-11	-8.5
Colombia	70	113	43	62.3
Paraguay	22	72	50	227.2
Bolivia	28	59	30	107.7
El Salvador	33	50	17	50.5
Dominican Republic	17	41	24	136.3
Guatemala	25	28	3	13.6
Nicaragua	23	20	-3	-12.1
Health and nutrition	84	110	27	31.7
Argentina	274	362	88	32.5
Uruguay	161	224	64	39.7
Panama	163	210	47	28.9
Costa Rica	174	193	19	10.8
Brazil	155	138	-16	-10.5
Chile	72	128	57	79.4
Colombia	26	95	70	272.9
El Salvador	28	54	26	91.2
Venezuela	57	42	-15	-26.4
Dominican Republic	14	24	10	69.8
Paraguay	5	22	17	330.0
Nicaragua	20	20	0	2.4
Guatemala	14	16	2	12.4
Bolivia	11	14	3	29.0
Mexico	—	—	—	—
Social security	162	229	66	40.8
Uruguay	617	931	314	51.0
Argentina	575	704	129	22.5
Brazil	352	487	134	38.1
Chile	242	342	100	41.5
Panama	155	206	51	33.1
Costa Rica	108	146	38	35.5
Colombia	67	137	70	105.6
Venezuela	89	110	20	22.6
Paraguay	21	49	29	138.9
El Salvador	22	39	16	73.2
Bolivia	9	27	18	201.3
Dominican Republic	6	12	6	113.3
Guatemala	11	12	0	1.5
Nicaragua	—	—	—	—
Mexico	—	—	—	—
Housing, water and sewerage	37	44	7	19.3
Brazil	153	162	9	5.6
Argentina	106	110	4	4.0
Panama	42	59	17	41.4
Chile	38	59	21	54.8
Costa Rica	44	52	8	18.4
Venezuela	61	47	-14	-23.7
Colombia	13	36	24	183.4
Uruguay	17	30	14	82.0
Bolivia	7	20	13	193.8
Guatemala	2	16	14	622.3
Nicaragua	6	9	3	56.0
Dominican Republic	19	7	-11	-60.1
El Salvador	3	5	2	53.7
Paraguay	8	4	-3	-41.8
Mexico	—	—	—	—

Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

Table IV.6

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION									
Country	Real per capita social expenditure 1996-1997 (1997 dollars)			Absolute change 1990-1991 / 1996-1997 (1997 dollars)			Percentage change 1990-1991 / 1996-1997		
	Total population	Population aged 5-24	Quintiles a/	Total population	Population aged 5-24	Quintiles a/	Total population	Population aged 5-24	Quintiles a/
Simple average	122	310	380	35	95	129	39.5	44.0	51.3
Argentina	334	910	1120	106	287	401	46.6	46.1	55.9
Uruguay	185	579	700	50	156	213	36.8	36.8	43.7
Chile	167	465	569	78	230	293	87.9	97.4	106.5
Panama	172	423	504	48	136	175	38.5	47.3	53.2
Brazil	164	400	475	3	23	39	1.8	6.1	8.9
Costa Rica	153	375	473	39	105	168	34.6	38.7	54.9
Mexico	153	346	413	41	108	140	36.0	45.3	51.4
Venezuela	119	278	355	-11	-18	-44	-8.5	-6.0	-10.9
Colombia	113	276	332	43	116	146	62.3	71.9	78.7
Paraguay	72	159	212	50	111	155	227.2	227.5	270.2
Bolivia	59	130	170	30	68	97	107.7	110.3	131.4
El Salvador	50	106	131	17	40	55	50.5	59.5	73.4
Dominican Republic	41	97	116	24	58	72	136.3	149.9	164.2
Guatemala	28	58	79	3	7	20	13.6	13.3	33.1
Nicaragua	20	41	55	-3	-5	2	-12.1	-10.2	4.4

Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

a/ Quintiles 1 through 4 for the population between the ages of 5 and 17, and quintiles 2 through 5 for the population between the ages of 18 and 24.

Table IV.7

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE ON HEALTH AND NUTRITION						
Country	Real per capita social expenditure 1996-1997 (1997 dollars)		Absolute change 1990-1991 / 1996-1997 (1997 dollars)		Percentage change 1990-1991 / 1996-1997	
	Total population	Quintiles a/	Total population	Quintiles a/	Total population	Quintiles a/
Simple average	110	131	27	32	31.7	31.8
Argentina	362	431	89	103	32.5	31.5
Uruguay	224	265	64	76	39.7	40.3
Panama	210	249	47	56	28.9	29.1
Costa Rica	193	229	19	23	10.8	11.1
Brazil	138	165	-16	-21	-10.5	-11.1
Chile	128	154	57	68	79.4	79.2
Colombia	95	113	70	83	272.9	270.3
El Salvador	54	64	26	30	91.2	91.2
Venezuela	42	50	-15	-14	-26.4	-22.2
Dominican Republic	24	29	10	12	69.8	69.8
Paraguay	22	26	17	20	330.0	323.4
Nicaragua	20	24	0	1	2.4	2.4
Guatemala	16	19	2	2	12.4	12.4
Bolivia	14	17	3	3	29.0	25.9

Source: ECLAC database on social expenditure.

a/ Quintiles 1 through 4 for the total population.

B. TEACHERS' SALARIES

1. PUBLIC SPENDING ON EDUCATION AND TEACHERS' WAGES

The steep increase in public spending on education during the 1990s –close to one percentage point of GDP in the countries of the region– is largely due to the improvements made in the wages paid to primary and secondary schoolteachers, which rose at an annual rate of between 3% and 9%. The effort made in some countries to reduce the gap between teachers' salaries and those of other skilled public-sector employees accounts for between 70% and 80% of the upswing in expenditure on education.

One of the main components of the increase in social spending observed in the region during the 1990s is the higher level of expenditure on education. This trend attests to the growing importance that the countries' Governments are placing on investment in education, as well as being a reflection of the greater funding requirements entailed by the educational reforms being implemented in various countries. Spending on education climbed from 2.8% to 3.7% of GDP between 1990-1991 and 1996-1997 and, when measured as a percentage of per capita expenditure, the average rise for 15 countries was 40% (from US\$ 87 to US\$ 122).⁵ Only in two countries (Nicaragua and Venezuela) was there a slight decrease in this percentage.

Furthermore, in 9 out of 13 countries the expansion of spending on education during the 1990s accounts for more than a quarter of the overall increase in per capita social spending, and in 7 of the 15 countries in question, public funding for education rose faster than social spending as a whole. With the sole exception of Brazil, public spending on education increased significantly in all the countries that launched educational reforms or initiated major changes in this sector.

In education more than in other social sectors, current expenditure –and within this category, spending on wages– absorbs the largest share of public spending. It is estimated that between 90% and 95% of the educational budget of the region's countries is

⁵ Government expenditure on education in the 1990s turns out to have increased even more if it is measured in relation to its potential beneficiaries rather than to the population as a whole. Thus, though per capita expenditure for the population between the ages of 5 and 24 rose by 44%, from US\$ 215 to US\$ 310, the figure rises to 51% (an absolute increase from US\$ 251 to US\$ 380), if the population to be considered is defined as persons between the ages of 5 and 17 living in households within the first four quintiles and those aged from 18 to 24 who live in households within the second through fifth income quintiles (see box IV.6).

for current expenditure and that between 80% and 90% of that amount goes for wages. This means that, in the great majority of cases, public schoolteachers' wages absorbed between 70% and 80% of total public expenditure on education (Cominetti and Ruiz, 1998, table 8, p. 57).

In nine Latin American countries for which information was available on teachers' pay levels (Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay), an average of nearly 75% of the increase in education expenditure, measured as a percentage of GDP, in the 1990s corresponds to pay raises for primary and secondary schoolteachers.⁶ Spending in these countries has climbed from 3.1 to 4.5 percentage points of GDP, while the level of funds used to pay teachers has risen from 2.3 to 3.4 points of GDP.

The impact that teachers' salaries have on the public budget and their significance in terms of the trends seen in social spending in recent years are not the only reasons why this factor is important to look at. As has been pointed out repeatedly in the past, although teachers' salaries do not directly determine the quality of their performance, the monetary and non-monetary rewards received by teachers, the status of the profession in relation to others that also require a high level of training, and the conditions under which teachers are called upon to perform their duties all strongly influence the quality of teaching. Over the long run, these factors are also highly influential in relation to the recruitment of teachers, their decision to remain in the profession and their ability to perform their teaching duties without having to do other kinds of work to supplement their incomes.

Since teachers' wages are such an important factor, this section will focus on pay levels in the nine countries mentioned above, trends in this variable over the course of the 1990s and the question of how teachers' salaries compare with those of other occupational categories.⁷ The following section looks at the differentials between teachers' salaries in public primary and secondary schools in Latin American countries and those of their counterparts in developed countries. Finally, the socio-economically vulnerable position of the region's primary and secondary schoolteachers is discussed.

a) Teachers' salaries:

wage levels and trends in the 1990s

Teachers' average salaries, expressed in multiples of the per capita poverty line, differ appreciably from one country to another. Around 1996-1997, the average monthly effective rate of remuneration for primary and secondary schoolteachers in both public and private institutions in Chile, Costa Rica and Panama was equivalent to between 6 and 8 times the per capita poverty line. In Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay it was from 4 to 5 times this value, while in Bolivia, Ecuador and Mexico it was equivalent to only 2.4-3.6 times the poverty line⁸ (see table IV.8).

It is of interest to note that although the average wages of schoolteachers are, generally speaking, directly related to national levels of per capita income, the two variables are not closely correlated. In other words, there are countries where teachers receive much higher salaries than would appear to be indicated by the corresponding country's level of per capita income, while in other countries the figure is

6 The analysis of primary and secondary schoolteachers' wages in both public and private institutions that is presented in this section is based on special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries. Other studies use information—in many cases provided by the corresponding Ministries of Education—on the official "statutory" salary levels set by the Government. One of the main advantages of using household survey data is that it then becomes possible to compare teachers' pay levels with the effective hourly wages of other categories of workers and to analyse levels of well-being as they relate to other characteristics of individuals and households.

7 Of the total of nine countries selected, five belong to the high social expenditure category (Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay); two to the medium-expenditure group (Ecuador and Mexico); and two to the low-expenditure group (Bolivia and Paraguay). The household survey data available for these countries make it possible to analyse teachers' pay levels using primary school/secondary school and public/private disaggregations.

8 Box 1.2 shows the value of the per capita poverty line for each country.

TEACHERS IN THE EMPLOYMENT STRUCTURE AND THE PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN FACULTY MEMBERS

Primary and secondary schoolteachers represent a very high percentage of the economically active population in the region's countries. The numerical weight of the teaching profession as a fraction of all wage earners is greater yet. In the nine countries studied, the percentage of wage earners whose principal occupation is that of a primary or secondary schoolteacher ranges from 2.5% to 3.5%. This figure means that, in most of the countries in question, no fewer than one out of every five employed persons in the professional and technical category is a teacher in a primary or secondary school.

In all of these countries, a large percentage of teachers work in public schools: between 60% and 70% in Chile and Paraguay, between 70% and 80% in Brazil, Ecuador and Uruguay, and more than 80% in Bolivia, Costa Rica and Panama. For the Latin American countries as a whole, an average of three out of every four teachers at the primary and secondary levels work in public schools.

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): TOTAL NUMBER OF TEACHERS AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICIANS AND AS A PERCENTAGE OF ALL WAGE EARNERS

Country	Year	As a percentage of all professionals and technicians			As a percentage of all wage earners		
		All teachers a/	Public school-teachers b/	Primary schoolteachers c/	All teachers a/	Public school-teachers b/	Primary schoolteachers c/
Bolivia	1997	39	35	25	3.3	2.9	2.1
Brazil	1996	34	27	22	2.8	2.2	1.8
Chile	1995	29	18	21	2.8	1.7	2.0
Costa Rica	1997	35	30	22	2.9	2.5	1.8
Ecuador d/	1997	28	22	21	3.7	2.8	2.7
Mexico	1996	25	...	18	2.4	...	1.7
Panama	1997	17	14	11	2.8	2.3	1.8
Paraguay d/	1996	21	13	12	2.6	1.6	1.5
Uruguay d/	1997	25	18	13	3.1	2.2	1.6

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

a/ Includes public and private primary and secondary schoolteachers.

b/ Includes primary and secondary schoolteachers.

c/ Includes public and private primary schoolteachers.

d/ Urban areas.

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION BY SEX OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLTEACHERS, PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICIANS a/ AND ALL WAGE EARNERS (Percentages)

Country	Year	All wage earners		Professionals and technicians		Primary and secondary schoolteachers		Primary schoolteachers only	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Bolivia	1997	56	44	71	29	40	61	34	66
Brazil	1996	60	40	55	45	11	89	6	94
Chile	1995	67	34	62	38	29	72	23	77
Costa Rica	1997	69	31	62	38	23	77	15	85
Ecuador b/	1997	62	38	64	36	34	66	23	77
Mexico	1996	65	35	65	35	31	69	21	79
Panama	1997	66	34	63	37	24	76	15	85
Paraguay b/	1996	56	44	58	42	11	89	4	96
Uruguay b/	1997	59	42	54	46	15	85	7	93
Simple average			38		38		76		84

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

a/ Other than primary and secondary schoolteachers.

b/ Urban areas.

Table IV.8

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE EFFECTIVE a/ AND STANDARDIZED b/ WAGES, HOURS WORKED c/ AND NUMBER OF YEARS OF EDUCATION d/ OF TEACHERS, OF PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICIANS, OF ALL WAGE EARNERS AND OF THE PUBLIC-SECTOR COMPONENT OF THESE CATEGORIES

Country	Year		All teachers		Teachers				All professionals and technicians ff		Total wage-earning population	
			Total	Public	Primary e/		Secondary		Total	Public	Total	Public
					Total	Public	Total	Public				
Bolivia	1997	Average effective wage	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.6	2.5	7.1	6.2	3.3	3.5
		Standardized average wage	4.8	4.7	4.4	4.3	5.5	5.5	8.1	7.6	3.6	4.9
		Hours worked per week	25	25	26	26	22	22	42	40	46	37
		Years of education	14.6	14.6	14.5	14.4	15.0	14.9	14.3	15.1	10.1	13.3
Brazil	1996	Average effective wage	4.2	4.2	3.3	3.4	5.6	5.4	8.1	9.4	4.2	6.2
		Standardized average wage	6.7	6.5	5.3	5.4	9.0	8.3	9.5	11.7	4.7	7.8
		Hours worked per week	29	30	29	29	31	32	41	37	43	37
		Years of education	12.2	12.3	11.3	11.3	13.8	13.8	12.1	12.6	6.8	9.8
Chile	1995	Average effective wage	6.7	6.3	6.6	6.3	7.2	6.1	15.4	10.1	5.3	6.7
		Standardized average wage	8.0	7.7	7.8	7.8	8.4	7.4	14.9	10.4	5.0	7.0
		Hours worked per week	39	37	39	37	39	38	46	44	48	44
		Years of education	15.8	15.5	15.6	15.2	16.5	16.3	15.6	14.8	10.1	12.8
Costa Rica	1997	Average effective wage	7.9	8.2	8.0	8.3	7.7	8.1	9.2	10.4	5.2	7.9
		Standardized average wage	10.1	9.8	10.4	10.2	9.6	9.1	9.5	10.5	5.1	8.0
		Hours worked per week	38	39	38	39	38	40	46	46	48	46
		Years of education	14.5	14.6	14.2	14.3	15.0	15.1	13.3	14.0	8.3	11.9
Ecuador (urban)	1997	Average effective wage	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.6	3.2	3.0	5.6	4.7	3.1	3.9
		Standardized average wage	3.7	3.6	3.9	3.9	3.4	3.2	5.6	4.7	3.1	4.0
		Hours worked per week	41	42	40	41	43	43	46	45	47	44
		Years of education	15.3	15.3	14.7	14.7	16.2	16.2	15.1	15.6	10.6	13.5
Panama	1997	Average effective wage	6.6	7.1	5.7	6.1	8.2	8.8	9.8	10.2	5.1	7.3
		Standardized average wage	8.1	8.5	6.9	7.2	10.1	10.8	10.1	10.6	5.3	7.8
		Hours worked per week	38	38	37	38	39	39	45	43	45	43
		Years of education	15.3	15.2	14.2	14.0	17.4	17.4	14.7	15.1	10.6	12.7
Paraguay (urban)	1996	Average effective wage	3.9	4.0	3.3	3.4	4.7	4.9	6.2	6.0	3.1	4.3
		Standardized average wage	5.0	4.8	4.1	3.9	6.2	6.1	6.6	7.1	3.2	5.1
		Hours worked per week	35	37	36	39	33	34	47	42	49	42
		Years of education	14.8	14.6	14.0	14.1	16.0	15.5	14.5	15.1	9.3	12.6
Uruguay (urban)	1997	Average effective wage	4.5	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.5	4.1	8.4	7.4	4.5	5.4
		Standardized average wage	6.8	6.6	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.4	8.9	8.2	4.9	6.0
		Hours worked per week	32	32	31	31	33	32	44	43	44	43
		Years of education	13.6	13.5	13.3	13.8	13.8	13.1	13.3	13.4	9.2	10.3

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

a/ Average monthly wage, expressed in multiples of the poverty line, according to the number of hours worked per week.

b/ Standardized average monthly wage expressed in multiples of the poverty line (based on a 44-hour work week).

c/ Refers to average hours worked per week.

d/ Corresponds to average number of years of schooling.

e/ Includes preschool teachers.

ff/ Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

lower than would be expected. Costa Rica is an example of the former, Brazil of the latter.⁹ These differences are reflected in how the pay levels of the various occupational categories in each country compare with one another, and they have implications in terms of both the quality and equity of the educational system. Meanwhile, the level of wages in absolute terms is an important determinant in relation to the poverty conditions and socio-economic vulnerability to which teachers may be subject.

Two factors that are brought out by an examination of teachers' pay levels are the differences that exist between primary and secondary schoolteachers' salaries and the wage gap existing between public and private schools.

In six of the nine countries in question (the exceptions are Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay), the average monthly salaries of secondary schoolteachers are higher than those of primary schoolteachers, regardless of whether they are measured in terms of the actual length of their workdays or as an hourly wage.¹⁰ The differentials are not constant but instead vary widely from country to country. When standardized measurements of average pay levels (based on a 44-hour work week) are compared, the results show that secondary schoolteachers' wages are at least 50% higher than primary schoolteachers' pay levels in Brazil, Panama and Paraguay, while in Bolivia, Chile and Mexico the corresponding differential is from 10% to 20%.¹¹

These salary differentials between primary and secondary schools help to explain why public expenditure on secondary education is less progressive than spending on primary or basic education is. Not

only does secondary education reach proportionally fewer people in lower-income brackets than in medium- and high-income brackets but, in addition, the per-pupil cost of secondary schools is greater because of the higher salaries received by their teachers. These two factors heighten the differences both in terms of total public expenditure and in terms of services per beneficiary enjoyed by households in different income brackets. This makes it possible to project the impact of certain types of educational policies on the level of equity obtained in the distribution of public resources in the sector. For example, increasing the coverage of the secondary education system would make the distribution of the total amount spent on education more progressive by benefiting lower-income brackets. Higher wages for primary school teachers would have the same effect. Along with making access to education more equitable, achieving these two objectives would have a favourable impact on the quality of education. Although raising teachers' salaries is not a guarantee that quality will automatically increase, it does open the door to improvements in the educational process by way of other factors, such as motivation and opportunities to update knowledge and methods, which cannot come into play when teachers are forced to perform other kinds of supplementary work in order to earn enough to live on (Hopenhayn, 1997).

Disparities in pay between teachers in public and private schools also have a bearing on quality and equity in education. In the countries where these variables were studied, the hourly wages of teachers in private schools are from 10% to 20% higher than those paid by the public school system¹² (see table IV.11). The disparity is relatively slight in primary education but much sharper at the secondary level.

9 In the mid-1990s, Costa Rica's per capita income level was around 60% of Brazil's, but the average salary for teachers in Costa Rica (8.0 poverty lines) was far more than double that of Brazil (3.3 poverty lines).

10 Monthly pay levels are expressed in multiples of each country's per capita poverty line. This makes it possible to make comparisons across countries and years. Two measures were used: stated monthly salary in the main occupation based on the number of hours actually worked per week (effective average pay) and the monthly salary that would be obtained for a 44-hour work week (standardized average pay).

11 The higher hourly wage of secondary schoolteachers as compared to that of primary schoolteachers is due, generally speaking, to the differences between the number of years of education completed by the teachers in each group; in countries where the education differential is greater, so is the wage differential.

12 The differentials mentioned here refer to the standardized wage, i.e., the wage that would be earned for a 44-hour work week. The percentages by which the salaries of teachers in private (primary and secondary) schools exceed those of public schoolteachers are as follows: 17% in Bolivia and Brazil, 8% in Chile, 21% in Costa Rica, 11% in Ecuador, 13% in Paraguay and 12% in Uruguay. Disaggregated sectoral figures were not available for Mexico, and the information for Panama indicates that public schoolteachers' salaries are higher than those paid by private schools.

The average wage gap at the primary level in seven of these countries is 9%, while the secondary-level differential amounts to 23%. In Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay, teachers in private secondary schools receive salaries that are between 20% and 45% higher than those of their public-school counterparts.

If teachers' pay levels have some degree of influence on the quality of teaching, then these salary differences are contributing factors in the inequality of the educational system, and their impact grows as one moves from the primary to the secondary level. Within the context of educational and policy reforms that seek to broaden the coverage of secondary education, improve its quality and level of equity, and lower drop-out rates, the existence of low pay levels for teachers and large wage differentials is one more stumbling block on the path to the achievement of these objectives.

In the light of the above considerations, it is important to look at how trends in teachers' wages break down along primary/secondary and public/private lines. What signals have the market and the public sector sent out in regard to faculty salaries? Have these gaps tended to narrow in the course of the 1990s or not, and how might this affect the achievement of educational reform objectives?

In six of the countries studied, the average hourly pay level for primary and secondary teachers as a group rose at real rates of from 2% to 9% a year. A considerable effort was made in the period between 1990-1991 and 1996-1997 to improve teachers' hourly wages in Paraguay, Bolivia, Chile and Brazil, where pay levels rose at annual rates of 9.5%, 7.8%, 7.8% and 4.0%, respectively.¹³ In Uruguay, Costa Rica and Ecuador the real annual increases were smaller (2.8%, 1.7% and 0.4%, respectively), while in Mexico and Panama the average wage fell by close to 1% per year (see table IV.13).¹⁴

However, the salary increases observed between 1990 and 1996-1997 were not generally accompanied by any shrinkage in the primary/secondary or public/private differentials. The only cases where a reduction was clearly seen in the disparity between public and private schools was in primary education in Bolivia and secondary education in Paraguay. In the rest of the countries, these gaps remained the same or widened slightly.

Nevertheless, mention should also be made of the positive impact that sharp rises in starting pay for public schoolteachers may have, especially in the cases of Bolivia, Chile and Paraguay. This change has, within the context of an overall improvement in teachers' incomes, translated into larger raises for teachers under 40 years old than for their colleagues who are over the age of 40 (see table IV.14). In addition to the fact that these pay hikes are improving teachers' standards of living, the significant adjustments made in the pay scale for public schoolteachers in these countries are a positive sign in terms of recruitment and long-term impacts.

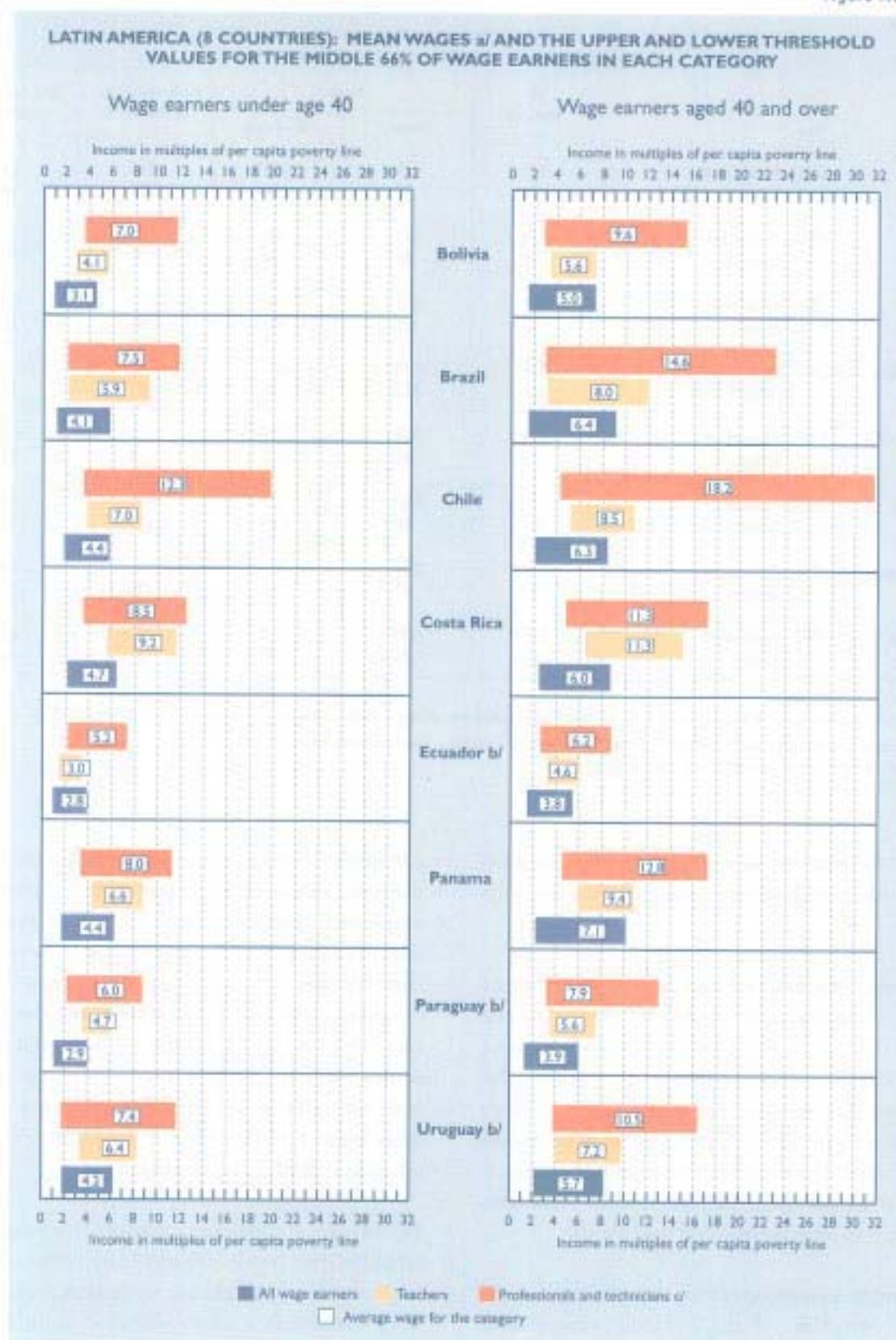
b) How teachers' salaries compare with those of other professionals and technicians

Even though teachers' salaries have improved considerably in various countries of the region over the course of the 1990s, there are still significant differences between their hourly pay levels and those of other categories of wage earners with comparable educational levels (see figure IV.1). The average annual salaries received by primary and secondary schoolteachers per year of education are well below those of other salaried professional and technical employees in all the countries studied except Costa Rica. It is between 25% and 30% lower in Brazil, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay, and between 35% and 50% lower in Bolivia, Chile and Ecuador. In Costa Rica, however, average wages per year of

¹³ A recent study done in Chile based on information from the Ministry of Public Education (Mineduc) indicates that teachers' wages, calculated on the basis of a 44-hour work week, increased in real terms at an average rate of close to 10% between 1990 and 1997 (see P. Rojas, 1998).

¹⁴ The real cumulative rise in teachers' wages in the countries where the largest gains were made amounted to 72% in Paraguay, 46% in Bolivia, 47% in Chile and 27% in Brazil. In Chile and Paraguay, the increase in teachers' average real hourly wage was well in excess of the pay raises received by professionals and technical workers and by wage earners as a whole.

Figure IV.8



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

^{a/} Standardized wage expressed in multiples of the per capita poverty line (based on a 44-hour work week).

^{b/} Urban areas. In the other countries, the figures are nationwide totals.

^{c/} Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

Table IV.9

MEAN WAGE ^{a/} PER YEAR OF EDUCATION AND AS MEASURED BY THE INDEX FOR THE TOTAL WAGE-EARNING POPULATION							
Country	Year		All teachers	Teachers		Professionals and technicians ^{b/}	Total wage-earning population
				Primary	Secondary		
Bolivia	1997	Mean salary Index	0.33 79	0.31 74	0.37 88	0.64 152	0.42 100
Brazil	1996	Mean salary Index	0.53 75	0.47 66	0.64 90	0.87 123	0.71 100
Chile	1995	Mean salary Index	0.51 102	0.51 102	0.52 104	0.93 186	0.50 100
Costa Rica	1997	Mean salary Index	0.71 106	0.75 112	0.64 96	0.73 109	0.67 100
Ecuador ^{c/}	1997	Mean salary Index	0.24 83	0.27 93	0.21 72	0.37 128	0.29 100
Panama	1997	Mean salary Index	0.53 104	0.50 98	0.58 114	0.70 137	0.51 100
Paraguay ^{c/}	1996	Mean salary Index	0.34 94	0.30 83	0.39 108	0.46 128	0.36 100
Uruguay ^{c/}	1997	Mean salary Index	0.51 88	0.50 86	0.52 90	0.71 122	0.58 100

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

a/ Standardized wage expressed in multiples of the poverty line (based on a 44-hour work week).

b/ Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

c/ Urban areas.

education for teachers as a whole are on a par with those of other professional and technical workers (see table IV.9).

Wage levels per year of education vary according to the level of instruction. In four of the countries studied (Bolivia, Brazil, Panama and Paraguay) they are lower for primary schoolteachers. On the other hand, the level of pay received by primary schoolteachers in Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay, when measured per year of education, is equal to or higher than that received by secondary schoolteachers (see figures IV.9 and IV.10).

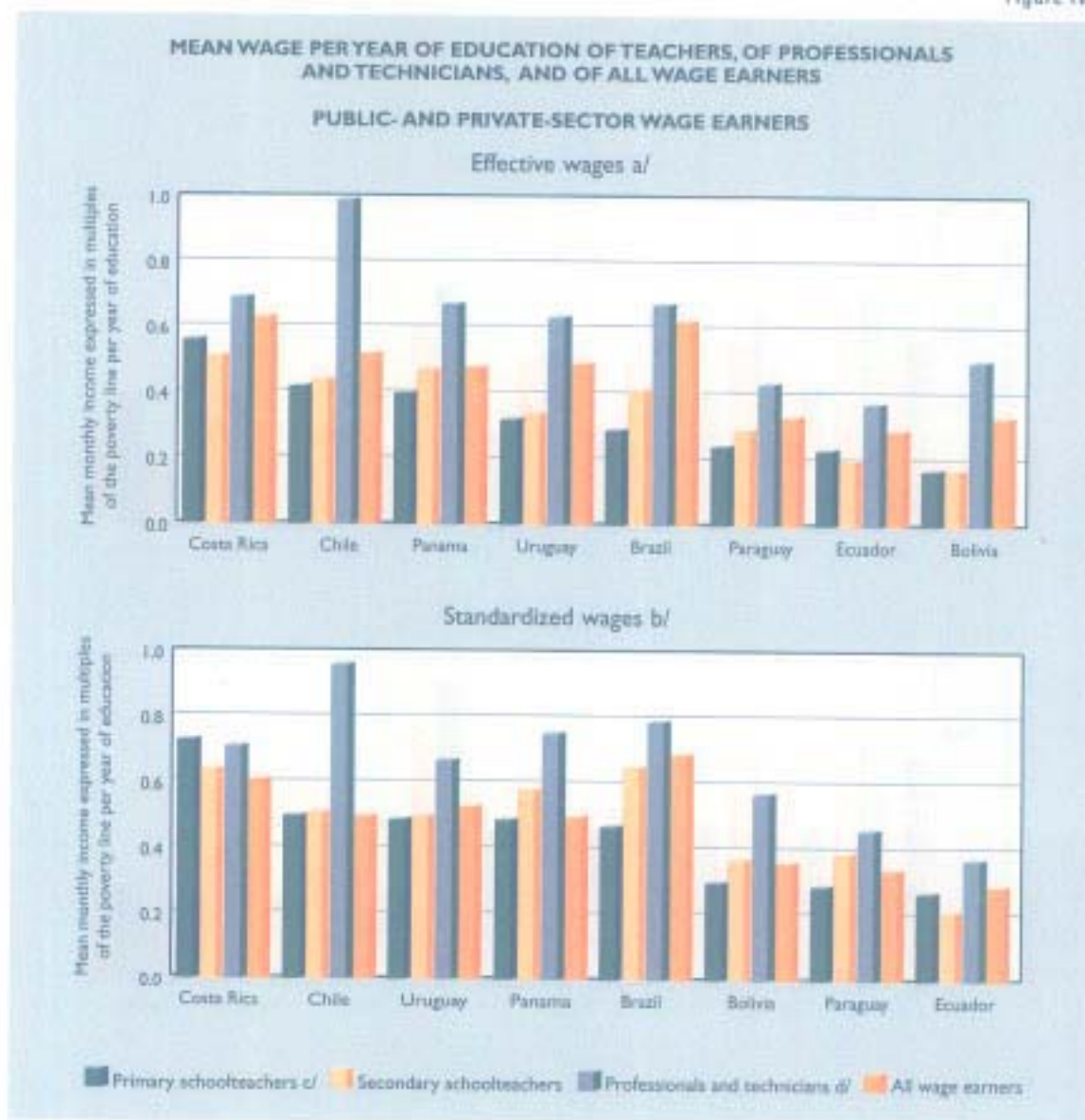
These comparisons bring out an important feature of the wage structure of the various occupational

categories, since they show that sharp wage disparities exist even among different categories of employed persons having a relatively high educational level. This factor tends to exacerbate the inequality of income distribution in the countries concerned.¹⁵ Furthermore, the fact that teachers' average salaries are lower than those of professional and technical employees as a group is not attributable either to the length of their workday or to differences in the number of years of education they have completed.

However, a different picture emerges when teachers' pay levels, measured in terms of years of schooling completed, are compared with those of wage earners as a whole, since it is only in some

15 It should be noted that, of the countries studied, those with the most unequal income distribution (Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador and Paraguay) also show the largest wage differentials between teachers and other employed professionals and technical workers.

Figure IV.9



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

a/ Mean monthly wage, expressed in multiples of the poverty line, according to the number of hours worked per week.

b/ Standardized mean monthly wage expressed in multiples of the poverty line (based on a 44-hour work week).

c/ Includes preschool teachers.

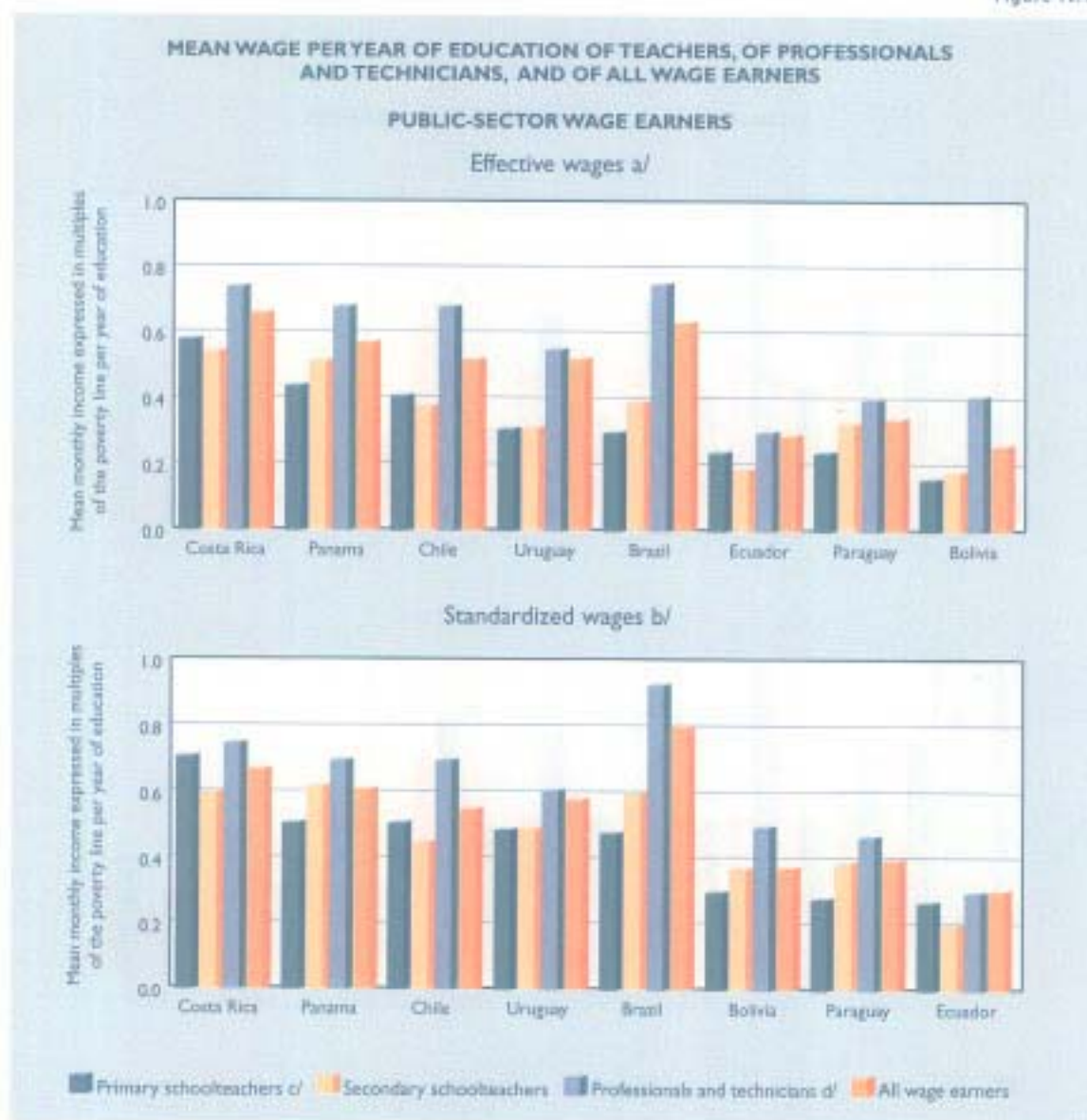
d/ Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

countries that teachers receive a salary lower than the average for the economy. In Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador, Paraguay and Uruguay, their pay is between 6% and 25% lower than the average for all wage earners. In Chile, Costa Rica and Panama it is very close to the mean.

These data indicate that the premium received by teachers for each additional year of education is less

than that received, on average, by other professionals entering the labour market with the same number of years of education. It may therefore be concluded that the teaching profession is generally underpaid relative to others that require a similar investment in educational capital.

Figure IV.10



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

a/ Mean monthly wage, expressed in multiples of the poverty line, according to the number of hours worked per week.

b/ Standardized mean monthly wage expressed in multiples of the poverty line (based on a 44-hour work week).

c/ Includes preschool teachers.

d/ Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

2. TEACHERS' SALARIES IN LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES AND IN THE DEVELOPED WORLD

Latin America's low per capita income levels as compared to those of developed countries underlie the enormous salary differentials existing between teachers in the two groups of countries. Despite the greater efforts being made in the region to provide better pay for public schoolteachers, their annual income averages only one fifth of what teachers with the same number of years experience receive in the developed countries for the same number of hours of work.

The belief that teachers' salaries are low and inadequate is widespread. This statement needs to be analysed in greater depth, however, because it can mean a number of different things. It may refer to the fact that, in relation to international standards, teachers' salaries are very low relative to the mean income level in a given country. It may mean that in a given country teachers' incomes are lower than those of other occupational categories requiring comparable levels of training. Or it may signify that teachers' incomes are too low to allow them to attain a level of material well-being that is commensurate with their professional activity.

The most direct way of making international comparisons is to look at how teachers' annual salaries measure up against per capita income in the relevant country. In the case of public schools, this is often taken as an indicator of the effort

being made by the State to compensate teachers adequately.

The level reached by this indicator in the mid-1990s shows that, on average, the effort being made by the Governments of the Latin American countries to provide an appropriate level of remuneration for teachers in public schools is comparable or even greater than the effort being made in developed countries. This is the case with regard to salaries in primary and secondary schools both for teachers who are just beginning their careers and for teachers with 15 years of experience. While in the countries belonging to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), annual starting salaries for teachers in public schools are equal, on average, to per capita GDP, the corresponding figure for 10 Latin American countries for which this information was available exceeds per capita GDP by 10%. For teachers with

TEACHERS' SALARIES: LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES VERSUS DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

The Governments of Latin American countries make just as much of an effort as the OECD countries do to provide more adequate salaries for teachers in public primary and secondary schools. Calculations of the ratio between average annual salaries and per capita GDP show that in 10 Latin American countries this indicator is in fact higher than the average for 10 selected OECD countries, including three of the largest (United States, France and Italy).

Obviously, the enormous differences between public schoolteachers' salaries in the two groups of countries (salaries are five times higher in the developed countries) reflects the difference between the two groups' per capita incomes. This suggests that any attempt to achieve a substantial improvement in public schoolteachers' pay levels in those countries where their salaries have lagged the farthest behind will run up against budgetary constraints because teachers' salaries represent such large percentages of total public expenditure on education and of GDP.

Nevertheless, in a number of countries teachers' real wages have increased more rapidly than average wages, thereby narrowing the gap between teachers and other public-sector professionals and technicians. This was facilitated by the more ample budgets that accompanied economic growth and by the higher priority assigned to expenditure on education as a component of total public social expenditure.

Improving teachers' standard of living and sending longer-term signals that will help to raise the status of the teaching profession should be high-priority objectives on government agendas in view of the impact that these factors have on quality and equity in education, both of which are central objectives of educational reform.

ANNUAL SALARIES OF PUBLIC SCHOOLTEACHERS RELATIVE TO PER CAPITA GDP

	Primary schoolteachers		Secondary schoolteachers	
	Starting pay	With 15 years of experience	Starting pay	With 15 years of experience
OECD countries				
Norway	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.9
Greece	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.3
Austria	0.9	1.2	1.0	1.3
Belgium	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.4
Spain	1.6	1.9	1.8	2.1
United States	0.9	1.2	0.9	1.2
France	0.9	1.3	1.1	1.4
Italy	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.2
Netherlands	1.1	1.4	1.2	1.8
Portugal	1.2	1.9	1.2	1.9
Sweden	0.8	1.1	1.0	1.2
Simple average	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.4
Average wages (in 1995 dollars)	20 752	27 356	22 017	29 620
Latin American countries				
Argentina	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.3
Bolivia	1.6	2.0	1.9	2.4
Brazil	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.5
Chile	1.0	1.1	0.9	1.1
Costa Rica	1.6	2.0	1.8	2.2
Ecuador	0.8	1.2	0.9	1.6
Mexico	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.8
Paraguay	1.2	1.4	1.5	2.3
Peru	1.5	1.6	2.0	2.2
Uruguay	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0
Simple average	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.7
Average wages (in 1995 dollars)	4 285	5 157	5 081	6 502

Sources: Countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD): *Education at a Glance*, OECD indicators, 1995, Paris, 1998; Latin American countries (except Argentina): ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

The average annual salary of teachers in Latin American countries corresponds to a 30-hour work week. Starting salaries and the salaries of teachers with 15 years of experience were estimated on the basis of average wages for teachers under 40 years of age and for teachers aged 40 and over, respectively. The annual salaries given for secondary schoolteachers in OECD countries are based on a simple average of the salaries of faculty in the basic and upper grades within that level. Wages are expressed in 1995 dollars; the figures have not been corrected for changes in exchange rate parities.

15 years of experience, annual salaries averaged 1.4 times the relevant per capita income level in both groups of countries (see box IV.10).

Relative wage differentials between these two groups are larger in public secondary schools, since average salaries are equivalent to 1.1 and 1.4 times per capita GDP in the OECD countries (for starting teachers and teachers with 15 years of experience, respectively), while the corresponding figures for the Latin American countries are 1.3 and 1.7. In general, the countries with lower per capita income levels tend to make a relatively greater effort to reward secondary schoolteachers; they also pay proportionally higher wages to more experienced teachers (see figures IV.8 and IV.9).

It is interesting to see, based on these new estimates for a representative group of the region's countries, that an inverse relationship exists between per capita income and the salaries of primary and secondary schoolteachers as a percentage of per capita income.¹⁶ Hence, generally speaking, lower-income countries are making a greater effort to provide adequate wages for public schoolteachers.¹⁷ The reason for this may be that only a small proportion of the employed workforce in these countries is as highly educated as teachers are.

The low income level of Latin American countries relative to the OECD countries accounts for the enormous wage differentials existing between teachers in the two groups of countries. Even though the Latin American countries make a relatively greater effort to pay their public schoolteachers well, their annual income is, on average, only one fifth as

high as the salaries earned by teachers in developed countries who have the same number of years of experience and who work the same number of hours. For example, in 1995 the starting salary for teachers employed in public grade schools in Latin America was US\$ 4,200 per year, compared to an average of US\$ 21,000 in the OECD countries (see box IV.10).

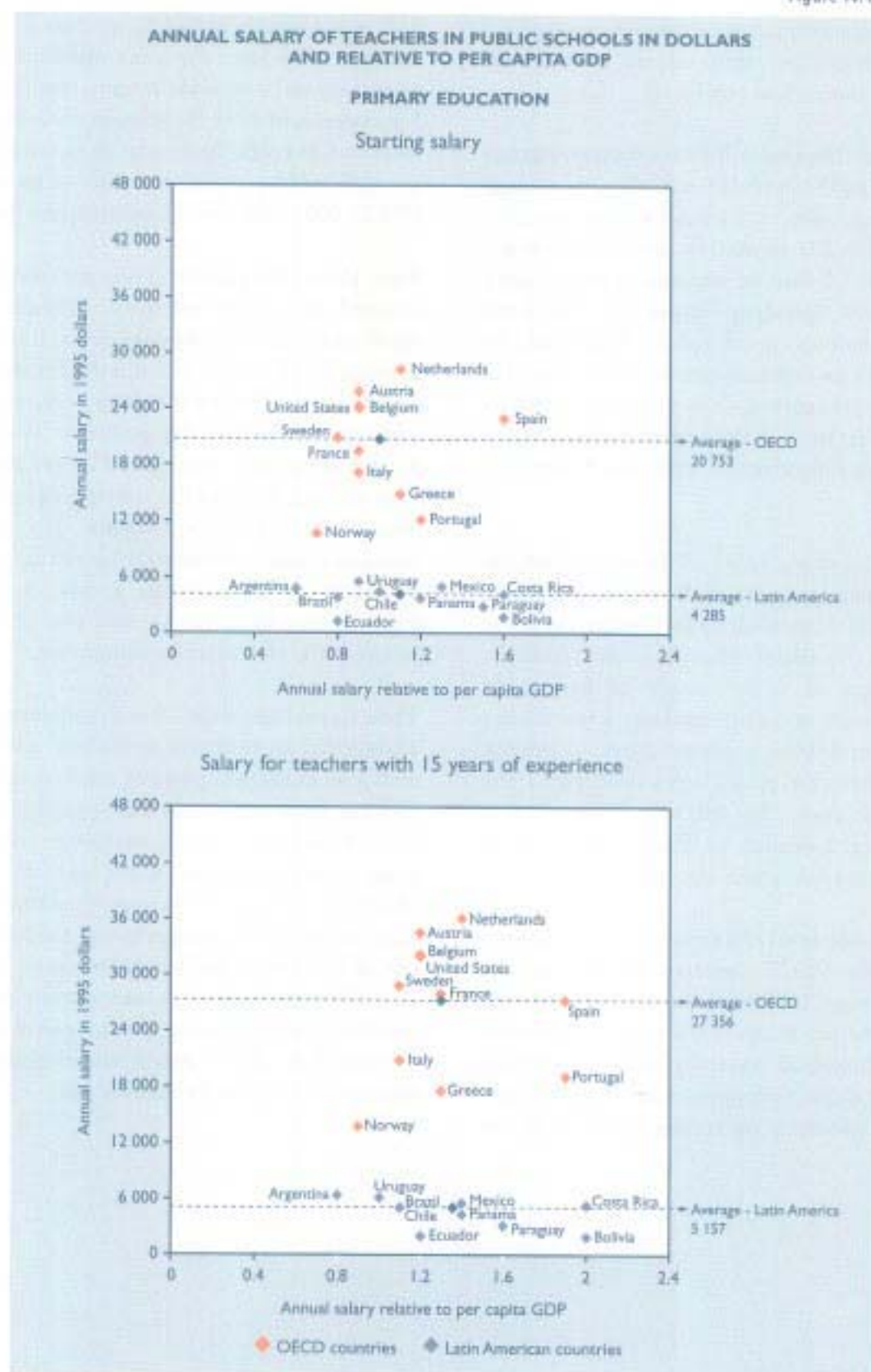
Some idea of the amount of resources that would be required in order to raise teachers' salaries significantly can be obtained from the following estimate for the group of Latin American countries under review. Doubling the starting salary of primary schoolteachers within a five-year period (which would involve raising their salaries by 15% per year) would close only one fourth of the wage gap separating them from their OECD counterparts. The additional resources needed to finance such a step are equivalent to almost three percentage points of GDP and represent two thirds of the total current education budget of the nine countries in question.

These figures make it clear that any attempt to achieve a substantial improvement in teachers' salaries in the short term would run up against serious obstacles, since their low wages are basically a consequence of the existence of low levels of per capita income, rather than of a gap between teachers' wages and other salaries. Moreover, any sizeable increase in teachers' salaries would entail drastic changes in the sectoral composition of government budgets, as well as an increase in tax collections. Such a measure is even less feasible now than it would have been at the start of the decade in view of the slower growth rate projected for the region's economies in the coming years.

¹⁶ Of the countries analysed, Argentina, Brazil and, to a lesser extent, Ecuador show the widest gap between primary schoolteachers' pay and per capita GDP.

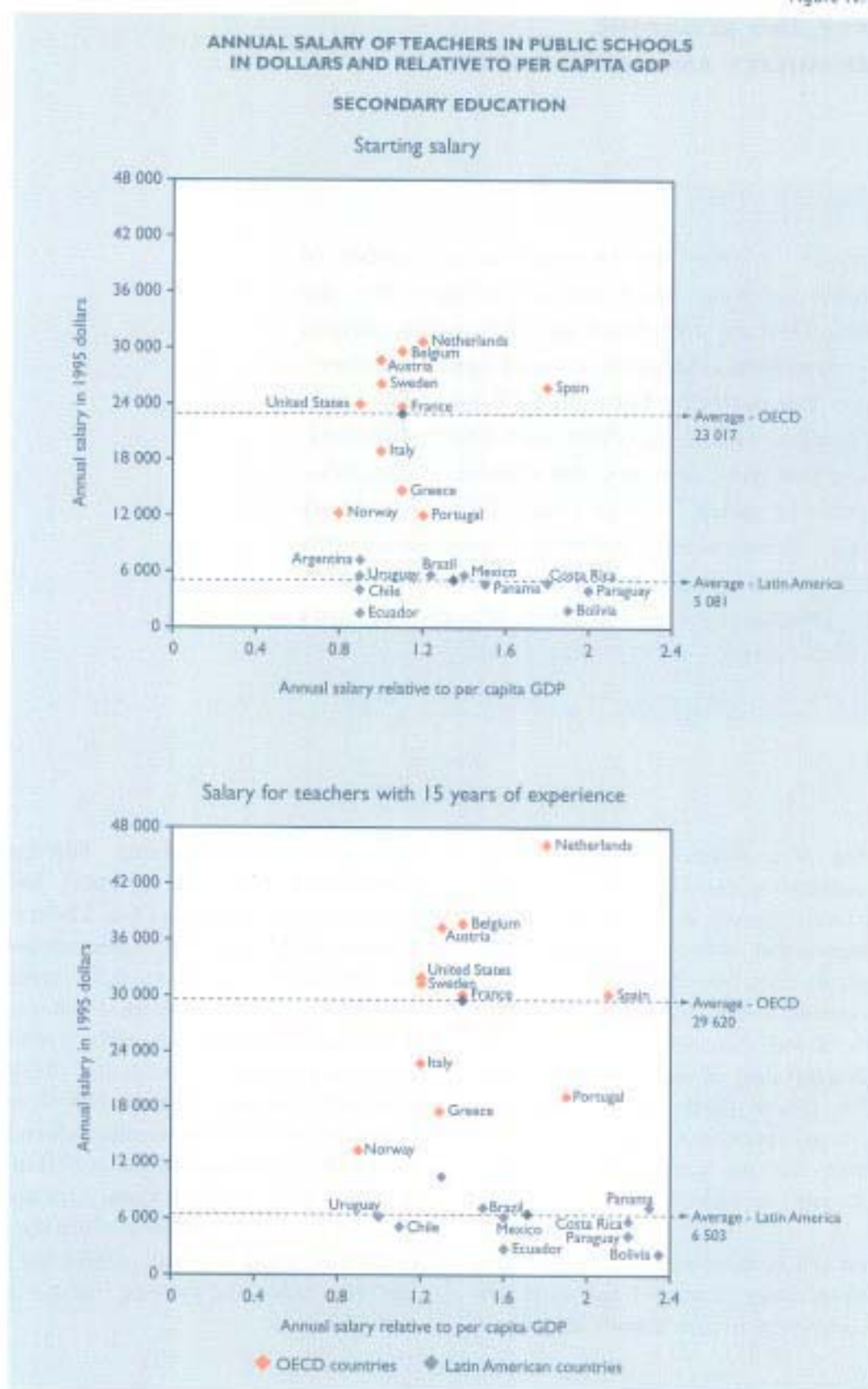
¹⁷ A recent study conducted for the OECD countries that covered four Latin American nations (Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Uruguay) also shows that in countries with a relatively lower per capita GDP a greater effort is being made to improve public schoolteachers' salaries (see OECD, 1998, p. 267).

Figure IV.11



Source: Countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD): *Education at a Glance*, OECD Indicators, 1998, Paris, 1998; Latin American countries (except Argentina): ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

Figure IV.12



Sources: Countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD): *Education at a Glance*, OECD indicators, 1998, Paris, 1998; Latin American countries (except Argentina): ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

3. POVERTY AND ECONOMIC VULNERABILITY AMONG TEACHERS

The pay raises obtained by teachers in a number of countries have not been large enough to close the gap between their salaries and those of other wage earners with the same level of education. In most cases, teachers' hourly wages are currently between 25% and 50% lower than those of other salaried professionals and technicians, which means that they are very low indeed. In countries with high poverty levels, a large percentage of teachers live in poor or economically vulnerable households; this hinders the provision of a better quality education, which is one of the priority objectives of the educational reforms now being undertaken.

The extent of economic vulnerability and poverty among teachers in the region is directly related to the level of poverty in each country.¹⁸ One source of concern is that, although the percentage of teachers living in poor households is low in the majority of countries, a very considerable number do live in households with extremely low income levels—less than the equivalent of two poverty lines per member. This places them in an extremely vulnerable economic position and means that their living conditions are not compatible with their professional activity (see table IV.10).

In fact, Bolivia and Ecuador are the only countries in which the percentage of primary and secondary schoolteachers who live in poor households is high-

near 30% in both countries. The figure ranges between 5% and 11% in Brazil, Mexico, and Paraguay, and is less than 2% in Chile, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay. The figures are much higher, however, in the case of households having such low incomes that they are in what can accurately be described as a highly vulnerable position. In four countries (Bolivia, Ecuador, Mexico, and Paraguay), between 35% and 40% of teachers currently live in economically vulnerable households. The percentage is close to 20% in Brazil and is around 10% in Chile, Costa Rica and Panama. Uruguay is the only country in which the percentage of teachers living in households having incomes of less than twice the poverty line per member is under 5%.

18 Of the nine countries analysed, four had a high or very high level of poverty as of 1997, with rates above 35% (Bolivia, Ecuador, Mexico and Paraguay), three had rates in an intermediate range of between 20% and 30% (Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica and Panama), and only one (Uruguay) had a relatively low poverty rate (under 10%).

Table IV.10

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF POVERTY ^{a/} AND ECONOMIC VULNERABILITY ^{b/} AMONG TEACHERS, PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICIANS, AND ALL WAGE EARNERS ^{c/}
(Percentages)

Country	Year	All teachers		Primary school ^{d/}				Secondary school				All professionals and technicians ^{e/}		All wage earners	
				Total		Public		Total		Public					
Bolivia (urban)	1992	31	36	33	36	34	37	28	37	31	38	11	22	37	30
	1997	29	38	30	37	32	38	28	39	30	42	13	22	42	29
Brazil	1990	18	20	22	23	6	11	12	18	38	26
	1996	11	19	16	23	17	23	4	11	4	12	6	14	27	26
Chile	1990	5	27	5	28	6	31	5	23	5	25	4	15	30	35
	1995	2	10	2	11	1	13	2	9	2	12	2	7	14	31
Costa Rica	1990	2	9	0	11	0	11	5	6	4	6	3	15	16	31
	1997	0	11	0	9	0	10	1	13	0	10	3	12	12	29
Ecuador (urban)	1990	31	46	36	43	35	43	23	50	22	55	20	32	50	30
	1997	30	42	31	43	28	47	30	41	30	46	17	32	45	32
Mexico	1989	12	45	11	48	15	34	11	29	38	33
	1996	6	37	6	39	5	33	12	26	44	31
Panama	1989	2	20	2	23	1	23	0	14	0	12	4	15	33	27
	1997	2	9	3	12	2	13	0	5	0	5	3	12	21	27
Paraguay (urban)	1990	33	36	44	33	45	44	23	39	19	41	7	30	32	36
	1996	7	41	8	50	9	52	6	30	4	42	6	21	28	37
Uruguay (urban)	1990	1	16	1	17	1	19	1	16	1	18	2	10	11	30
	1997	0	4	0	5	0	6	1	3	1	3	1	6	6	21

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

a/ Percentage of employed persons in each category who live in households whose per-member income level is below the per capita poverty line.

b/ Percentage of employed persons who live in households whose per-member income level is equivalent to between one and two poverty lines.

c/ Figures printed in bold correspond to the percentage of employed persons who live in economically vulnerable households.

d/ Includes preschool teachers.

e/ Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

As might be expected, this situation differs from that of other salaried professionals and technicians, especially in countries with higher levels of poverty (Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador and Paraguay). In all these countries, the percentage of professional and technical employees other than teachers who are living in economically vulnerable households is far lower than the percentage of teachers who live in such households (see figure IV.13).

Though a direct link cannot be established between the wage hikes obtained by teachers in a number of countries during the 1990s and the percentage of their households that are poor or economically vulnerable,¹⁹ a sharp reduction has been observed in the percentage of teachers who are in such a position in the countries where faculty salaries have risen the most. In Paraguay, the incidence of poverty among primary schoolteachers fell from 44% to 8%, while

¹⁹ This is due to the fact that a household's status in terms of poverty or economic vulnerability depends primarily on the incomes of its contributing members and on the portion of the family budget which that income represents.

the drop for secondary schoolteachers was from 23% to 6%, a contrast with the much smaller decline –from 32% to 28%– registered for wage earners as a whole. This is due to the fact that in households that include teachers, a very high percentage of total household income comes from their salaries²⁰ (see figure IV.13).

In the case of Chile, where teachers have also been given substantial pay raises since 1990, the percentage of teachers living in economically vulnerable households appears to have fallen considerably (from close to 30% in 1990 to around 10% in 1995), whereas the decrease for wage earners as a group has been less steep (from 65% to 45%)²¹ (see table IV.10).

The sizeable improvements achieved in a number of countries should not eclipse the fact that teachers' salaries are still insufficient and are lower than those of other professionals having the same level of education as teachers when they enter the labour market.

In view of the large share of the public education budget that is absorbed by teachers' wages and the percentage of GDP that faculty salaries represent in the various countries –together with the fact that GDP will probably grow more slowly in the coming years than it did in the first half of the decade– it would appear that there is now even less leeway than before for providing large increases in teachers' salaries within the near future in those countries where the gap is greatest. Nevertheless, the goal of raising the quality of education can hardly be achieved without an appreciable improvement in teachers' economic conditions, and this is especially true of public schoolteachers, who represent 70% of the total. Such an improvement is also necessary to reduce the inequality of the education obtained in public schools as compared to what is available to children attending private schools, which is a central goal of the educational reforms that have been launched in a number of the region's countries.

²⁰ In all the countries under review except Brazil and Uruguay, in two out of three households where one or more members of the household is a teacher, teachers' salaries represent between 85% and 95% of household income.

²¹ Estimates are based on the national employment surveys conducted by the National Institute of Statistics (INE) rather than on the national socio-economic surveys (CASEN surveys) used in Chile as a basis for national poverty estimates.

POVERTY AND VULNERABILITY

Figure IV.13

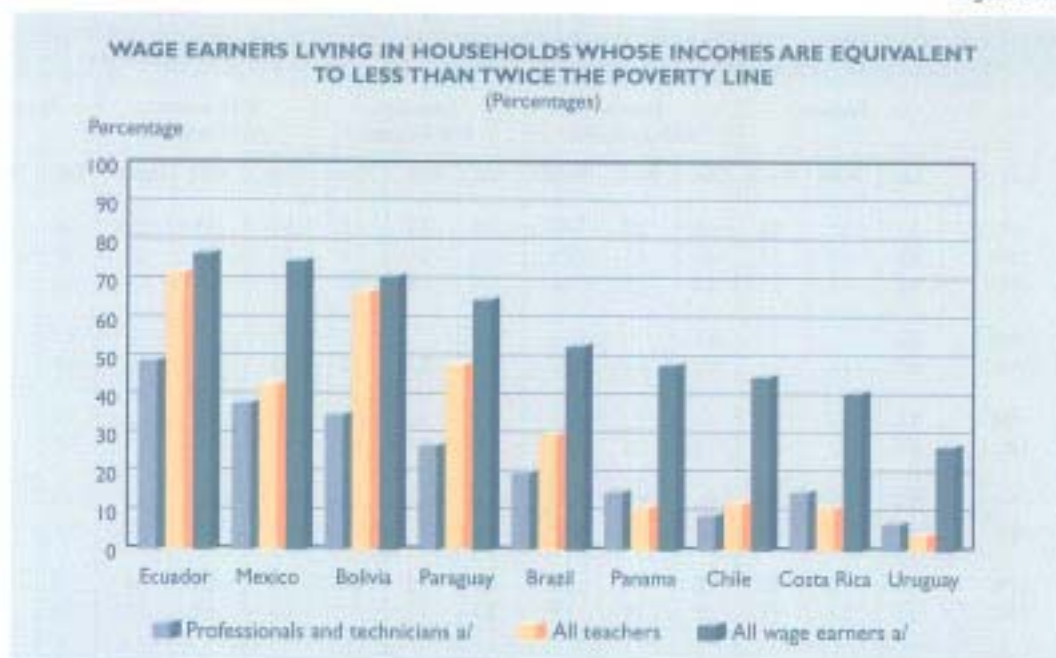
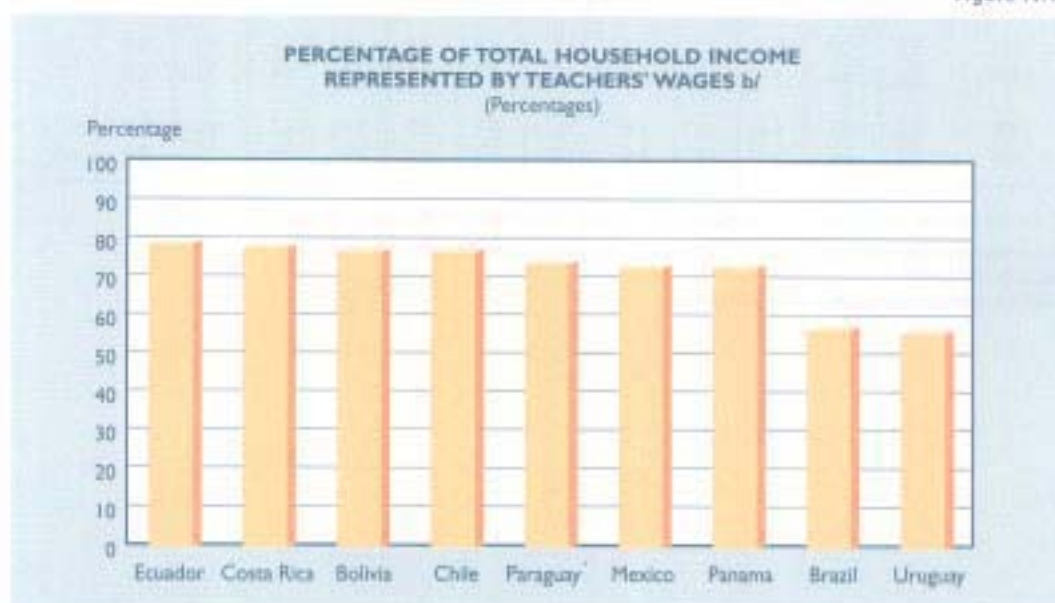


Figure IV.14



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

a/ Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

b/ Calculated on the basis of all households in which at least one member is a teacher.

Table IV.11

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): STANDARDIZED AVERAGE MONTHLY WAGE ^{a/} OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLTEACHERS, PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICIANS, AND ALL WAGE EARNERS

Country	Year	Teachers			Primary schoolteachers ^{b/}			Secondary schoolteachers			Professionals and technicians ^{c/}			All wage earners		
		Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
Bolivia	1992 ^{d/}	3.3	3.0	4.8	3.0	2.8	4.9	3.6	3.3	4.8	5.9	5.9	5.9	2.6	3.5	2.2
	1997 ^{d/}	4.8	4.7	5.2	4.3	4.2	4.9	5.4	5.4	5.3	8.3	7.6	8.6	3.7	4.9	3.3
	1997	4.8	4.7	5.5	4.4	4.3	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.5	8.1	7.6	8.4	3.6	4.9	3.3
Brazil	1990	5.3	4.3	7.7	7.5	3.7
	1996	6.7	6.5	7.6	5.3	5.4	5.2	9.0	8.3	12.2	9.5	11.7	8.3	4.7	7.8	4.0
Chile	1990	5.5	5.4	5.9	5.3	5.3	5.1	6.2	5.5	6.8	12.0	9.3	13.6	3.9	5.8	3.6
	1995	8.0	7.7	8.3	7.8	7.8	7.8	8.4	7.4	9.8	14.9	10.4	17.4	5.0	7.0	4.8
Costa Rica	1990	9.0	8.9	9.6	8.2	8.3	6.4	10.4	10.1	11.4	8.9	9.2	8.5	4.7	6.9	4.0
	1997	10.1	9.8	11.9	10.4	10.2	11.7	9.6	9.1	12.1	9.5	10.5	8.2	5.1	8.0	4.3
Ecuador ^{d/}	1990	3.6	3.5	4.8	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.3	4.3	4.8	3.4	2.8	4.4	2.8	3.3	2.5
	1997	3.7	3.6	4.0	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.4	3.2	4.1	5.6	4.7	6.3	3.1	4.0	2.9
Mexico	1989	5.9	5.7	6.5	5.7	3.2
	1996	5.3	5.1	5.7	4.6	3.2
Panama	1989	8.8	8.7	9.1	8.3	8.2	9.2	9.6	9.7	8.8	11.2	11.8	10.4	5.8	8.0	4.4
	1997	8.1	8.5	6.1	6.9	7.2	5.5	10.1	10.8	7.0	10.1	10.6	9.6	5.3	7.8	4.3
Paraguay ^{d/}	1990	2.9	2.7	3.1	2.2	2.1	2.3	3.5	3.2	4.2	5.0	5.1	4.8	2.3	3.7	2.1
	1996	5.0	4.8	5.4	4.1	3.9	4.6	6.2	6.1	6.4	6.6	7.1	6.2	3.2	5.1	2.7
Uruguay ^{d/}	1990	5.6	5.4	6.3	5.8	5.4	7.6	5.4	5.3	5.4	6.7	6.0	7.1	3.7	4.2	3.5
	1997	6.8	6.6	7.4	6.8	6.7	7.2	6.7	6.4	7.6	8.9	8.2	9.4	4.9	6.0	4.5

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

^{a/} Standardized average monthly wage expressed in multiples of the poverty line (based on a 44-hour work week).

^{b/} Includes preschool teachers.

^{c/} Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

^{d/} Urban areas.

Table IV.12

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): STANDARDIZED ^{a/} AVERAGE MONTHLY WAGE OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLTEACHERS, BY AGE GROUP															
Country	Year	Teachers under age 40							Teachers aged 40 and over						
		Total			Public		Private		Total			Public		Private	
		Total	Public	Private	Primary ^{b/}	Secondary	Primary ^{b/}	Secondary	Total	Public	Private	Primary ^{b/}	Secondary	Primary ^{b/}	Secondary
Bolivia	1992 ^{c/}	3.0	2.8	4.4	2.7	2.8	3.5	5.1	3.7	3.4	5.4	2.9	4.1	6.4	4.4
	1997 ^{c/}	4.0	3.8	5.3	3.6	4.1	4.9	5.4	5.6	5.7	5.0	4.9	6.7	4.9	5.2
	1997	4.1	3.9	5.5	3.8	4.2	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.3	4.9	6.7	5.4	5.3
Brazil	1990	4.6	7.4
	1996	6.0	5.7	6.9	4.9	7.5	4.8	11.4	8.2	7.8	11.9	6.5	9.4	8.0	15.4
Chile	1990	5.1	4.9	5.4	4.8	5.2	4.9	6.0	6.1	5.8	6.9	5.8	6.0	5.6	8.5
	1995	7.2	7.1	7.3	7.3	6.6	7.2	7.6	8.5	8.0	9.7	8.1	8.0	8.9	11.5
Costa Rica	1990	8.6	8.6	9.0	7.9	9.8	6.4	11.1	9.8	9.6	12.1	9.2	10.9	...	12.1
	1997	9.2	9.0	12.0	9.3	8.2	13.2	8.0	11.3	11.1	13.6	11.7	10.3	8.3	17.8
Ecuador ^{d/}	1990	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.1	2.5	3.1	2.5	4.2	4.1	4.8	3.0	6.1	3.0	4.8
	1997	3.0	2.7	3.6	2.8	2.5	3.1	4.1	4.5	4.4	5.4	5.0	3.6	6.7	3.9
Mexico	1989	5.7	6.4
	1996	5.0	5.8
Panama	1989	8.5	8.5	8.1	8.1	9.3	8.3	7.8	9.4	9.2	11.3	8.3	10.4	12.2	10.6
	1997	6.6	7.0	5.5	6.6	7.9	5.1	6.1	9.4	9.6	7.4	7.7	12.1	6.4	9.1
Paraguay ^{c/}	1990	2.8	2.4	3.3	2.1	2.8	2.2	4.6	3.1	3.5	2.5	1.8	3.9	2.5	2.4
	1996	4.7	4.5	5.1	4.0	5.4	4.4	6.1	5.6	5.5	5.8	3.8	7.6	5.0	6.8
Uruguay ^{c/}	1990	5.4	4.9	6.8	5.1	4.6	8.5	5.7	5.8	5.9	5.5	5.7	6.3	6.3	4.9
	1997	6.4	6.3	6.5	6.3	6.3	6.7	6.3	7.2	6.8	8.3	7.1	6.4	7.6	8.8

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

^{a/} Standardized average monthly wage expressed in multiples of the poverty line (based on a 44-hour work week).

^{b/} Includes preschool teachers.

^{c/} Urban areas.

Table IV.13

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN STANDARDIZED AVERAGE MONTHLY WAGES OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLTEACHERS, PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICIANS, AND ALL WAGE EARNERS ^{a/}
 Annual rate of variation during the period
 (Percentages)

Country	Year	Teachers			Primary schoolteachers ^{b/}			Secondary schoolteachers			Professionals and technicians ^{c/}			All wage earners		
		Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
Bolivia ^{d/}	1992-1997	7.8	9.4	1.6	7.5	8.4	0.0	8.4	10.4	2.0	7.1	5.2	7.8	7.3	7.0	8.4
Brazil	1990-1996	4.0	3.5	2.6	4.0	4.1
Chile	1990-1995	7.8	7.4	7.1	8.0	8.0	8.9	6.3	6.1	7.6	4.4	2.3	5.1	5.1	3.8	5.9
Costa Rica	1990-1997	1.7	1.4	3.1	3.5	3.0	9.0	-1.1	-1.5	0.9	0.9	1.9	-0.5	1.2	2.1	1.0
Ecuador ^{d/}	1990-1997	0.4	0.4	-2.6	3.8	3.8	3.8	-3.3	-4.1	-2.2	7.4	7.7	5.3	1.5	2.8	2.1
Mexico	1989-1996	-1.5	-1.6	-1.9	-3.0	0.0
Panama	1989-1997	-1.0	-0.3	-4.9	-2.3	-1.6	-6.2	0.6	1.4	-2.8	-1.3	-1.3	-1.0	-1.1	-0.3	-0.3
Paraguay ^{d/}	1990-1996	9.5	10.1	9.7	10.9	10.9	12.2	10.0	11.4	7.3	4.7	5.7	4.4	5.7	5.5	4.3
Uruguay ^{d/}	1990-1997	2.8	2.9	2.3	2.3	3.1	-0.8	3.1	2.7	5.0	4.1	4.6	4.1	4.1	5.2	1.7

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

^{a/} Standardized average monthly wage expressed in multiples of the poverty line (based on a 44-hour work week).

^{b/} Includes preschool teachers.

^{c/} Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

^{d/} Urban areas.

Table IV.14

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN STANDARDIZED AVERAGE MONTHLY WAGES OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLTEACHERS, BY AGE GROUP ^{a/}
 Annual rate of variation during the period
 (Percentages)

Country	Year	Teachers under age 40								Teachers aged 40 and over							
		Total			Public		Private			Total			Public		Private		
		Total	Public	Private	Primary ^{b/}	Secondary	Primary ^{b/}	Secondary	Total	Public	Private	Primary ^{b/}	Secondary	Primary ^{b/}	Secondary	Total	Private
Bolivia ^{c/}	1992-1997	5.9	6.3	3.8	5.9	7.9	7.0	1.1	8.6	10.9	-1.5	11.1	10.3	-5.2	3.4		
Brazil	1990-1996	4.5	1.7		
Chile	1990-1995	7.1	7.7	6.2	8.7	4.9	8.0	4.8	6.9	6.6	7.0	6.9	5.9	9.7	6.2		
Costa Rica	1990-1997	1.0	0.7	4.2	2.4	-2.5	10.9	-4.6	2.1	2.1	1.7	3.5	-0.8	...	5.7		
Ecuador ^{c/}	1990-1997	0.5	-1.0	3.1	-1.4	0.0	0.0	7.3	1.0	1.0	1.7	7.6	-7.3	12.2	-2.9		
Mexico	1989-1996	-1.9	-1.4		
Panama	1989-1997	-3.1	-2.4	-4.7	-2.5	-2.0	-5.9	-3.0	0.0	0.5	-5.2	-0.9	1.9	-7.7	-1.9		
Paraguay ^{c/}	1990-1996	9.0	11.0	7.5	11.3	11.6	12.2	4.8	10.4	7.8	15.1	13.3	11.8	12.2	19.0		
Uruguay ^{c/}	1990-1997	2.5	3.7	-0.6	3.1	4.6	-3.3	1.4	3.1	2.0	6.1	3.2	0.2	2.7	8.7		

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

^{a/} Standardized average monthly wage expressed in multiples of the poverty line (based on a 44-hour work week).

^{b/} Includes preschool teachers.

^{c/} Urban areas.

Table IV.15

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): COMPARISON OF STANDARDIZED AVERAGE MONTHLY WAGES OF DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF WAGE EARNERS ^{a/}								
Country	Year	Teachers / all wage earners	Teachers / professionals and technicians ^{b/}	Teachers in public schools / public-sector professionals and technicians ^{b/}	Teachers in public schools / teachers in private schools	Primary schoolteachers c/ secondary schoolteachers	Teachers under age 40 / teachers aged 40 and over	Teachers under age 40 in public schools / teachers aged 40 and over in public schools
Bolivia	1992 ^{d/}	1.27	0.56	0.51	0.63	0.83	0.81	0.82
	1997 ^{d/}	1.30	0.58	0.62	0.90	0.80	0.71	0.67
	1997	1.33	0.59	0.62	0.85	0.80	0.73	0.70
Brazil	1990	1.43	0.71	0.56	0.62	...
	1996	1.43	0.71	0.56	0.86	0.59	0.73	0.73
Chile	1990	1.41	0.46	0.58	0.92	0.85	0.84	0.84
	1995	1.60	0.54	0.74	0.93	0.93	0.85	0.89
Costa Rica	1990	1.91	1.01	0.97	0.93	0.79	0.88	0.90
	1997	1.98	1.06	0.93	0.82	1.08	0.81	0.81
Ecuador ^{d/}	1990	1.29	1.06	1.25	0.73	0.70	0.69	0.71
	1997	1.19	0.66	0.77	0.90	1.15	0.67	0.61
Mexico	1989	1.84	1.04	0.88	0.89	...
	1996	1.66	1.15	0.89	0.86	...
Panama	1989	1.52	0.79	0.74	0.96	0.86	0.90	0.92
	1997	1.53	0.80	0.80	1.39	0.68	0.70	0.73
Paraguay ^{d/}	1990	1.26	0.58	0.53	0.87	0.63	0.90	0.69
	1996	1.56	0.76	0.68	0.89	0.66	0.84	0.82
Uruguay ^{d/}	1990	1.51	0.84	0.90	0.86	1.07	0.93	0.83
	1997	1.39	0.76	0.80	0.89	1.01	0.89	0.93

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

a/ Ratio between the standardized average monthly wages of the occupations in question (based on a 44-hour work week).

b/ Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

c/ Includes preschool teachers.

d/ Urban areas.

Table IV.16

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE EFFECTIVE MONTHLY WAGES OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLTEACHERS, PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICIANS, AND ALL WAGE EARNERS^{a/}

Country	Year	Teachers			Primary schoolteachers ^{b/}			Secondary schoolteachers			Professionals and technicians ^{c/}			All wage earners			Teachers aged 46 and over		
		Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
Bolivia	1992 ^{d/}	1.7	1.5	2.9	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.5	2.5	1.7	1.5	2.9	2.4	2.9	2.2	1.5	1.3	2.5
	1997 ^{d/}	2.2	2.1	2.6	2.1	2.0	2.9	2.3	2.3	2.4	7.2	6.3	7.6	3.3	3.6	3.2	1.9	1.8	2.4
	1997	2.4	2.3	2.9	2.4	2.3	3.3	2.6	2.5	2.6	7.1	6.2	7.5	3.3	3.5	3.2	2.2	2.1	2.7
Brazil	1990	3.7	2.9	5.7	6.8	3.5	3.1
	1996	4.2	4.2	4.2	3.3	3.4	3.0	5.6	5.4	6.3	8.1	9.4	7.4	4.2	6.2	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.8
Chile	1990	4.4	4.2	4.8	4.2	4.2	4.4	4.8	4.3	5.3	12.1	8.9	14.1	4.1	5.5	3.9	4.1	3.8	4.4
	1995	6.7	6.3	7.5	6.6	6.3	7.1	7.2	6.1	8.7	15.4	10.1	18.2	5.3	6.7	5.1	6.0	5.6	6.3
Costa Rica	1990	7.2	7.3	6.6	7.0	7.1	5.2	7.6	7.7	7.3	9.3	9.6	8.8	4.8	7.0	4.1	6.8	7.0	5.6
	1997	7.9	8.2	5.2	8.0	8.3	5.1	7.7	8.1	12.1	9.2	10.4	7.7	5.2	7.9	4.4	7.5	7.8	5.5
Ecuador ^{d/}	1990	2.6	2.6	2.9	2.2	2.4	1.6	3.3	2.8	4.7	4.8	4.3	5.4	2.6	3.3	2.3	2.5	2.3	2.9
	1997	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.4	3.6	2.7	3.2	3.0	3.8	5.6	4.7	6.2	3.1	3.9	2.9	2.5	2.4	2.8
Mexico	1989	3.7	3.4	4.5	5.1	2.9	3.5
	1996	3.6	3.4	4.0	4.5	3.2	3.4
Panama	1989	7.3	7.4	6.5	6.8	6.9	6.1	8.2	8.4	7.0	10.6	10.9	10.2	5.4	7.3	4.2	6.9	7.1	5.0
	1997	6.6	7.1	4.3	5.7	6.1	3.8	8.2	8.8	5.2	9.8	10.2	9.5	5.1	7.3	4.2	5.4	5.8	4.1
Paraguay ^{d/}	1990	1.8	2.0	1.5	1.2	1.2	1.3	2.4	2.7	1.9	4.4	4.2	4.6	2.3	3.1	2.2	1.7	1.9	1.4
	1996	3.9	4.0	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.1	4.7	4.9	4.2	6.2	7.1	6.4	3.1	5.1	2.7	3.6	3.8	3.1
Uruguay ^{d/}	1990	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.4	3.3	4.1	3.3	3.4	3.1	6.9	5.5	7.7	3.6	3.9	3.5	3.0	2.8	3.4
	1997	4.5	4.2	5.1	4.4	4.3	4.6	4.5	4.1	5.6	8.4	7.4	9.1	4.5	5.4	4.3	3.6	3.3	4.5

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

a/ Average monthly wage, expressed in multiples of the poverty line, according to the number of hours worked per week.

b/ Includes preschool teachers.

c/ Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

d/ Urban areas.

Table IV.17

**LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN AVERAGE EFFECTIVE MONTHLY WAGES
OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLTEACHERS, PROFESSIONALS AND TECHNICIANS, AND ALL WAGE EARNERS ^{a/}**
Annual rate of variation during the period
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Teachers			Primary schoolteachers ^{b/}			Secondary schoolteachers			Professionals and technicians ^{c/}			All wage earners			Teachers aged 48 and over		
		Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
Bolivia ^{d/}	1992-1997	5.3	7.0	-2.2	4.3	7.4	14.1	6.2	8.9	-0.8	33.5	33.2	21.3	6.6	4.4	7.8	4.8	6.7	-0.8
Brazil	1990-1996	2.1	2.2	-0.3	3.0	3.1	3.0
Chile	1990-1995	8.8	8.4	9.3	9.5	8.4	10.0	8.4	7.2	10.4	4.9	2.6	5.2	5.3	4.0	5.5	7.9	8.1	7.4
Costa Rica	1990-1997	1.3	1.7	-3.3	1.9	2.3	-0.3	0.2	0.7	7.5	-0.2	1.2	-1.9	1.2	1.7	1.0	1.4	1.6	-0.3
Ecuador ^{d/}	1990-1997	3.5	3.5	1.4	6.4	6.0	7.8	-0.4	1.0	-3.0	2.2	1.3	2.0	2.5	2.4	3.4	0.0	0.6	-0.5
Mexico	1989-1996	-0.4	0.0	-1.7	-1.8	1.4	-0.4
Panama	1989-1997	-1.3	-0.5	-5.0	-2.1	-1.5	-5.7	0.0	0.6	-3.6	-1.0	-0.8	-0.9	-0.7	0.0	0.0	-3.0	-2.5	-2.5
Paraguay ^{d/}	1990-1996	13.8	12.2	15.2	18.4	19.0	15.6	11.9	10.4	14.1	5.9	9.1	5.7	5.1	8.7	3.5	13.3	12.2	14.2
Uruguay ^{d/}	1990-1997	4.1	3.1	5.5	3.8	3.9	1.7	4.5	2.7	8.8	2.9	4.3	2.4	3.2	4.8	3.0	2.6	2.4	4.1
																	4.2	3.6	7.1

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

a/ Average monthly wage, expressed in multiples of the poverty line, according to the number of hours worked per week.

b/ Includes preschool teachers.

c/ Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

d/ Urban areas.

Table IV.18

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): COMPARISON OF AVERAGE EFFECTIVE MONTHLY OF DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF EMPLOYED PERSONS ^{a/}							
Country	Year	Teachers / all wage earners	Teachers / all salaried professionals and technicians ^{b/}	Teachers in public schools / public-sector professionals and technicians ^{b/}	Teachers in public schools / teachers in private schools	Primary schoolteachers ^{c/} secondary schoolteachers	Teachers under age 40 / teachers aged 40 and over
Bolivia	1992 ^{d/}	0.71	1.00	1.00	0.52	1.00	0.79
	1997 ^{d/}	0.67	0.31	0.33	0.81	0.91	0.76
	1997	0.73	0.34	0.37	0.79	0.92	0.79
Brazil	1990	1.06	0.54	0.51	0.56
	1996	1.00	0.52	0.45	1.00	0.59	0.70
Chile	1990	1.07	0.36	0.47	0.88	0.88	0.85
	1995	1.26	0.44	0.62	0.84	0.92	0.82
Costa Rica	1990	1.50	0.77	0.76	1.11	0.92	0.82
	1997	1.52	0.86	0.79	1.58	1.04	0.88
Ecuador ^{d/}	1990	1.00	0.54	0.60	0.90	0.67	0.86
	1997	1.06	0.59	0.70	1.03	1.06	0.60
Mexico	1989	1.28	0.73	0.76	0.83
	1996	1.13	0.80	0.85	0.83
Panama	1989	1.35	0.69	0.68	1.14	0.83	0.84
	1997	1.29	0.67	0.70	1.65	0.70	0.70
Paraguay ^{d/}	1990	0.78	0.41	0.48	1.33	0.50	0.77
	1996	1.26	0.63	0.56	1.14	0.70	0.82
Uruguay ^{d/}	1990	0.94	0.49	0.62	0.97	1.03	0.77
	1997	1.00	0.54	0.57	0.82	0.98	0.69

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

a/ Ratio between the average monthly wages of the occupations in question (based on the number of hours worked per week).

b/ Does not include primary or secondary schoolteachers.

c/ Includes preschool teachers.

d/ Urban areas.



Child welfare towards the year 2000

ACHIEVEMENTS AND LIMITATIONS

INTRODUCTION

Childhood and adolescence are stages in the life cycle at which many of people's future opportunities for participating in society are determined. It is at these stages that people acquire not only the basic skills they will need to enter the production system and generate the earnings required for a reasonable standard of well-being, but also those they will have to possess if they are to participate in other areas of society, culture and politics. This is why investment in childhood must be regarded as a way of creating not only human capital, but social and cultural capital as well, something that is indispensable to the formation of values and the exercise of citizenship.

The importance of this learning process for people's development was given legal recognition in 1989 when the United Nations approved the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which enshrines a set of commitments relating to the survival, development and protection of children. This Convention provides an ethical, political and legal framework which engages the whole of society in the effort to provide the opportunities its members require for their personal and social development in the early stages of life.

Over and above the great ethical and preceptive value of the Convention, people's prospects for attaining a reasonable level of well-being hinge upon social factors that are central to or associated with child development, such as the nutritional status of children and their health in general, the basic sanitary conditions of the housing in which they live, the access they have to the educational system and what they achieve there, the economic capabilities of the household, the educational environment and the type of family they grow up in.

On a number of occasions the Governments of the region have demonstrated their will and commitment with regard to most of these factors, which are so crucial to child development. They did so first at the World Summit for Children (New York, 1990); then at a number of Latin American and regional conferences, including the second Meeting on Children and Social Policy in the Americas (Bogotá, 1994), where the Nariño Accord was signed; and subsequently at the third Ministerial Meeting on Children and Social Policy in the Americas (Santiago, Chile, 1996), which culminated in the signing of the Santiago Accord. This meeting provided an opportunity to examine and add to the goals for children previously agreed upon for the year 2000. The fourth meeting dealing with this initiative, at which progress towards these goals was evaluated, was held in Lima from 25 to 27 November 1998.

In the case of Latin America, the work of evaluating these goals and designing policies to achieve them is beset with obstacles that reflect the specific conditions existing in the region. The region has a higher degree of inequality than any other in the world, which means that when an intermediate level has been achieved by a country in respect of one of these goals, it often represents the net effect of two situations: that of a small population group that is far more

advanced and has attained levels characteristic of developed countries, and that of another huge segment of the population that is far from achieving this goal and whose indicators are much more similar to those of less developed countries.

In the light of this reality, which differs from one country to the next, it is vital that the issue of social equity be tackled explicitly when progress towards achieving the year 2000 goals is evaluated, not only because of its ethical, social and economic implications, but also because, in many cases, the progress achieved by society as a whole has not translated into a decline in this type of inequality in spite of the efforts and resources that have been invested in the attempt. Moreover, the commitment entered into by Heads of State at the World Summit for Children itself emphasizes the need to give priority attention to the most disadvantaged groups¹ so that the progress made towards these goals by society as a whole will help to reduce inequality among social strata, races and geographical areas,² and between the sexes.

In view of the undertakings and challenges assumed by the countries of Latin America, this chapter proposes to examine a set of social factors that are vital to the future opportunities and well-being of children and adolescents. The first part of the chapter contains an analysis of the progress made during the 1990s in achieving a number of quantitative goals set for the year 2000 in the Santiago Accord and an assessment of the likelihood of these goals being attained both for the population as a whole and for the different socio-economic strata. These goals relate to access to primary education for children and their academic performance and attainments, and to the availability of adequate sanitary conditions in terms of water and sewerage systems.

The second part looks at the progress, reverses and steady-state situations that can be identified over the course of this decade in relation to a number of factors which seriously limit the opportunities for children and adolescents to achieve a reasonable level of well-being and which in many cases constitute violations of their human rights. It includes analyses of the child labour situation, the position of adolescents who carry out domestic work in their homes instead of attending school and trends in relation to teenage motherhood.

These phenomena are important because they greatly increase the vulnerability of children and adolescents. One of the most serious implications of all these factors for people's well-being is the reduction in the educational capital embodied in those who find themselves in these situations, since they thereby forfeit a resource of great importance to their future in terms of both their careers and their position in society.

This examination has been based on information from the household surveys conducted by the countries in the region. These data make it possible to analyse each of the social aspects under consideration both in relation to society as a whole and on a disaggregated basis by geographical environment, socio-economic stratum and gender, where relevant.

¹ Paragraph 20(10) of the World Declaration on the Survival, Protection and Development of Children states that: "We will work for a global attack on poverty, which would have immediate benefits for children's welfare."

This analysis of the trends to be observed during the 1990s and their effects is intended to serve as a basis for the identification and quantification of particular problems and challenges connected with childhood and the evaluation of how the level of social equity may have changed in terms of differences in the opportunities available to people by virtue of their socio-economic stratum, gender or geographical environment. The ultimate purpose of this analysis is to contribute to the design of social policies that promote the well-being of children and their families.

Box V.1

THE LIMA ACCORD. ADVANCING TOWARDS THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION

The ministers and government representatives from the countries of the Americas that participated in the fourth Ministerial Meeting on Children and Social Policy in the Americas, held in Lima from 25 to 27 November 1998, agreed on a number of specific measures aimed at accelerating progress towards fulfilment of the goals established at the World Summit for Children and at subsequent ministerial meetings. These measures are set out in the Lima Accord, which was adopted unanimously by the government representatives of the participating countries, who expressed their determination to work to improve the living conditions of the continent's boys, girls, adolescents and women and to guarantee their right to health care, nutrition, education, all-round protection and equity.

As regards education, the Lima Accord provides for strategic measures to secure universal access to primary education, to reduce illiteracy, especially among women, to bring early stimulation techniques into general use, and to develop improved mechanisms for imparting the knowledge, skills and values necessary for a better life. These measures were decided upon after very close consideration of the main advances that the countries of the continent have achieved and the obstacles and challenges they have encountered in the field of education, and they reflect a worldwide realization that the programmes and policies concerned need to aim not only at improving the quality and universality of the educational process, but also at achieving equity together with the inclusion and participation of children, young people and the different sectors of society.

One of the substantive contributions made by the Lima Accord is the great importance it attaches to stimulation at an early age and to pre-school education. It recognizes that programmes for very young children and early education have a very significant effect on subsequent learning and socialization and that they help to reduce school drop-out rates and to improve the way people conduct themselves in society. In view of these considerations, the Accord includes activities aimed at creating and disseminating non-formal, cost-effective family and community-based programmes and innovative methodologies for increasing the knowledge and skills of parents and other providers in subject areas such as childcare and early stimulation. The Accord also envisages the establishment of alliances with the communications media with the aim of promoting a broad, coherent dissemination of messages and announcements on the subjects of health, nutrition, child development, the mother-child relationship, justice and the rights of children and of launching educational campaigns directed at parents, teachers, the community and others involved in caring for children that will emphasize the importance of early and pre-school education.

Another important contribution made by the Lima Accord in the field of education is the inclusion of measures to provide all individuals and families with greater access to the knowledge and skills necessary to lead a full and healthy life. This includes broadening school curricula to incorporate information on sexual and reproductive health, practices that reinforce self-esteem, interpersonal relationships and the prevention of sexual abuse. Again, the Accord stresses the need to promote greater participation by boys, girls, adolescents, parents and the entire community throughout the educational process.

A. EVALUATION OF PROGRESS IN MEETING THE YEAR 2000 GOALS FOR CHILDREN ESTABLISHED IN THE NARIÑO AND SANTIAGO ACCORDS

1. EQUITY IN EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT

Examination of the progress made between 1990 and 1997 as regards rates of access to and completion of primary education in the countries of Latin America reveals that, notwithstanding high overall enrolment rates at this stage of the educational cycle, by the year 2000 there will still be major shortfalls in rural areas. In urban areas, by contrast, the goal of achieving a fourth grade completion rate of more than 80% for all children and a primary education completion rate of more than 70% will have been met overall and, in many cases, comfortably exceeded.

1.1 ACHIEVEMENTS DURING THE 1990s AND PROGRESS TOWARDS MEETING THE OVERALL GOALS FOR THE YEAR 2000

In respect of education, the Santiago Accord,² which was signed in 1996 with the objective of revising and extending the goals set for the year 2000 at the World Summit for Children, emphasizes the need to increase the coverage, quality and efficiency of primary schooling. To this end, new quantitative goals have been set for wider access, lower repeater rates in the first two grades, completion of the first four grades and completion of the primary education cycle (see box V.6).

These goals refer to national averages and are consequently of an aggregate nature. They make no provision for differences in attainment that may correlate with different socio-economic strata or with residence in different areas within each country owing to the existence of inequalities or disadvantaged areas. The only exceptions are found in the case of universal access to primary education, as here the need to reduce disparities between urban and rural areas is underscored, as is the need for the goals to apply to boys and girls equally.

² The goals for children up to the year 2000 established by UNICEF are intended to give effect to the agreements signed at the World Summit for Children held in New York in 1990. Three subsequent meetings have provided the opportunity to follow up these goals. The first was held in Mexico in 1992, the second took place in Colombia in 1994 and led to the signing of the Nariño Accord, and the third was held in Santiago, Chile, in 1996 and gave rise to the Santiago Accord. The educational goals contained in the Santiago Accord are more demanding than those set forth in the Nariño Accord. Because of this and the fact that more up-to-date information has since become available, the evaluation contained in this chapter differs from the one that appeared in chapter V of the 1996 edition of the *Social Panorama*, which was based on the Nariño goals.

Bearing in mind the above, this first section will provide a general picture of the progress made in achieving quantitative educational goals, first overall and then broken down by urban and rural areas. The next two sections will look explicitly at the question of equity as viewed from two different standpoints: (i) the extent to which it will be possible to achieve the year 2000 goals in the different socio-economic strata, and (ii) apart from the question as to whether the relevant targets will be met by the end of the decade or not, the degree to which the differences among these strata have been maintained, have widened or have narrowed during the 1990s. Finally, gender-based differences and how they may have changed during the period under review will be examined.

a) Universal access to primary education

The Santiago Accord states that universal access to primary education should be achieved by the year 2000. This goal can be interpreted as meaning that all children must be enrolled in the first grade of primary education at the official starting age established by each country, or at an age close to it. In this case, access to primary education is deemed to be universal if the specific rate of school attendance two years after the official age for entering primary education is 98% or more³ (see box V.6).

An examination of the level of access to primary education and of the progress recorded during the 1990s shows that the goal of universal primary education will be achieved in both urban and rural areas in 7 of the 12 countries analysed: Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico, Panama, Uruguay and Venezuela. The figures available for Ecuador and Paraguay suggest that it is very unlikely that this

objective will be achieved in rural areas. In Brazil, Colombia and Honduras, if we look at the level of access to primary education and the way it has changed over the first seven years of the 1990s,⁴ we can predict that the target rate will not be achieved in either urban or rural areas.

Disparities in access to primary education between children in urban and rural areas will have diminished in 4 out of 12 countries in the region. It is, in fact, in the three countries whose rural areas were lagging the farthest behind in 1990 (Brazil, Honduras and Venezuela) that the most significant progress has been made in this respect; thus, by 1997 these countries had a narrower urban/rural gap than they had in 1990. In Panama, the increase in access to primary education has likewise been greater in rural areas than in urban ones (see table V.1).

The general picture as regards this goal is a positive one:

- (i) By the year 2000, universal access to primary education will have been achieved in the urban areas of the vast majority of the region's countries, and in many of them it will have been achieved in rural areas as well;
- (ii) In the countries that will not have reached this goal, the level of access to primary education will not fall far short of the target rate;
- (iii) In the countries that were the furthest behind –Brazil, Honduras and Venezuela– substantial improvements have been made in the 1990s, particularly in rural areas, which have narrowed the difference between them and urban areas.

Where this goal is concerned, the challenge is to see that children from extremely poor urban strata enter and remain in school, since in these strata family

³ This value is more appropriate as an indicator of universal access than an attendance rate of 100% because it is reasonable to expect that a small fraction of the relevant population group concerned will not be enrolled because of permanent disability or illness.

⁴ In this case, as in that of the other goals set forth in the Santiago Accord, the conclusions drawn here regarding the chances of their being achieved by the year 2000 are based on the projected end-decade values of the relevant indicators. These values have been obtained by extrapolating the trend recorded thus far during the decade.

**YEAR 2000 EDUCATIONAL GOALS FOR CHILDREN
SUMMARY OF ATTAINMENT IN 12 SELECTED COUNTRIES**

Overall performance, by urban and rural areas	Universal access to primary education	Halving of the repeater rate in the first two grades	Increase in the percentage of boys and girls completing the 4th grade to more than 80%	Increase in the percentage of boys and girls completing primary education to more than 70%
1. Goal met in urban and rural areas	Argentina a/ Chile Costa Rica Mexico Panama c/ Uruguay a/ Venezuela c/	Honduras c/	Argentina a/ Chile Costa Rica c/ Mexico Panama Uruguay a/ Venezuela c/	Argentina a/ Chile Costa Rica Mexico Panama c/ Uruguay a/
2. Goal met only in urban areas	Ecuador b/ Paraguay b/	Ecuador b/	Colombia Ecuador b/ Honduras c/ Paraguay b/	Colombia Ecuador b/ Honduras c/ Paraguay b/ Venezuela c/
3. Goal met in neither urban nor rural areas	Brazil c/ Colombia Honduras c/	Brazil Chile Colombia Costa Rica c/ Panama Uruguay a/ Venezuela c/	Brazil	Brazil

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of the tables included in this chapter.

a/ No information was available on rural areas, but the level and trend of the indicator for urban areas make it reasonable to expect that the goal will be met in rural ones as well.

b/ No information was available on rural areas.

c/ Urban-rural differences will have been reduced by the year 2000.

breakdown, the lower value placed on education and other adverse conditions in the households of origin make it difficult and expensive to improve on the levels of access already achieved.

The fact that rural areas are further away from achieving this goal than urban areas are also poses a major policy-making challenge, since the access-related difficulties experienced by boys and girls living in remote areas are often compounded by problems associated with their membership in minority ethnic groups. Given these circumstances, the universalization of education is hindered by the shortage of schools in general and, more specifically, of schools that address the particular cultural identities of the students.

b) Completion of the first four grade levels of primary education

The goal for the year 2000 of having at least 80% of all boys and girls complete fourth grade would not seem to be over-ambitious, given the high primary education enrolment rates revealed by the region's administrative records. However, this overall goal has to be interpreted from a national vantage point, meaning that it has to be reached in rural as well as urban areas and for all socio-economic strata. Obviously, geographic disparities and the disadvantageous position of lower-income groups make this objective a more ambitious one in those countries where the existing inequalities are the greatest.

As noted earlier, in addition to this goal, the Santiago Accord sets objectives for enhancing the

quality of primary education by improving content and using mechanisms to test for genuine learning. The Accord proposed the following goals in this connection: "a) Ensure the organization and use of measuring systems for quality learning. b) Increase levels of reading-comprehension and writing skills and numeracy for children completing 4th grade."

As early as 1990, more than 80% of children in the urban areas of 10 out of 12 countries in the region were completing the fourth grade level of the primary education system. In Brazil the percentage was much lower (64%) and in Honduras it likewise fell short of this goal, although it came closer to it.

By the year 2000, the objective will have been achieved in the urban and rural areas of 7 out of the 12 countries (Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico, Panama, Uruguay and Venezuela), although they will all still exhibit substantial differences between urban and rural areas as regards educational attainment (see box V.2).⁵ In most cases, rural areas lag behind by around 10 percentage points. Colombia, and possibly Honduras, will not achieve the target in rural areas if the trend seen between 1990 and 1996 continues until 2000. Brazil will continue to have the lowest rate of fourth grade completion, with values of around 75% in urban areas and 40% in rural ones (see table V.5).

It should be noted that one of the countries in which rural areas were the furthest behind (Honduras) has succeeded in reducing the urban-rural gap substantially during the 1990s while at the same time improving educational attainment in urban areas.

The educational policy challenge with regard to this goal is twofold. First, since by the age at which the first four grades should have been completed clear-cut disparities have already appeared both among geographical areas and among different socio-

economic strata, efforts should be directed not only at increasing the proportion of children who complete this basic period, but also at raising the quality of education and making it accessible to students from all strata. As higher rates of primary education coverage are achieved, it becomes more urgent to ensure that teaching content is of the requisite standard, to improve education quality measurement systems and to focus on reducing drop-out rates.

Second, where rural areas and lower-income strata still lag behind in respect of basic education coverage, efforts should be made both to achieve greater equality of access and to improve the quality of education. As regards the first of these objectives, the establishment of supplementary nutritional and health care programmes or, where such programmes are already in place, their evaluation and monitoring, must be an important component of policies to provide greater equality of opportunity, given the positive effect they have on learning by counteracting deficiencies in the home and improving school stay-on rates.

c) Completion of primary education

By the year 2000, at least 70% of boys and girls ought to be completing their primary education. To evaluate this goal an average duration of six years was taken, although in some countries primary schooling lasts for seven, eight or even nine years. Although this aspect is not mentioned in the Santiago Accord, the criterion referred to was considered to be the most appropriate one for cross-country comparisons. At present, furthermore, the duration of primary schooling is six years in 7 of the 12 countries examined.⁶

It should be noted that the tendency is for the number of years comprising each stage of the

⁵ Although in the case of Mexico it has not been possible to calculate the indicator for fourth grade completion owing to the methodology used in the survey on the educational characteristics of the population, the assumption is that the goal will be achieved, since in 1994 the proportion of children completing their primary education (six years of schooling) already stood at over 80%.

⁶ In Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Venezuela, the primary education segment takes more than six years to complete.

educational system to be completed, after which a segment of the student body leaves school. Consequently, if free compulsory primary education lasts for more than six years, this will tend to translate into a higher proportion of children with more years of schooling.

The goal of having 70% of children completing six years of schooling has already been attained in the urban areas of 11 of the 12 countries under review. Brazil alone still falls well below this target. As the decade has progressed, completion rates have in most cases been maintained or have continued to improve. Between 1990 and 1997 the percentage of children completing six years of education in Brazil rose substantially, from 44% to 56% in urban areas and from 15% to 34% in rural ones⁷ (see table V.7).

Overall, the goal will be easily met in six countries (Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico, Panama and Uruguay). Another five (Colombia, Ecuador, Honduras, Paraguay and Venezuela) will have achieved it only in urban areas, while Brazil will fall short of the goal.

No information has been forthcoming about rural areas in Argentina, Ecuador, Paraguay and Uruguay. The low percentage of people living in the countryside in Argentina and Uruguay and the high level of primary school completion in the urban areas of those countries suggest that the goal will also be achieved in these countries' rural areas as well. The same conditions do not exist in Ecuador and Paraguay, however, and this assumption can therefore not be made in their case.

An appreciable reduction in the urban/rural gap in terms of the percentage of children completing six years of primary education has occurred in only three countries (Panama, Honduras and Venezuela). Consequently, as the decade draws to a close the inequalities associated with the disadvantaged educational position of rural areas will still be in evidence. Of the countries examined, Brazil, Honduras and, to a lesser extent, Venezuela, are the ones where these disparities will be greatest.

7 School attendance drops off sharply after the first four-year segment of Brazil's primary education system, which lasts eight years, and after the first five-year segment of Colombia's system, which lasts nine years. This is part of the reason why the indicator measuring completion of six years of primary education is so low in these two countries.

1.2 PROGRESS TOWARDS THE GOAL OF IMPROVING THE INTERNAL EFFICIENCY OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

In view of the high private and social costs of grade repetition and the adverse effect it has in terms of drop-out rates, it is a matter of concern that the level of internal efficiency in basic education will still be low in many countries of the region and that most of them will not have succeeded in halving the repeater rate in the first two grades of primary education.

The Santiago Accord set a goal for the efficiency of education systems in the early years of primary schooling. Consideration was given to the high repeater rates of the first two grades seen in many countries of the region in 1990, the steep private and social costs that this entailed, and the increased drop-out rates that often resulted when pupils fell behind in their schooling and had to repeat a grade.⁸

The goal set for the year 2000 was to halve the repeater rate recorded in each country at the beginning of the 1990s. However the trend existing up to around 1997, if projected to the year 2000, suggests that this objective was a very ambitious one. By contrast with the situation found to exist when the less demanding goal set in the Nariño Accord was evaluated (reducing the repeater rate by just 10%), in this case only two out of nine countries will succeed in achieving the required 50% reduction in the indicator of educational under-attainment used to measure progress towards this objective: Honduras, which will achieve it in both urban and rural areas, and Ecuador, which will do so in urban areas.

Although some countries (Brazil, Costa Rica and Honduras) have managed to lower their educational

under-attainment rates in the brief space of just six or seven years, in all the countries that were analysed except Costa Rica, there are still very pronounced differences between urban and rural areas, and this is likely to still be the case in the year 2000.

Furthermore, there are striking cross-country disparities. In Chile, Ecuador, Panama, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela, educational under-attainment rates range between 10% and 15%, while in Costa Rica, Honduras and Colombia these rates are as high as 20%-25%. In Brazil, the national average is close to 32% (see table V.3).

The trends observed over the decade reveal situations that differ greatly across countries and between urban and rural areas. These must be interpreted with caution, however. The repeater rate in the first two grades is determined, among other factors, by the systems and practices used to pass and fail students, which vary greatly from one country to the next. Thus, a decline in educational under-attainment rates may be due not to increased educational efficiency, but to the introduction of an automatic promotion system, or a less rigorous evaluation of pupil performance.⁹

⁸ Repetition also increases total costs because it makes it difficult to achieve the objectives of certain social programmes, such as school lunch programmes, which have a high per-student cost.

⁹ It should also be noted that repeater rates have been measured here indirectly by looking at the figures for under-attainment. This indicator is chiefly determined by repeater rates but it is also influenced to some extent by the age of entry into the first grade. An increase in the percentage of boys and girls entering primary education at the officially stipulated age will translate into a reduction in under-attainment rates two years later.

If we examine progress towards the educational goals set out in the Nariño and Santiago Accords from the standpoint of equity, we find that by the end of the 1990s there will have been a slight narrowing of the gaps among the different urban socio-economic strata as regards access, efficiency and primary education completion. Nonetheless, children from the poorest 25% of all households will still be at a considerable disadvantage in relation to the average and to children from higher-income households. It is the countries that now have the highest levels of inequality in income distribution that will still be unable, at the turn of the century, to provide all children with the minimum educational capital prescribed by these goals.

1.3 EQUITY IN THE ATTAINMENT OF YEAR 2000 EDUCATIONAL GOALS

Two different approaches were used to analyse the relationship between equity and these educational goals. The first approach was to determine the extent to which children belonging to households from different socio-economic strata would attain these goals. This was done by comparing the level of the indicators for each socio-economic stratum with the level set for the proposed goal. Thus, when this method is used, the emphasis is on achievement of the goal in each of the socio-economic strata.

The second approach highlights the differences among socio-economic strata and the way these differences have changed in the course of the 1990s. Equity is considered to have improved if inter-strata gaps narrow during the period under examination, regardless of whether or not the proposed goals have been attained.

In both cases, the analysis was confined to the urban areas of the countries in question and was carried out by comparing the levels of the relevant indicators in four different socio-economic strata. These strata correspond to the four quartiles of the per capita household income distribution structure.¹⁰ The main results of this analysis in relation to each of the educational goals referred to in the previous section are set out below. These findings are summarized in boxes V.3 and V.4.

a) Equity in access to primary education

This goal will be achieved for all socio-economic strata or quartiles in the urban areas of 8 of the 12 countries. The only cases in which it will not be achieved are those of the lowest-income quartile in the urban areas of Brazil, Colombia, Honduras and

¹⁰ The advantages of using per capita household income quartiles to analyse equity and how it has changed over time are discussed in the 1994 edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*.

EQUITY IN THE ACHIEVEMENT OF YEAR 2000 EDUCATIONAL GOALS FOR CHILDREN, BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STRATUM URBAN AREAS				
Year 2000 goal expected to be achieved in:	Universal access to primary education	Halving of the repeater rate in the first two grades	Increase in the percentage of boys and girls completing 4th grade to more than 80%	Increase in the percentage of boys and girls completing primary education to more than 70%
1. All quartiles a/	Argentina Chile Costa Rica Ecuador Mexico Panama Uruguay Venezuela		Argentina Chile Costa Rica Ecuador Honduras Mexico Panama Paraguay Uruguay Venezuela	Argentina Chile Costa Rica Ecuador Mexico Panama Paraguay Uruguay Venezuela
2. All quartiles except the lowest	Brazil Colombia Honduras Paraguay b/	Brazil Ecuador Honduras	Brazil Colombia	Colombia Honduras
3. Only one or both of the highest quartiles		Colombia Uruguay Chile Venezuela		Brazil
4. None		Costa Rica Panama		

Sources: ECLAC, on the basis of the tables included in this chapter.

a/ Refers to groups of households representing 25% of the total, classified on the basis of income distribution and ranked by income per capita; quartile 1 consists of the 25% of households with the lowest incomes.

b/ Estimate based on data for 1995.

Paraguay, and even in these four cases around 90% of children from the poorest stratum will have access to primary education.¹¹ It may therefore be affirmed, solely with reference to opportunities for entering the first grade, that there are no marked inequalities between children in urban areas, and that such inequalities as there are will continue to narrow as the year 2000 approaches (see table V.2).

This shows that when schooling commences, the differences between socio-economic strata do not have as much to do with the opportunity to start

school as they do with inequalities in school readiness, access to pre-school education, age of entry into primary education and other conditions affecting school performance which are influenced by the socio-economic stratum of origin.

It should be noted that of the 12 countries analysed, the four in which the poorest stratum has the least access are also the ones that have the highest degree of inequality in urban income distribution and where the poorest 25% have the smallest share of total income (ECLAC, 1998, Statistical appendix, table 23).

¹¹ Access to primary education is deemed to be universal when 98% or more of all children are attending school two years after the official age for beginning primary education.

Since the level of access to primary education in urban areas was already very high for all socio-economic strata at the outset, the differences between them did not show any very pronounced changes during the period 1990-1997.

b) Equity in relation to under-attainment in the first two grades of primary education

The goal set for repeater rates is a relative one, the comparison being with the 1990 level, and it does not require similar levels of attainment, as the other three goals do. The goal is a 50% reduction in the repeater rate for the first two grades by the year 2000, which means that there is a different objective for each socio-economic stratum.

An examination of trends in the under-attainment indicator used to determine whether or not this goal is being met reveals that none of the nine countries under consideration will have succeeded in halving the under-attainment rate in the lowest-income quartile. In Brazil, Ecuador and Honduras this objective will be achieved in the upper three quartiles; in Colombia, Uruguay, Chile and Venezuela only in the top two; and in Costa Rica and Panama it will not be achieved in any of the four urban quartiles.

An analysis of the trends in inter-quartile differentials in under-attainment rates in urban areas during the period 1990-1997 indicates that the countries which had higher repeater rates in 1990 achieved larger reductions in the differentials between socio-economic strata (Brazil, Costa Rica, Honduras). In Chile, Colombia and Ecuador, meanwhile, where repeater rates were lower, the gaps between quartiles narrowed to a lesser extent than they did in the first three countries mentioned. In the countries with the lowest repeater rates (Panama, Uruguay and Venezuela), the differences among strata remained the same and there were thus no improvements in this aspect of equity (see table V.4).

A similar decline in the under-attainment rates for different countries can mean very different things, so

such changes need to be interpreted with caution. As a general rule, however, it may be said that the differences between countries have narrowed during the decade since, on average, the countries with higher under-attainment rates have managed to make larger improvements. The differences are still striking, however.

c) Equity in relation to completion of the first four grades of primary education

In 10 out of 12 Latin American countries, 80% of boys and girls from all socio-economic strata will complete the fourth grade. Only in the lowest-income quartile in the urban areas of Brazil and Colombia will this minimum goal not be met. However, although the other countries will meet the objective, in many cases a high proportion of children from the poorest quartile will still not complete four years of primary education, and this is a very low "threshold" compared with the level of education required to escape from poverty, which is somewhere between 10 and 12 years of schooling, depending on the country (ECLAC, 1994).

Projections of the trend seen in the 1990s suggest that by the year 2000 around 40% of children from the first quartile in the urban areas of Brazil will not be completing the fourth grade; nor will 30% of such children in Colombia, 20% in Paraguay, 15% in Costa Rica, Ecuador and Honduras, 10% in Venezuela and 5% in Chile, Panama and Uruguay. This means that for all the progress made in expanding primary education coverage in the region, conditions tending to perpetuate extreme poverty and inequality of distribution will persist, and the current differences between countries will probably remain (see table V.6).

Inequality among children from different socio-economic strata, measured in terms of how many of those children reach the fourth grade, has diminished in Brazil, Honduras, Uruguay and, to a lesser extent, Chile and Ecuador. In Panama, Uruguay and Costa Rica the greatest relative progress in this area has been among children from the lowest-income

Box V.4

**EQUITY IN THE ACHIEVEMENT OF YEAR 2000 EDUCATIONAL GOALS FOR CHILDREN,
BY DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SOCIO-ECONOMIC STRATA, URBAN AREAS**

During the 1990s and up to 2000:	Repeater rate in first two grades	Percentage of children completing 4th grade	Percentage of children completing primary education
1. Quartiles 1 and 2 improve more or worsens less than the total a/	Brazil Costa Rica Honduras	Brazil Chile Venezuela	Panama
2. Quartile 1 improves more or worsens less than the total	Chile Colombia Panama	Costa Rica Panama Uruguay	Colombia Costa Rica Uruguay
3. Quartile 2 improves more or worsens less than the total	Ecuador	Colombia Ecuador Honduras	Chile Ecuador Honduras Mexico Venezuela
4. Quartile 1 and/or quartile 2 improve(s) less or worsen(s) more than the total	Uruguay Venezuela	Paraguay	Argentina Brazil Paraguay

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of the tables included in this chapter.

a/ These quartiles will make proportionately more progress than the population as a whole or will lose less ground, which in either case signals a lessening of inequality across socio-economic strata.

quartile. In relation to this aspect of inequity, it was again found that the countries in the region with the least inequality of distribution are the ones that had the highest rates of fourth grade completion at the beginning of the 1990s and that, in relative terms, have achieved the greatest improvements in the educational situation of children from the poorest stratum during the 1990s. This provides further evidence of the link between equity in the distribution of educational capital and the degree of inequality in income distribution (ECLAC, 1998, chapter I).

**d) Equity in relation to completion
of primary education**

In 9 of the 12 countries, the goal of ensuring that at least 70% of boys and girls complete their primary education will be met in all quartiles. As in the case

of the previous objective, Brazil, Colombia and Honduras will continue to lag some way behind. In the urban areas of Colombia and Honduras, only the poorest 25% will not reach this minimum level, while in Brazil's cities the poorest 50% of households will fall short of it.

Colombia and Panama have made the greatest progress in reducing the disparities among urban socio-economic strata, while in Brazil, Colombia, Honduras and Paraguay the rate of primary education completion will continue to be relatively low in urban areas generally and among children living in the poorest 25% of households in particular (see table V.8).

GENDER-RELATED DIFFERENCES IN EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND TRENDS IN THE 1990s

During the 1990s, gender-based differentials in educational attainment at the primary education stage increased, as girls further improved their relative position. In seven out of nine countries analysed, educational under-attainment declined more among girls, relatively speaking, than among boys; in 9 out of 10 countries the proportion of girls to boys completing the fourth grade of basic education remained steady or increased. The same thing occurred in 8 out of 12 countries in relation to the percentage of children completing a minimum of six years of primary education (see tables V.9, V.10 and V.11).

As these gender differences have become more pronounced, the amount of time that girls spend in the school system has lengthened and their educational levels have consequently risen. This has paved the way for an increase in female participation in the labour market.

GENDER-BASED DIFFERENCES IN ACHIEVEMENT OF THE YEAR 2000 EDUCATIONAL GOALS FOR CHILDREN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS

Trend in differences between males and females during the 1990s and up to 2000	Repeater rate in first two grades	Percentage of children completing 4th grade	Percentage of children completing primary education
1. Female-biased differentials will diminish	Costa Rica	Venezuela	Colombia a/ Ecuador a/ Honduras Uruguay a/
2. Female-biased differentials will be maintained	Chile	Chile Ecuador a/ Honduras Panama Paraguay a/ Uruguay a/	Chile Costa Rica Panama
3. Female-biased differentials will widen	Brazil Colombia a/ Ecuador a/ Honduras Panama Uruguay a/ Venezuela	Brazil Colombia a/ Costa Rica	Argentina a/ Brazil Mexico Paraguay a/ Venezuela

Sources: ECLAC, on the basis of the tables included in this chapter.

a/ Urban areas only.

INDICATORS USED TO EVALUATE FULFILMENT OF THE YEAR 2000 GOALS AGREED UPON IN THE NARIÑO AND SANTIAGO ACCORDS

The Santiago Accord, which set the year 2000 as the deadline for attaining specified objectives of benefit to children, was signed at the third Ministerial Meeting on Children and Social Policy in the Americas (Santiago, Chile, August 1996). These objectives were translated into a set of goals in the spheres of health and nutrition, water and sanitation, education, protection for boys and girls, and gender equity. Mechanisms were also proposed for monitoring and evaluating progress towards these goals. The purpose of this Accord was to supplement and amend some of the goals set out in the Nariño Accord, which was signed at the second Meeting on Children and Social Policy in the Americas, held in Bogotá in 1994.

The goals examined in this chapter are outlined below. These goals are ones that lend themselves to a quantitative evaluation based on information collected in the household surveys that are conducted by the countries of the region on a regular basis.

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| Goal | : Provide universal access to primary education, reducing disparities between rural and urban areas. |
| Indicator | : Percentage of children aged eight or nine attending school two years after the official starting age for primary education (depending on whether this age is six or seven in the country concerned). |
| Goal | : Increase the percentage of boys and girls that complete primary education to more than 70%. |
| Indicator | : Percentage of children aged 14 or 15 (depending on the official starting age for primary education in the country concerned) who have completed at least six years of schooling, whether or not they are currently attending school. |
| Goal | : Increase the percentage of boys and girls who complete fourth grade to more than 80%. |
| Indicator | : Percentage of children aged 12 or 13 (depending on the official starting age for primary education in the country concerned) who have completed at least four years of schooling, whether or not they are currently attending school. |
| Goal | : Reduce repeater rates to half in the first two grades of primary school. |
| Indicator | : Percentage of children aged 9 or 10 (depending on the official starting age for primary education in the country concerned) who are attending school and who have completed fewer than two years of schooling by that age. |
| Goal | : Reduce the proportion of the population that has no drinking water supply by 25%. |
| Indicator | : In urban areas , the level of this indicator was obtained by subtracting the percentage of the population living in housing with an on-site supply of drinking water (whether by public or private distributors and whether the connection is inside the dwelling or outside it, so long as it is on the premises) from the total. In rural areas the figure was calculated by subtracting the percentage of the population living in housing with a public or private supply of drinking water or with a supply of water from a well of adequate depth and quality that is piped into the home or elsewhere on the premises. |
| Goal | : Reduce the proportion of the population without access to basic sanitation by 17%. |
| Indicator | : In urban areas , the level of this indicator was obtained by subtracting the percentage of the population living in households connected to a sewerage system from the total. In rural areas the figure was calculated by subtracting the percentage of the population living in households connected to a sewerage system or to a septic tank. |

Box V.7

ASSESSMENT OF PROGRESS TOWARDS FULFILMENT OF THE GOAL OF COMPLETION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION BASED ON ITS ACTUAL DURATION

The primary education cycle lasts longer in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Venezuela than the six years taken as the standard in evaluating the goal for completion of this stage of education. When the actual duration of primary schooling in each of these countries is considered, the conclusions are as follows:

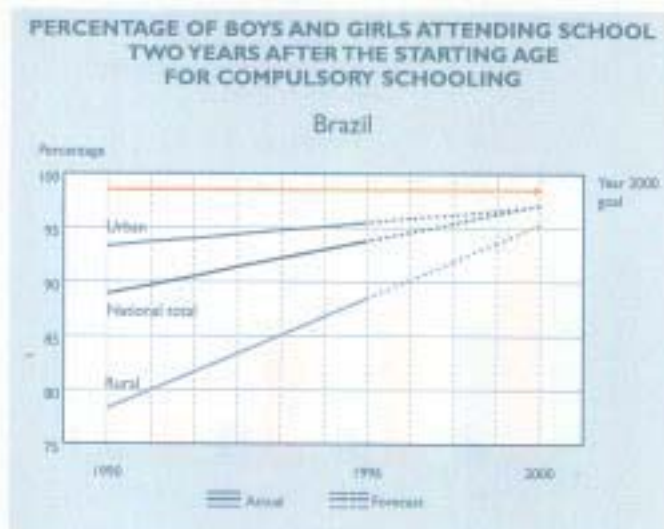
Country ^{a/}	Target to be met by year 2000	
	Urban areas	Rural areas
Argentina (7)	Yes	Yes
Brazil (3)	No	No
Chile (8)	Yes	Yes
Colombia (9)	No	No
Venezuela (9)	No	No

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of the tables included in this chapter.

a/ The duration (in years) of the primary education cycle for each of the countries is shown in brackets.

PROVIDE UNIVERSAL ACCESS TO PRIMARY EDUCATION

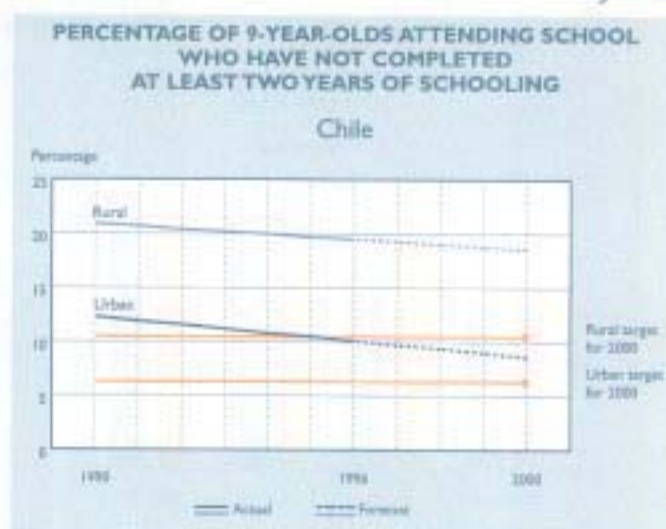
Figure V.1



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

REDUCE REPEATER RATES TO HALF IN THE FIRST TWO GRADES

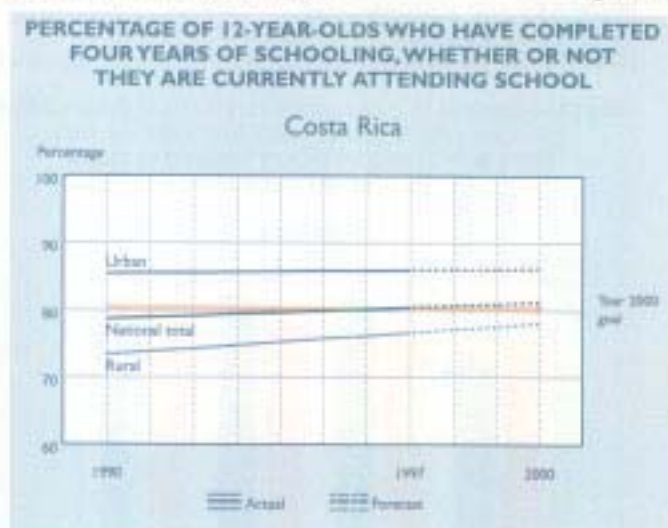
Figure V.2



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

INCREASE THE PERCENTAGE OF MINORS COMPLETING 4TH GRADE TO OVER 80%

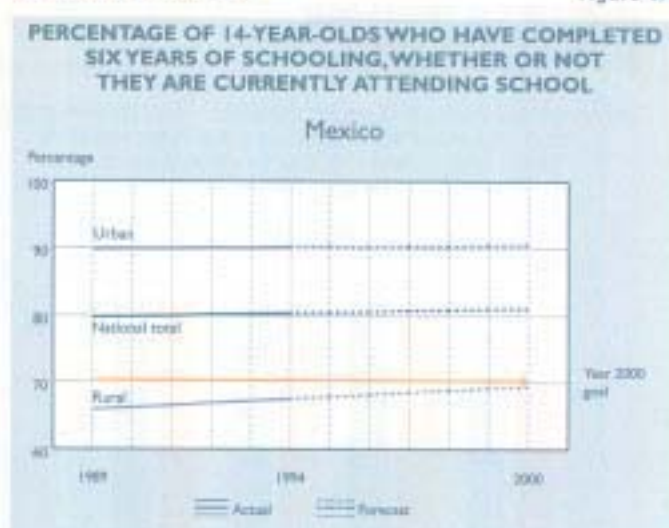
Figure V.3



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

INCREASE THE PERCENTAGE OF MINORS COMPLETING PRIMARY EDUCATION TO MORE THAN 70%

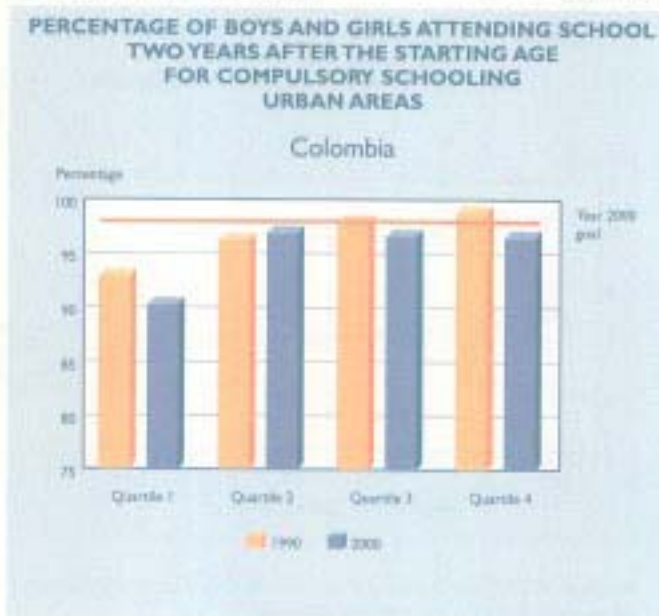
Figure V.4



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

PROVIDE UNIVERSAL ACCESS TO PRIMARY EDUCATION

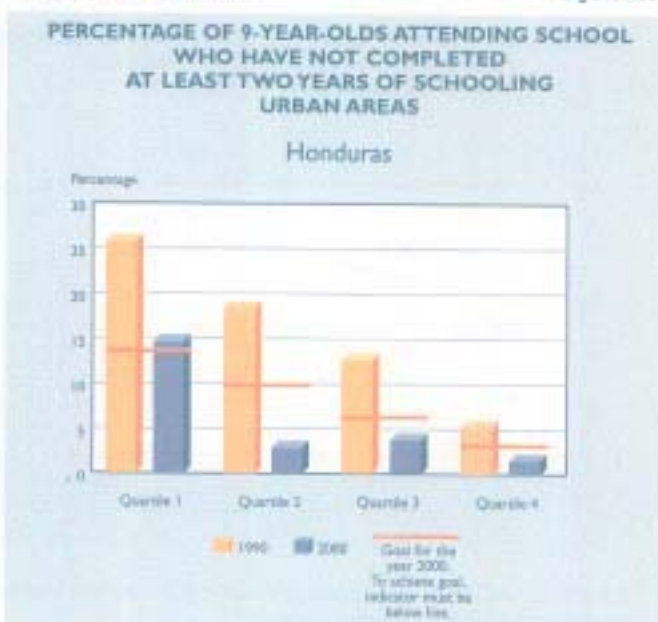
Figure V.5



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

REDUCE REPEATER RATES TO HALF IN THE FIRST TWO GRADES

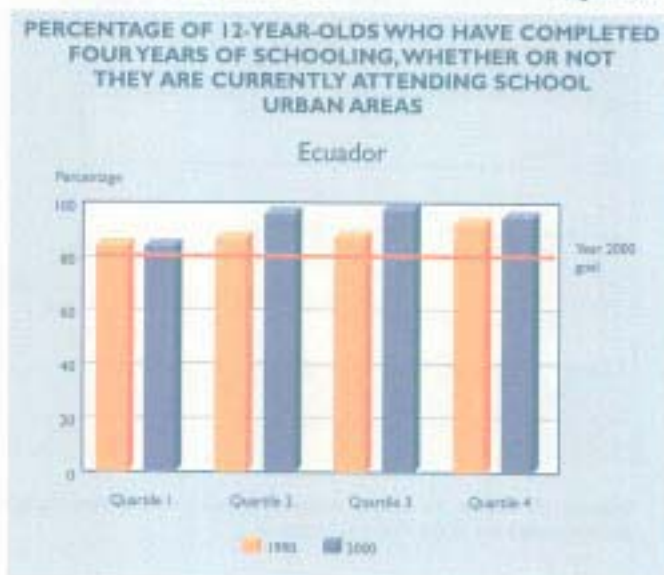
Figure V.6



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

INCREASE THE PERCENTAGE OF MINORS COMPLETING 4TH GRADE TO OVER 80%

Figure V.7



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

INCREASE THE PERCENTAGE OF MINORS COMPLETING PRIMARY EDUCATION TO MORE THAN 70%

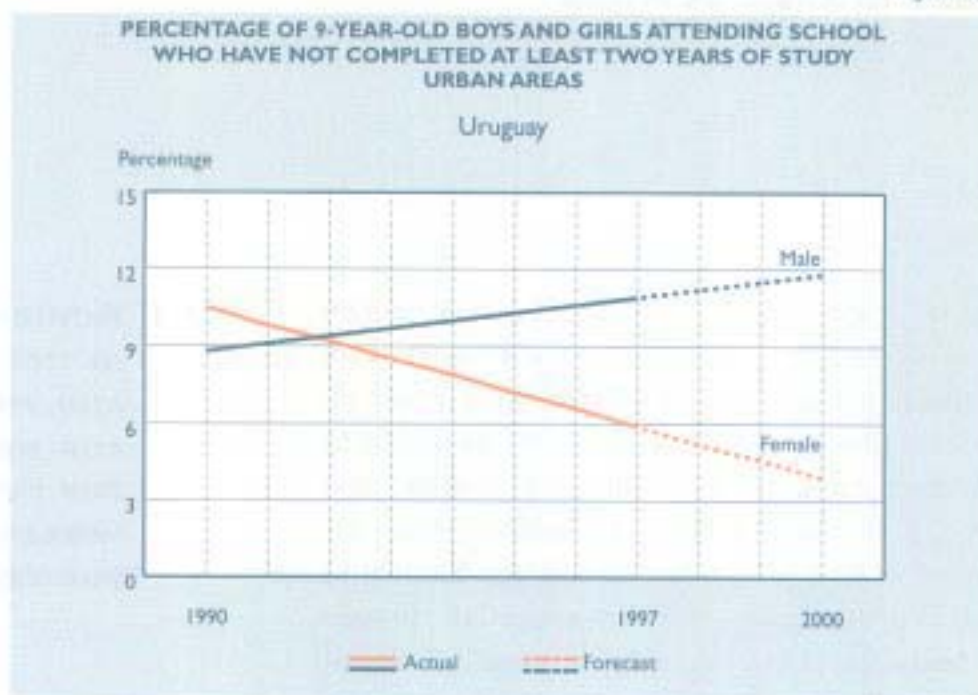
Figure V.8



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

GENDER-BASED DISPARITIES IN EDUCATIONAL UNDER-ATTAINMENT

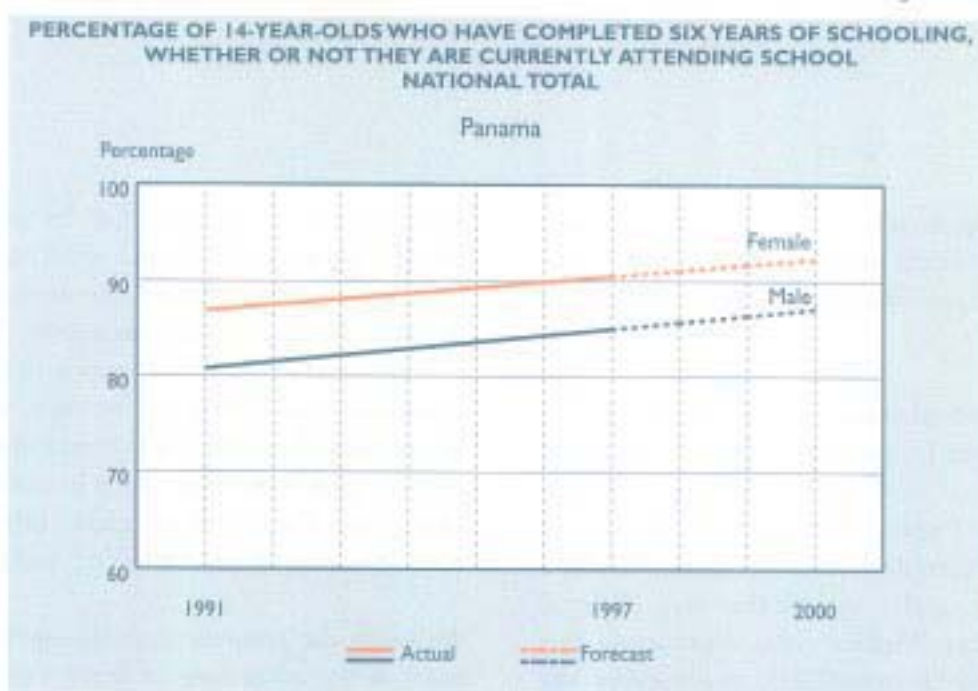
Figure V.9



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

GENDER-BASED DISPARITIES IN PRIMARY EDUCATION COMPLETION RATES

Figure V.10



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

2. GOALS AND EQUITY IN RELATION TO ACCESS TO BASIC SERVICES

By the year 2000 a substantial majority of Latin American countries are expected to have reduced the proportion of the urban population not supplied with drinking water by 25% or more; whereas only half of them are expected to succeed in reducing the proportion without access to basic sanitation by 17% or more. The rural population lags far behind in respect of both services, and this gap has yet to be narrowed. Furthermore, the coverage of proper sanitation systems needs to be greatly increased in almost all the urban areas analysed, and in a third of the cases a great deal of progress also needs to be made with regard to drinking water supplies.

2.1 ACHIEVEMENTS IN THE 1990s AND PROSPECTS FOR MEETING THE OVERALL TARGETS FOR THE YEAR 2000

Striking progress has been made in providing access to drinking water in urban areas in 9 out of the 10 countries studied and in all economic strata (see box V.9).

If the trend observed during the 1990s continues, by the year 2000 four countries out of the 10 for which information is available (Argentina, Chile, Colombia and Uruguay) will have less than 3% of their urban populations living in housing without a drinking water supply; in a further five (Bolivia, Brazil, Honduras, Mexico and Venezuela), this proportion could be around 10% or somewhat less (see table V.13).

In contrast, it is expected that by the end of this decade between 20% and 50% of the urban population in most of these countries will still have inadequate access to basic sanitation. This situation is due to the fact that the coverage of their sewerage systems was more restricted to begin with and that less progress has been made during the 1990s. The relevant goal is being met only in around half of all cases, and the progress made differs by socio-economic stratum (see table V.15 and box V.9).

Although the progress made in supplying drinking water in the urban areas of Brazil, Paraguay, Bolivia and Honduras has been substantial, as has progress in

Box V.8

ACCESS TO BASIC SERVICES BY THE YEAR 2000 SUMMARY OF GOAL ACHIEVEMENT FOR COUNTRIES HAVING THE RELEVANT INFORMATION		
Overall performance, by urban and rural areas	Reduce the proportion of the population lacking drinking water by 25%	Reduce the proportion of the population lacking basic sanitation by 17%
1. Goal expected to be achieved in urban and rural areas		Mexico
2. Goal expected to be achieved only in urban areas	Brazil Chile Colombia Honduras	Chile Honduras
3. Goal expected to be achieved in neither urban nor rural areas	Mexico	Brazil Colombia

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of the tables included in this chapter.

the area of basic sanitation in the case of the last two, greater efforts need to be made in all these countries, given the fact that in 1997 between 10% and 25% of their urban populations were still living in housing without a drinking water supply and that between 40% and 70% did not have access to adequate sanitation systems.

The situation in rural areas demands even greater attention, since in most of the countries 50% or more of the population lives in housing without drinking water supply and more than 60% do not have access to an adequate sanitation system either (see tables V.12 and V.14).

Where the availability of drinking water is concerned, the differences between socio-economic strata are narrowing in the urban areas of most of the countries; as regards sanitation, less progress is being made towards greater equity. In the case of drinking water, the situation of the lowest-income quartile of households has improved by more than the urban average in over three quarters of the countries analysed, but this is true of sanitation in only half of all cases.

2.2 EQUITY IN ATTAINING THE YEAR 2000 GOALS IN RELATION TO BASIC SERVICES

An indicator of inequality can be constructed by taking the stratum formed by the poorest 25% of all households (quartile 1) together with quartiles 2 and 3, and comparing their income levels these with the incomes of the richest 25% of all households (quartile 4) (see box V.11). Judging from the values of this indicator, we can conclude that, where access to water is concerned, in around two thirds of the countries cross-strata differences have narrowed and the situation of the first quartile has improved in relation to the population as a whole (see box V.10 and table V.13).

By contrast, a reduction in inequalities across socio-economic strata as regards basic sanitation is signalled by both indicators in only just over a third of the cases (see box V.10 and table V.15).

Again, it is important to note that in 1997 the percentage of people in quartile 1 who lived in housing that did not yet have a drinking water supply ranged from 15% to 25% in several countries, whereas in those same countries the percentage of the population in quartile 4 who lacked a drinking water supply was in most cases less than 3%. The

countries concerned include Bolivia, Brazil, Honduras, Mexico and, with higher levels, Paraguay.

The situation is also very unequal with respect to sanitation, although with even higher levels of deprivation across the board. In the countries mentioned, some 60% or more of people in the lowest-income quartile (except in Mexico) live in housing that does not have an adequate sanitation system, while in the highest-income quartile the figures, although still generally high, are closer to 30%.

Meanwhile, the countries with the best levels overall are also the ones that have the lowest degree of inequality (Argentina, Chile, Colombia and Uruguay). In these countries, only 3% or 4% of people in the first quartile live in housing that does not have drinking water; in quartile 4 the figure is less than 1%.

In these last countries, between 18% and 25% of the population lack adequate sanitation systems in quartile 1, but only between 1% and 3% do not have such systems in quartile 4.

Box V.9

EQUITY IN ACCESS TO BASIC SERVICES BY THE YEAR 2000 BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STRATUM URBAN AREAS		
Year 2000 goal expected to be achieved in:	Reduce the proportion of the population lacking drinking water by 25%	Reduce the proportion of the population lacking basic sanitation by 17%
1. All quartiles a/	Argentina Bolivia Brazil Chile Colombia	Honduras Paraguay Uruguay Venezuela Chile Honduras Bolivia
2. All quartiles except the lowest	Mexico	Mexico
3. Only one or both of the highest quartiles		Venezuela
4. None		Brazil Colombia Paraguay

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of the tables included in this chapter.

a/ Refers to groups of households representing 25% of the total, classified on the basis of income distribution and ranked by income per capita; quartile 1 consists of the 25% of households with the lowest incomes.

Box V.10

EQUITY IN ACCESS TO BASIC SERVICES BY THE YEAR 2000 BY DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SOCIO-ECONOMIC STRATA URBAN AREAS		
During the 1990s and up to 2000:	Proportion of population in households without drinking water	Proportion of population in households without adequate basic sanitation system
1. Quartiles 1 and 2 improve more or worsen less than the total a/	Argentina Bolivia Paraguay Chile	Brazil Chile Honduras
2. Quartile 1 improves more or worsens less than the total	Brazil Colombia Uruguay Venezuela	Paraguay
3. Quartile 2 improves more or worsens less than the total	Mexico Honduras	Mexico
4. Quartile 1 and/or quartile 2 improve(s) less or worsen(s) more than the total		Bolivia Colombia Venezuela

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of the tables included in this chapter.

a/ Refers to groups of households representing 25% of the total, classified on the basis of income distribution and ranked by income per capita; quartile 1 consists of the 25% of households with the lowest incomes.

AN INDEX OF INEQUALITY

To analyse goal achievement in terms of equity, an inequality index has been devised which is based on the percentage of achievement recorded for each quartile. This index can be used to examine trends in inequality over time, make comparisons across countries and show the differences existing among indicators relating to different goals.

The index of inequality D was defined as follows:

$$D = \{[3(C1 - C4) + 2(C2 - C4) + (C3 - C4)] / 600\} * 100;$$

if the best possible situation in the quartiles with respect to the indicator being measured is a value of zero, or

$$D = \{[3(C4 - C1) + 2(C4 - C2) + (C4 - C3)] / 600\} * 100;$$

if the best possible situation in the quartiles with respect to the indicator being measured is a value of 100.

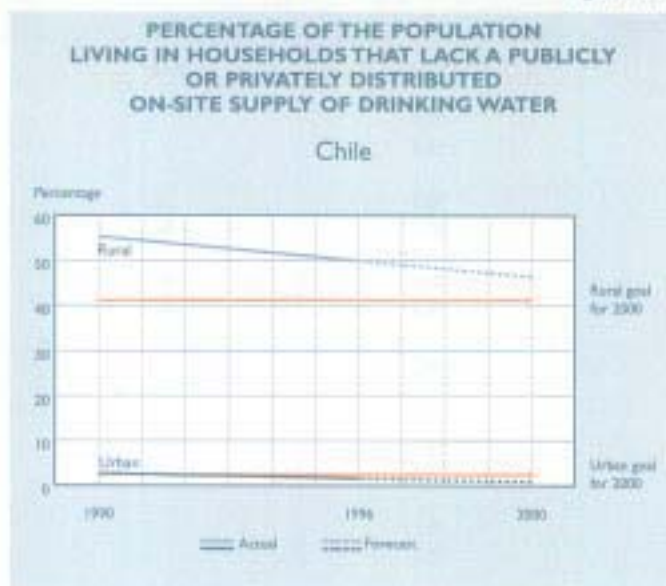
In both expressions, C1, C2, C3 and C4 are the values attained in each quartile by the indicator chosen to analyse the goal concerned. C1 is the value of the indicator for the first quartile (the 25% of households with the lowest incomes) and C4 is the value for the population living in the 25% of households with the highest incomes.

The index has been devised in such a way that the relative weight of differences in the goal achievement rate with respect to the highest-income quartile becomes greater the lower down on the income scale the strata or quartiles being compared with it are. The value of D falls between 0, which is the situation of maximum equity or minimum inequality, where there are no differences between quartiles, and 100, which is the situation of maximum inequality. In the situation of maximum equality, D equals zero because $C1 = C2 = C3 = C4$. With a maximum of inequality, D equals 100 because $C1 = C2 = C3 = 0$ and $C4 = 100\%$, or $C1 = C2 = C3 = 100\%$ and $C4 = 0$.

The index D reaches high values when the 25% of households with the lowest incomes have lagged a long way behind the top quartile, and consequently behind the average, and the second quartile is also below the average level achieved for the goal in the country at large. In these cases, the top stratum will exhibit values that will outdistance the average by a wide margin and will meet or greatly exceed the goals set.

REDUCE THE PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION NOT SUPPLIED WITH DRINKING WATER BY 25%

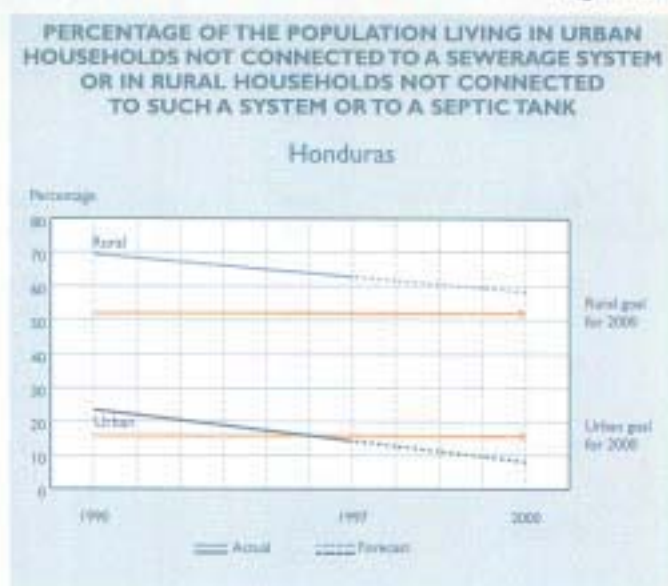
Figure V.11



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

REDUCE THE PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION WITHOUT ACCESS TO BASIC SANITATION BY 17%

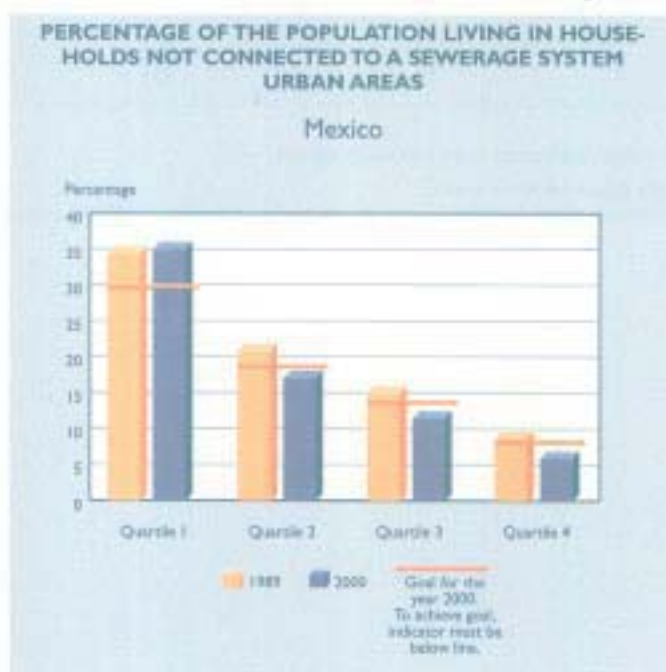
Figure V.12



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

REDUCE THE PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION WITHOUT ACCESS TO BASIC SANITATION BY 17%

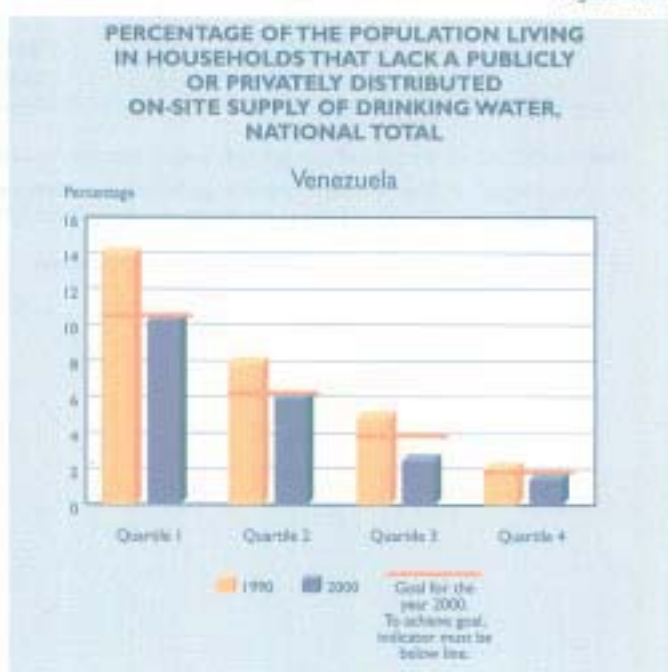
Figure V.13



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

REDUCE THE PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION NOT SUPPLIED WITH DRINKING WATER BY 25%

Figure V.14



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

Table V.1

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 8-9 a/ ATTENDING SCHOOL TWO YEARS AFTER THE OFFICIAL STARTING AGE FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION (Percentages)				
Country	Year	Total	Urban	Rural
Argentina	1990	...	99.5	...
	1997	...	98.9	...
Brazil	1990	88.9	93.3	78.3
	1996	93.8	95.5	88.5
Chile	1990	98.6	98.8	97.7
	1996	99.7	99.7	99.5
Colombia b/	1990	...	96.0	...
	1997	93.3	95.1	91.1
Costa Rica	1990	95.8	95.7	95.8
	1997	97.3	97.8	96.8
Ecuador	1990	...	98.4	...
	1997	...	98.5	...
Honduras	1990	85.1	91.7	81.0
	1997	91.1	94.0	89.6
Mexico	1994	97.7	98.3	97.1
Panama	1991	97.4	98.4	95.6
	1997	99.0	99.3	98.8
Paraguay c/	1995	94.6	98.0	93.3
Uruguay	1990	...	99.0	...
	1997	...	98.8	...
Venezuela	1990	94.3	95.5	89.8
	1995	96.9	97.1	95.9

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

a/ Depending on whether the official starting age for primary education in the country is six or seven.

b/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

c/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.2

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 8-9 a/ ATTENDING SCHOOL TWO YEARS AFTER THE OFFICIAL STARTING AGE FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUARTILE, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)							
Country	Year	Total	Income quartiles				Index of inequality D b/
			1	2	3	4	
Argentina	1990	99.5	99.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1
	1997	98.9	98.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	1
Brazil	1990	93.3	87.3	94.3	98.6	99.0	7
	1996	95.5	92.2	96.8	98.6	99.4	5
Chile	1990	98.8	97.4	99.5	99.6	100.0	2
	1996	99.7	99.6	99.7	99.8	100.0	0
Colombia c/	1990	96.0	93.4	96.8	98.5	99.4	4
	1997	95.1	91.6	97.3	97.6	97.8	3
Costa Rica	1990	95.7	94.8	96.0	95.3	96.8	2
	1997	97.8	96.9	97.8	100.0	100.0	2
Ecuador	1990	98.4	97.6	97.9	98.5	98.7	1
	1997	98.5	98.8	99.3	96.7	98.0	-1
Honduras	1990	91.7	89.1	88.7	95.9	99.5	9
	1997	94.0	90.4	95.3	95.2	95.9	3
Mexico	1994	98.3	95.9	99.7	100.0	100.0	2
Panama	1991	98.4	98.6	96.8	98.1	99.0	1
	1997	99.3	99.3	98.5	100.0	100.0	1
Paraguay d/	1995	98.0	93.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	3
Uruguay	1990	99.0	98.5	99.1	100.0	100.0	1
	1997	98.8	98.3	98.7	100.0	100.0	1
Venezuela	1990	95.5	93.5	95.7	97.6	97.6	3
	1995	97.1	95.5	96.5	99.8	99.4	3

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

a/ Depending on whether the official starting age for primary education in the country is six or seven.

b/ See the definition given in box V.11.

c/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

d/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.3

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 9-10 ^{a/} ATTENDING SCHOOL WHO HAVE NOT COMPLETED AT LEAST TWO YEARS OF SCHOOLING BY THAT AGE (Percentages)				
Country	Year	Total	Urban	Rural
Brazil	1990	40.5	32.9	60.6
	1996	31.8	25.6	52.9
Chile	1990	14.1	12.3	20.9
	1996	11.8	10.1	19.5
Colombia ^{b/}	1990	—	16.7	—
	1997	25.8	14.3	40.5
Costa Rica	1990	25.4	20.2	29.2
	1997	20.5	20.1	20.6
Ecuador	1990	—	10.6	—
	1997	—	7.2	—
Honduras	1990	32.8	18.3	42.3
	1997	19.5	10.9	24.8
Panama	1991	9.6	5.8	18.9
	1997	12.0	6.9	18.3
Paraguay ^{c/}	1995	14.7	10.2	16.9
Uruguay	1990	—	9.7	—
	1997	—	8.4	—
Venezuela	1990	10.6	8.1	22.6
	1995	12.9	11.0	20.9

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

^{a/} Depending on whether the official starting age for primary education in the country is six or seven.

^{b/} In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

^{c/} Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.4

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 9-10 ^{a/} ATTENDING SCHOOL WHO HAVE NOT HAD AT LEAST TWO YEARS OF SCHOOLING BY THAT AGE, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUANTILE, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)							
Country	Year	Total	Income quartiles				Index of inequality D ^{b/}
			1	2	3	4	
Brazil	1990	32.9	53.8	31.2	17.1	8.2	32
	1996	25.6	43.5	20.5	9.4	4.7	25
Chile	1990	12.3	17.8	9.2	7.7	7.7	6
	1996	10.1	13.8	8.7	9.7	4.2	7
Colombia ^{c/}	1990	16.7	26.5	15.5	8.4	8.0	12
	1997	14.3	21.2	14.1	4.1	6.8	9
Costa Rica	1990	20.2	34.7	24.3	12.7	3.1	24
	1997	20.1	29.6	19.8	12.2	3.0	20
Ecuador	1990	10.6	12.1	11.4	12.1	2.2	10
	1997	7.2	12.7	4.9	4.1	0.3	8
Honduras	1990	18.3	27.3	19.1	13.3	6.0	16
	1997	10.9	19.0	8.3	6.9	3.4	10
Panama	1991	5.8	12.0	2.4	2.0	1.0	6
	1997	6.9	11.5	3.2	2.4	1.3	6
Paraguay ^{d/}	1995	10.2	17.1	7.5	7.4	3.1	9
Uruguay	1990	9.7	15.9	6.7	4.2	1.4	9
	1997	8.4	14.8	5.5	0.7	0.0	9
Venezuela	1990	8.1	12.5	6.6	4.5	3.4	6
	1995	11.0	15.9	8.3	9.1	2.2	10

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

^{a/} Depending on whether the official starting age for primary education in the country is six or seven.

^{b/} See the definition given in box V.11.

^{c/} In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

^{d/} Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.5

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 12-13 ^{a/} WHO HAVE COMPLETED AT LEAST FOUR YEARS OF SCHOOLING, WHETHER OR NOT THEY ARE CURRENTLY ATTENDING SCHOOL (Percentages)				
Country	Year	Total	Urban	Rural
Brazil	1990	53.8	63.8	31.4
	1996	63.7	71.5	37.1
Chile	1990	90.7	92.0	85.4
	1996	94.0	95.4	87.4
Colombia ^{b/}	1990	...	83.8	...
	1997	72.1	86.1	54.5
Costa Rica	1990	78.7	85.5	73.4
	1997	80.5	86.0	76.7
Ecuador	1990	...	88.7	...
	1997	...	92.1	...
Honduras	1990	60.1	78.4	48.2
	1997	75.9	85.8	68.7
Panama	1991	88.7	91.4	83.5
	1997	89.5	94.5	84.0
Paraguay ^{c/}	1990	...	91.8	...
	1995	...	89.4	...
Uruguay	1990	...	93.5	...
	1997	...	94.4	...
Venezuela	1990	81.6	86.1	62.4
	1995	86.3	89.7	70.9

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

a/ Depending on whether the official starting age for primary education in the country is six or seven.

b/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

c/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.6

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 12-13 ^{a/} WHO HAVE COMPLETED AT LEAST FOUR YEARS OF SCHOOLING, WHETHER OR NOT THEY ARE CURRENTLY ATTENDING SCHOOL, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUARTILE, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)							
Country	Year	Total	Income quartiles				Index of inequality D ^{b/}
			1	2	3	4	
Brazil	1990	63.8	42.3	65.3	82.3	90.9	34
	1996	71.5	52.4	76.2	86.8	95.0	29
Chile	1990	92.0	87.8	93.3	96.1	96.3	5
	1996	95.4	91.9	97.3	97.1	97.9	3
Colombia ^{c/}	1990	83.8	76.4	82.6	91.1	95.5	15
	1997	86.1	77.1	86.2	97.3	96.5	13
Costa Rica	1990	85.5	79.3	86.9	90.6	93.0	9
	1997	86.0	83.4	84.1	85.3	97.1	13
Ecuador	1990	88.7	86.3	88.9	89.5	94.7	7
	1997	92.1	86.1	95.5	97.2	96.3	5
Honduras	1990	78.4	75.1	72.2	81.3	91.0	16
	1997	85.8	82.3	83.3	91.6	90.0	6
Panama	1991	91.4	85.4	91.8	98.3	98.0	8
	1997	94.5	92.2	93.8	96.9	97.7	4
Paraguay ^{d/}	1990	91.8	87.3	91.1	95.3	94.3	4
	1995	89.4	81.4	88.1	96.6	95.9	10
Uruguay	1990	93.5	87.9	98.1	98.9	99.0	6
	1997	94.4	92.4	96.7	96.2	95.2	1
Venezuela	1990	86.1	80.8	86.1	90.3	93.9	10
	1995	89.7	85.0	90.7	92.2	98.1	10

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

^{a/} Depending on whether the official starting age for primary education in the country is six or seven.

^{b/} See the definition given in box V.11.

^{c/} In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

^{d/} Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.7

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): ADOLESCENTS AGED 14-15 a/ WHO HAVE COMPLETED AT LEAST SIX YEARS OF SCHOOLING, WHETHER OR NOT THEY ARE CURRENTLY ATTENDING SCHOOL (Percentages)				
Country	Year	Total	Urban	Rural
Argentina b/	1990	---	93.0	---
	1997	---	92.3	---
Brazil	1990	35.6	44.1	15.0
	1996	49.0	55.9	23.7
Chile	1990	88.2	90.7	78.7
	1996	90.0	92.1	78.8
Colombia c/	1990	--	70.9	--
	1997	60.6	75.8	41.0
Costa Rica	1990	77.6	88.3	70.5
	1997	76.7	85.9	70.8
Ecuador	1990	---	88.0	---
	1997	---	89.0	---
Honduras	1990	54.3	73.2	40.1
	1997	64.2	77.4	54.6
Mexico	1989	79.8	89.8	65.9
	1994	80.4	90.1	67.5
Panama	1991	83.9	87.7	75.4
	1997	87.6	92.0	82.6
Paraguay d/	1990	---	84.8	---
	1995	---	82.3	---
Uruguay	1990	---	89.1	---
	1997	---	92.3	---
Venezuela	1990	77.8	83.1	51.9
	1995	80.4	84.9	58.4

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

a/ Depending on whether the official starting age for primary education in the country is six or seven.

b/ Figures are for those completing seven years of schooling.

c/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

d/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.8

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): ADOLESCENTS AGED 14-15 ^{a/} WHO HAVE COMPLETED AT LEAST SIX YEARS OF SCHOOLING, WHETHER OR NOT THEY ARE CURRENTLY ATTENDING SCHOOL, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUANTILE, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)							
Country	Year	Total	Income quartiles				Index of inequality D ^{b/}
			1	2	3	4	
Argentina ^{c/}	1990	93.0	86.6	94.0	95.9	100.0	9
	1997	92.3	82.1	94.7	95.5	100.0	11
Brazil	1990	44.1	22.4	39.9	60.2	76.8	42
	1996	55.9	32.6	53.8	73.2	87.4	41
Chile	1990	90.7	84.2	90.5	95.2	96.9	9
	1996	92.1	85.6	95.1	97.7	98.0	7
Colombia ^{d/}	1990	70.9	58.1	69.0	82.9	88.5	23
	1997	75.8	65.3	75.8	85.5	87.8	16
Costa Rica	1990	88.3	75.4	91.8	91.2	97.4	14
	1997	85.9	76.9	86.0	95.4	95.7	13
Ecuador	1990	88.0	86.3	85.1	91.2	93.5	7
	1997	89.0	84.2	90.0	92.6	95.8	8
Honduras	1990	73.2	69.1	69.8	78.5	87.1	16
	1997	77.4	66.6	77.4	79.8	91.0	19
Mexico	1989	89.8	84.3	89.4	95.0	98.6	11
	1994	90.1	83.7	93.0	94.3	99.6	11
Panama	1991	87.7	81.4	88.5	94.0	97.4	12
	1997	92.0	87.8	94.0	95.0	97.7	7
Paraguay ^{e/}	1990	84.8	79.3	85.0	90.3	93.6	11
	1995	82.3	76.7	80.7	88.4	90.2	10
Uruguay	1990	89.1	82.2	93.6	94.5	95.0	7
	1997	92.3	87.3	94.5	95.7	100.0	9
Venezuela	1990	83.1	77.3	83.4	86.4	90.7	10
	1995	84.9	75.5	88.1	91.0	92.3	10

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

a/ Depending on whether the official starting age for primary education in the country is six or seven.

b/ See definition given in box V.11.

c/ Figures are for those completing seven years of schooling.

d/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

e/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.9

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): BOYS AND GIRLS AGED 9-10 ^{a/} ATTENDING SCHOOL WHO HAVE NOT COMPLETED AT LEAST TWO YEARS OF SCHOOLING BY THAT AGE (Percentages)							
Country	Year	Total		Urban		Rural	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Brazil	1990	43.6	37.3	35.6	30.3	65.1	56.1
	1996	35.8	27.8	29.7	21.4	56.4	49.4
Chile	1990	15.0	12.9	12.9	11.6	22.9	18.6
	1996	12.7	10.9	9.7	10.6	27.2	12.3
Colombia ^{b/}	1990	18.0	15.4
	1997	28.6	22.8	16.3	12.2	44.0	36.6
Costa Rica	1990	28.7	22.1	24.3	16.5	31.8	26.6
	1997	20.4	20.5	19.5	20.8	20.9	20.4
Ecuador	1990	11.8	9.3
	1997	9.8	4.9
Honduras	1990	33.2	32.4	22.0	14.7	40.3	44.3
	1997	21.0	17.8	13.0	8.4	26.2	23.3
Panama	1991	10.6	8.7	6.4	5.2	20.2	17.5
	1997	16.0	8.8	8.2	4.8	24.6	12.7
Uruguay	1990	8.8	10.5
	1997	10.9	5.9
Venezuela	1990	12.5	8.6	10.1	5.9	24.9	20.5
	1995	17.1	8.6	14.3	7.7	28.6	12.9

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

a/ Depending on whether the official starting age for primary education in the country is six or seven.

b/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

Table V.10

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): BOYS AND GIRLS AGED 12-13 a/WHO HAVE COMPLETED AT LEAST FOUR YEARS OF SCHOOLING, WHETHER OR NOT THEY ARE CURRENTLY ATTENDING SCHOOL (Percentages)							
Country	Year	Total		Urban		Rural	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Brazil	1990	50.2	57.6	60.0	67.7	29.1	34.1
	1996	57.9	69.6	66.1	76.9	32.6	42.4
Chile	1990	89.9	91.5	91.3	92.7	83.8	87.0
	1996	93.4	94.6	95.3	95.4	84.8	90.7
Colombia b/	1990	83.9	83.7
	1997	69.0	75.4	84.4	87.9	50.1	59.5
Costa Rica	1990	75.6	81.6	86.7	84.4	67.4	79.3
	1997	75.7	85.6	81.8	90.4	71.3	82.2
Ecuador	1990	86.7	90.9
	1997	89.7	94.5
Honduras	1990	59.0	61.4	77.3	79.4	48.3	48.2
	1997	75.2	76.7	83.3	88.4	68.9	68.5
Panama	1991	87.3	90.3	90.2	92.8	81.8	85.3
	1997	88.2	90.9	94.0	95.1	82.5	86.0
Paraguay c/	1990	90.4	93.4
	1995	79.1	83.8	87.7	90.9	75.5	79.7
Uruguay	1990	92.4	95.2
	1997	93.5	95.2
Venezuela	1990	78.2	85.0	83.8	88.3	56.8	69.3
	1995	83.6	89.2	87.6	91.9	66.9	75.7

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

a/ Depending on whether the official starting age for primary education in the country is six or seven.

b/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

c/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.11

**LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES):
MALE AND FEMALE ADOLESCENTS AGED 14-15^{a/} WHO HAVE COMPLETED AT LEAST SIX YEARS
OF SCHOOLING, WHETHER OR NOT THEY ARE CURRENTLY ATTENDING SCHOOL
(Percentages)**

Country	Year	Total		Urban		Rural	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Argentina b/	1990	90.9	92.0
	1997	81.7	88.9
Brazil	1990	32.0	39.2	40.3	47.8	12.9	17.4
	1996	43.5	54.6	50.7	61.3	19.0	29.0
Chile	1990	86.6	89.5	89.7	91.0	75.1	83.0
	1996	88.1	91.9	91.0	93.3	74.1	84.2
Colombia c/	1990	69.4	72.6
	1997	60.2	62.4	75.9	77.7	39.0	42.9
Costa Rica	1990	77.0	78.6	85.4	92.3	71.1	69.7
	1997	76.1	77.3	84.2	87.5	70.9	70.6
Ecuador	1990	86.1	90.0
	1997	89.0	88.9
Honduras	1990	49.8	58.3	69.7	76.0	36.8	43.4
	1997	62.7	65.7	72.8	81.6	55.9	53.2
Mexico	1989	77.8	81.7	87.4	91.9	65.5	66.3
	1994	78.1	83.0	87.6	93.0	64.6	70.5
Panama	1991	80.8	86.9	85.7	89.8	69.9	80.7
	1997	85.0	90.5	91.0	93.2	78.0	87.5
Paraguay d/	1990	91.3	78.2
	1995	67.4	72.6	81.2	83.2	61.8	65.8
Uruguay	1990	87.3	91.0
	1997	91.1	93.4
Venezuela	1990	74.2	81.6	80.9	85.4	45.4	60.3
	1995	75.3	85.4	81.5	88.4	43.9	71.7

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

a/ Depending on whether the official starting age for primary education in the country is six or seven.

b/ Figures are for those completing seven years of schooling.

c/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

d/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.12

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION LIVING IN HOUSING THAT HAS NO DRINKING WATER SUPPLY (Percentages)				
Country	Year	Total	Urban	Rural
Bolivia	1989	...	26.5	...
	1997	37.2	9.7	69.7
Brazil	1990	31.1	18.7	65.6
	1996	23.6	13.1	64.3
Chile	1990	12.8	2.7	55.3
	1996	9.3	1.6	49.9
Colombia a/	1990	...	1.7	...
	1997	13.7	1.7	32.4
Honduras	1990	50.5	23.5	69.4
	1997	40.0	12.7	61.6
Mexico	1989	16.7	7.4	31.7
	1994	19.1	7.2	35.4
Venezuela	1990	8.2
	1997	6.5

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

a/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

Table V.13

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION LIVING IN HOUSING THAT HAS NO DRINKING WATER SUPPLY, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUANTILE, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)							
Country	Year	Total	Income quantiles				Index of inequality D a/
			1	2	3	4	
Argentina b/	1990	3.8	7.3	4.1	1.4	0.6	5
	1997	1.8	4.4	1.0	0.6	0.1	3
Bolivia	1989	26.5	36.8	32.9	22.8	11.2	22
	1997	9.7	14.4	12.9	6.5	2.8	10
Brazil	1990	18.7	40.0	17.3	7.7	3.1	24
	1996	13.1	25.5	12.1	6.4	3.1	15
Chile	1990	2.7	6.0	2.5	1.2	0.1	4
	1996	1.6	3.4	1.2	0.6	0.3	2
Colombia c/	1990	1.7	4.1	1.3	0.5	0.1	1
	1997	1.7	3.2	1.7	0.9	0.4	2
Honduras	1990	23.5	31.1	28.7	22.3	8.3	21
	1997	12.7	21.1	12.7	9.5	4.8	12
Mexico	1989	7.4	14.4	6.6	3.5	1.6	8
	1994	7.2	16.0	4.9	2.5	1.0	9
Paraguay d/	1990	33.3	52.9	35.2	27.6	9.0	34
	1996	25.3	41.1	21.3	23.3	10.4	21
Uruguay	1990	6.0	13.6	3.3	1.9	1.2	7
	1997	1.9	3.1	1.7	1.3	0.6	2
Venezuela e/	1990	8.2	14.3	8.2	5.2	2.4	8
	1997	6.5	11.7	6.9	3.5	2.0	7

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

a/ See the definition given in box V.11.

b/ Figures for Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

d/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

e/ Both the household per capita income quantiles and the values shown for the indicator relate to the national total.

Table V.14

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION LIVING IN HOUSING WITH NO ACCESS TO BASIC SANITATION (Percentages)				
Country	Year	Total	Urban	Rural
Bolivia	1989	...	57.6	...
	1997	68.9	47.2	94.5
Brazil	1990	60.0	49.9	88.0
	1996	59.3	53.2	82.7
Chile	1990	28.5	15.8	82.2
	1996	23.1	12.3	79.5
Colombia a/	1990	...	6.6	...
	1997	22.4	8.7	43.7
Honduras	1990	74.9	52.0	91.0
	1997	69.0	41.6	90.7
Mexico	1989	40.4	22.4	69.5
	1994	37.0	20.3	60.1
Venezuela	1994	24.9
	1997	24.8

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

a/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

Table V.15

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION LIVING IN HOUSING WITH NO ACCESS TO BASIC SANITATION, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUANTILE, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)							
Country	Year	Total	Income quantiles				Index of inequality D w
			1	2	3	4	
Bolivia	1989	57.6	66.7	65.6	55.5	40.1	24
	1997	47.2	58.2	53.3	45.5	26.5	28
Brazil	1990	49.9	72.6	54.3	39.0	25.0	36
	1996	53.2	72.0	56.0	44.0	32.6	29
Chile	1990	15.8	28.4	17.0	9.7	3.4	18
	1996	12.3	24.6	11.8	5.9	2.9	14
Colombia b/	1990	6.6	14.6	6.7	2.5	0.3	10
	1997	8.7	17.9	8.0	4.2	1.6	11
Honduras	1990	52.0	73.0	61.8	47.1	17.4	48
	1997	41.6	59.5	45.4	35.2	19.1	32
Mexico	1989	22.4	35.4	21.8	16.0	9.7	18
	1994	20.3	35.9	18.0	12.4	6.8	19
Paraguay c/	1990	63.7	85.6	71.4	54.9	32.3	43
	1996	76.4	94.8	84.3	74.1	42.6	45
Venezuela d/	1994	24.9	38.5	23.0	16.4	11.5	18
	1997	24.8	38.7	26.9	17.1	10.8	20

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

a/ See the definition given in box V.11.

b/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

c/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

d/ Both the household per capita income quantiles and the values for the indicator relate to the national total.

B. AN EXAMINATION OF SITUATIONS THAT LIMIT THE OPPORTUNITIES OF CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS

1. CHILD LABOR

Thus far during this decade, the proportion of working adolescents has decreased in only just over half of the Latin American countries and has actually increased in a third of them. This situation seriously jeopardizes the development of human capital and means that many of the future opportunities of these young people are forfeited. The trend is even less positive in the case of children, although their labour participation rate is lower. In sum, there has been a simultaneous decline in the percentage of both children and adolescents who work in only a third of the countries studied.

This situation has numerous implications for the well-being of children (ECLAC, 1995, chapter II.B). As has now been shown, children and adolescents who work lose around two years of educational capital, and this means that they earn less when they are adults. Over their working lives, this accrued loss of income will amount to between four and six times as much as the earnings they generated during the years they were prematurely active in the labour market, when they should have stayed in school and obtained the two extra years of education.

An attempt has been made to summarize the child labour situation in the countries under consideration

by measuring its prevalence among children between the ages of 13 and 14 and among adolescents of both sexes between the ages of 15 and 17.¹² An effort has also been made to quantify this phenomenon in those countries where the situation has either improved or worsened. The following classification, which is based on the available information for urban areas, is proposed for both purposes:

- Group 1, consisting of Argentina, Chile and Panama, has relatively low levels of child labour (less than 3%) and adolescent labour (less than 10%), with overall levels for persons between the ages of 13 and 17 being below 7%.

¹² Since, for legal, cultural and other reasons, societies tend to downplay the scale of child and adolescent labour, the figures given here may underestimate this phenomenon to some extent; nevertheless, they may be regarded as fairly reasonable estimates.

- Group 2, which includes Colombia, Costa Rica, Uruguay and Venezuela, exhibits intermediate levels, i.e. between 3% and 7% for child labour and between 10% and 20% for adolescent labour, with a figure of between 7% and 15% for all persons between the ages of 13 and 17.
- Group 3, composed of Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador, Honduras, Mexico and Paraguay, has the highest levels, with child labour amounting to more than 7% and adolescent labour to over 20%, for an overall figure of more than 15% for all those between the ages of 13 and 17.

On the basis of the above classification, it can be shown that the countries with the lowest levels of child and adolescent labour are the ones that have performed the best during the decade, since the proportion of working minors has fallen in two of them, while in the third (Chile) this indicator has remained at its already low relative level (see box V.12).

The worst record in this respect is found in the group of countries with the highest levels of child labour, since the percentage of both children and adolescents who work has actually risen in some of these cases. Only in Ecuador has progress been made in reducing the rates for both age groups.

Among the countries in the intermediate group, child labour has fallen slightly in Costa Rica and adolescent labour has decreased more markedly, while in Colombia and Uruguay adolescent labour has declined but there has been no improvement in the child labour situation.

An examination of the situation from the standpoint of social equity, shows that children living in rural

areas are at a considerable disadvantage. In Brazil, for example, around 17% of children in urban areas report that they are working, while in rural areas the figure is about 50%. This situation can also be illustrated by the case of Costa Rica, where 4% of urban children but 18% of rural children work (see table V.16).

The above situation also holds true for the 15-17 age group. In Honduras, for example, around 33% of adolescents in urban areas work, while the figure for rural areas is around 50%. Even in Chile –the country with the lowest levels of child and adolescent labour– just over 6% of adolescents in urban areas state that they work, while among those living in the countryside, the figure rises to 15% (see table V.17).

The differences across socio-economic strata are not so pronounced because working children and adolescents contribute between 20% and 25% of the total income of their households, and the relative position of these households within the distributional structure therefore improves. This means, in general, that the highest labour force participation rates are found in the second and third quartiles of the per capita household income distribution, and the differences between quartiles are fairly slight.

In the urban areas of Bolivia, for example, 14% of adolescents between the ages of 13 and 17 living in quartile 1 households state that they work, while the figures are 20% and 19% for those from households in quartiles 2 and 3, respectively, and 17% for those from quartile 4 households (see table V.19).

PROGRESS AND REVERSES IN THE CHILD AND ADOLESCENT LABOUR SITUATION

CHANGES IN THE PERCENTAGES OF PERSONS AGED 13-14 WHO WORK, 1990s
URBAN AREAS

Percentage of children who work	Change during the 1990s		
	Falling	Steady	Increasing
GROUP 1: Lower level Less than 3% working	Argentina Panama	Chile	
GROUP 2: Intermediate level Between 3% and 7% working	Costa Rica	Venezuela	Colombia Uruguay
GROUP 3: Higher level More than 7% working	Ecuador Bolivia	Brazil	Mexico Honduras Paraguay

CHANGES IN THE PERCENTAGES OF PERSONS AGED 15 TO 17 WHO WORK, 1990s
URBAN AREAS

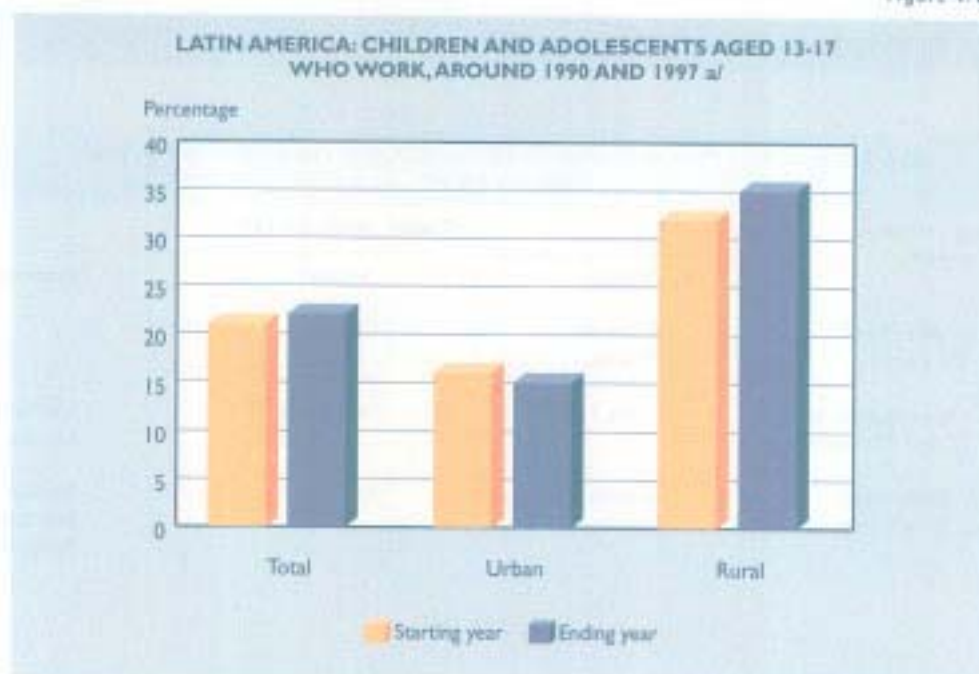
Percentage of adolescents who work	Change during the 1990s		
	Falling	Steady	Increasing
GROUP 1: Lower level Less than 10% working	Argentina Panama	Chile	
GROUP 2: Intermediate level Between 10% and 20% working	Colombia Costa Rica Uruguay		Venezuela
GROUP 3: Higher level More than 20% working	Brazil Ecuador	Mexico	Bolivia Honduras Paraguay

CHANGES IN THE PERCENTAGES OF PERSONS AGED 13-17 WHO WORK, 1990s
URBAN AREAS

Percentage of children and adolescents who work	Change during the 1990s		
	Falling	Steady	Increasing
GROUP 1: Lower level Less than 7% working	Argentina Panama	Chile	
GROUP 2: Intermediate level Between 7% and 15% working	Colombia Costa Rica Uruguay		Venezuela
GROUP 3: Higher level More than 15% working	Brazil Ecuador	Bolivia Mexico	Honduras Paraguay

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of the tables included in this chapter.

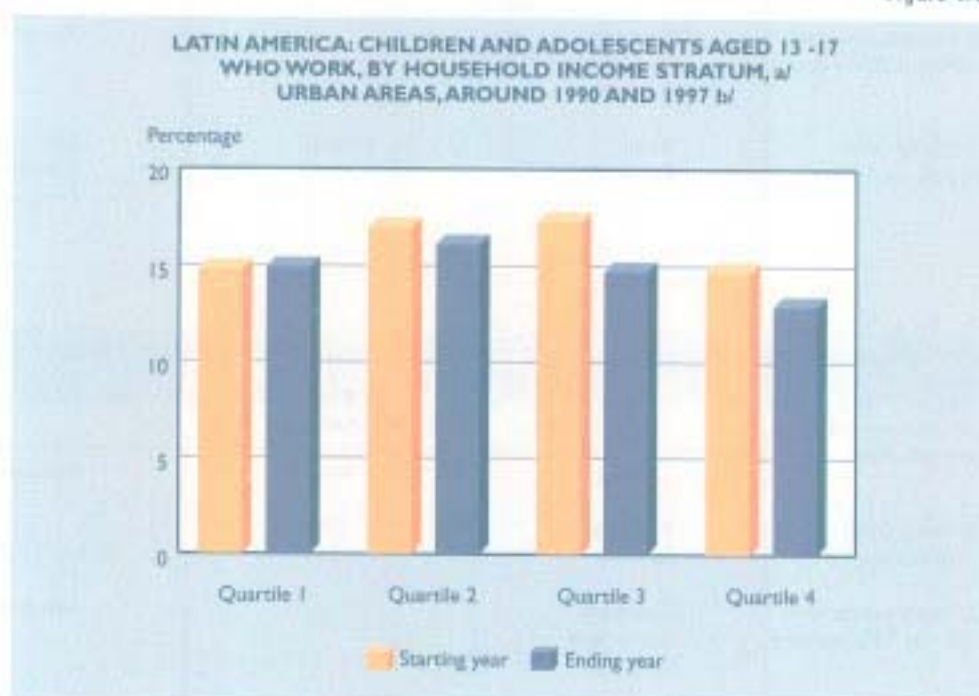
Figure V.15



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

^{a/} Simple average for the countries having the relevant information.

Figure V.16



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

^{a/} Refers to groups of households representing 25% of the total, classified on the basis of income distribution and ranked by income per capita; quartile 1 consists of the 25% of households with the lowest incomes.

^{b/} Simple average for the countries having the relevant information.

2. ADOLESCENT WOMEN WHO DO NOT ATTEND SCHOOL AND WHO CARRY OUT DOMESTIC CHORES IN THEIR HOMES

In most of the Latin American countries there has been a decline in the proportion of adolescent women in urban areas who neither attend school nor enter the labour market but instead work exclusively at domestic tasks in their homes; less progress has been made in rural areas, however. As of 1997, furthermore, between 15% and 25% of young women in the urban areas of almost half the countries were still in this restrictive situation, while the figure for those living in rural areas was between 25% and 50%.

Of the countries examined, those that have achieved the most outstanding improvements in this respect are Brazil and Honduras, even though the levels in these two countries are still the highest in the region. In Brazil, this proportion fell between 1990 and 1996 from 18% to 15% in urban areas, and from 32% to 24% in rural ones. In Honduras it decreased from 25% to 19% in urban areas between 1990 and 1997, while in rural areas it dropped from 64% to 52% (see table V.20).

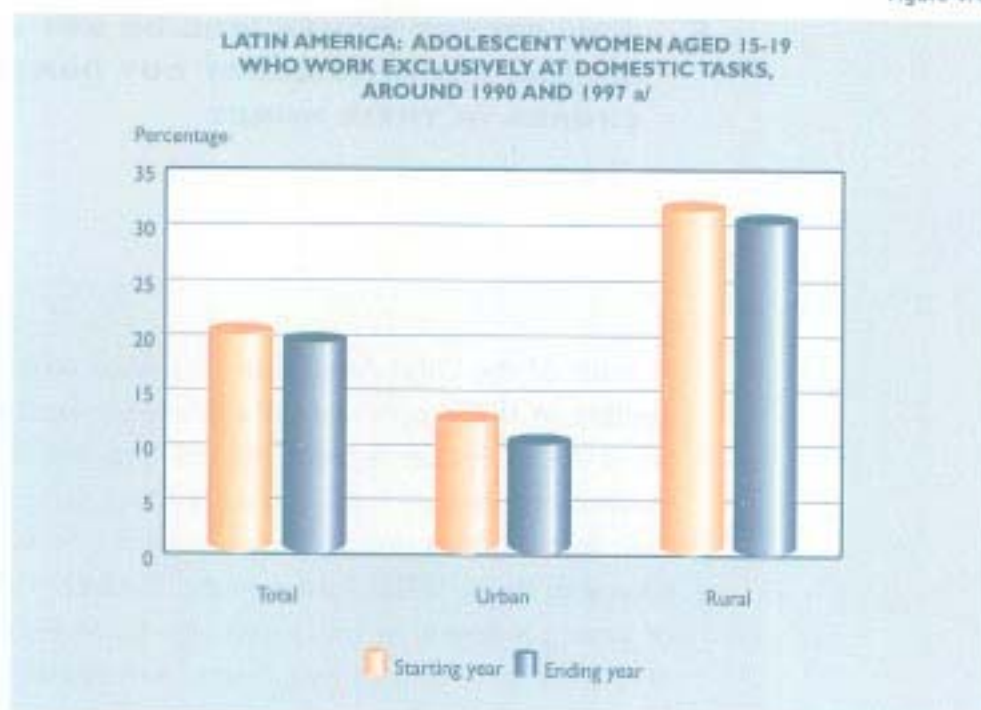
Meanwhile, the countries where the percentage of women in this situation are the lowest are Argentina, Chile, Ecuador, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay, where the figure is less than 10% in urban areas.

From the standpoint of gender equity, this decline in the proportion of women who carry out nothing but domestic work during adolescence is very significant, since this situation places a twofold restriction on

these persons' life opportunities: on the one hand, they miss years of study that are vital for the development of their educational capital while, on the other hand, they are highly restricted as regards the acquisition of skills they will need if they ever enter the labour market.

With respect to the differences among young women from different socio-economic strata, the situation is very unfavourable for those belonging to lower-income households. In Argentina, Panama and Uruguay, for example, 15% of those living in quartile 1 households work exclusively at domestic tasks, whereas the figure for quartile 4 is only 1%. This inequitable situation is found in all the countries analysed, with the only difference being in the level of the figures recorded for each stratum. The largest differential is found in Mexico (1994), with values of 35% in the first quartile and only 7% or so in the fourth (see table V.21).

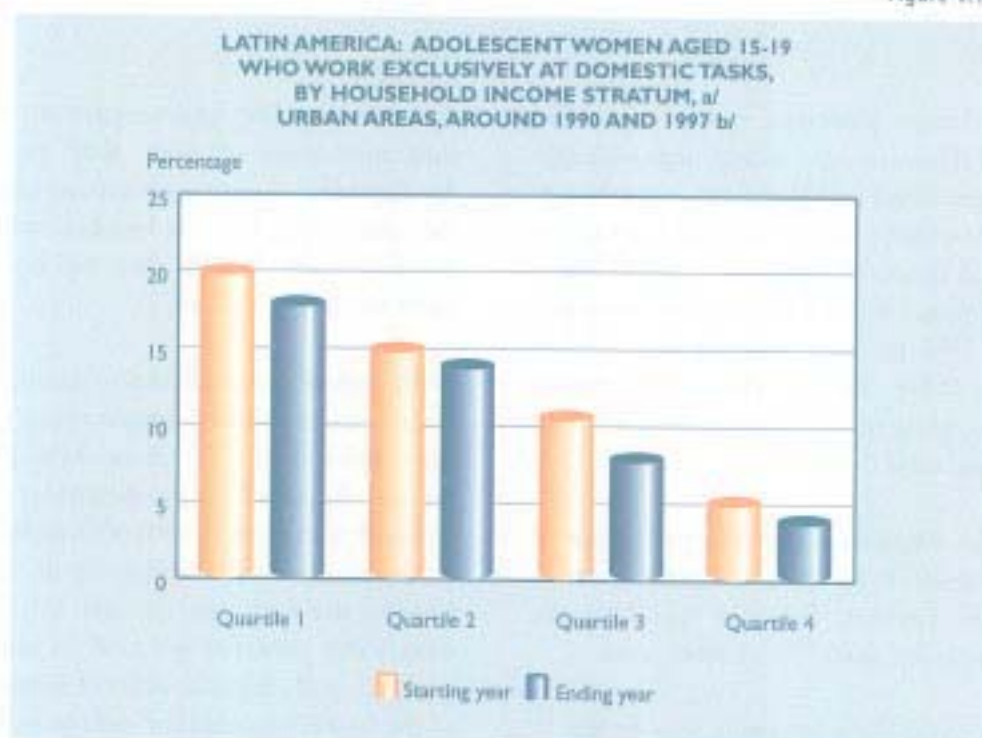
Figure V.17



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

^{a/} Simple average of the figures for countries having the relevant information available.

Figure V.18



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

^{a/} Refers to groups of households representing 25% of the total, classified on the basis of income distribution and ranked by income per capita; quartile 1 consists of the 25% of households with the lowest incomes.

^{b/} Simple average of the figures for countries having the relevant information available.

3. MOTHERHOOD DURING ADOLESCENCE

During the 1990s the frequency of teenage motherhood has remained high in most of the countries of Latin America.¹³ According to the statistics available at the national level, between 20% and 25% of women have their first child before they are 20. For women in rural areas, the figure stands at 30%, while in urban areas it ranges from 15% to 20%.

There have been slight improvements in Bolivia and Honduras, both of which have high rates. In the case of the former, the urban figure appears to have fallen from 23% to 18% between 1990 and 1997, with larger decreases among young women from households in the upper-income quartiles of the income distribution structure: in quartile 1 the figure fell from 30% to 27%, while in quartile 4 it fell from 16% to 11% (see tables V.22 and V.23).

In Honduras, the frequency of teenage motherhood in urban areas fell from one in four young women to about one in five during the same period. This improvement was seen from the second quartile upward, as the figure for the first quartile remained at 34% (i.e. one out of every three young women), whereas in the fourth quartile it dropped from 16% to 10%.

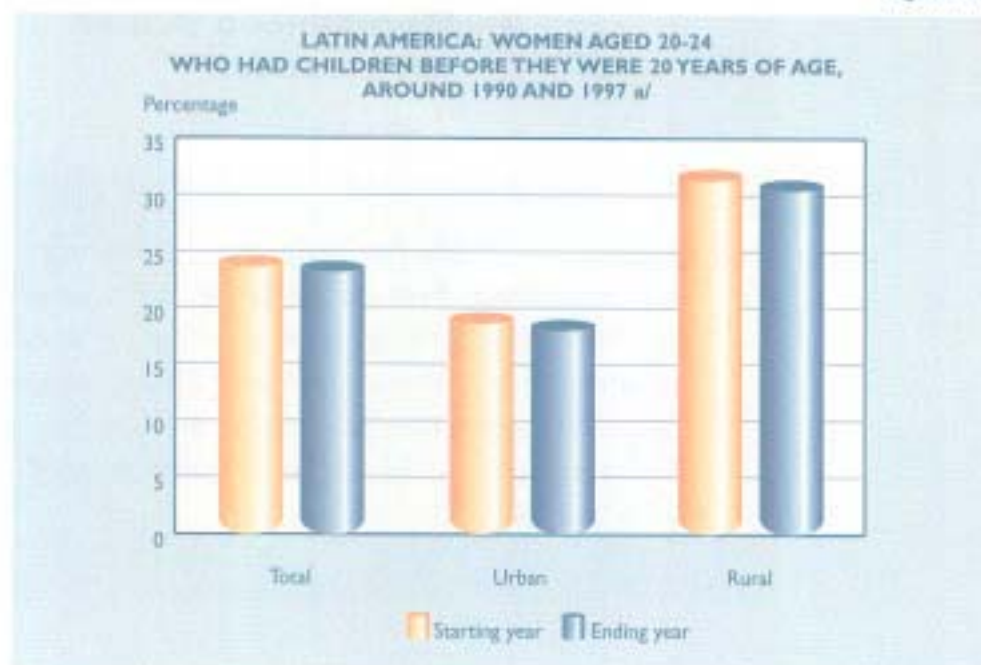
A similar trend has been seen in rural areas. The rates remain very high, and the modest decreases in the rate that have taken place have been in the countries where the figures gave most cause for concern. The case of Honduras may be cited once again, with the rural rate in that country falling from 41% to 35% (see table V.22).

Attention must be drawn to the importance of tackling the factors that lead to teenage motherhood. Among other things, it has a strong link with poverty, of which it is one of the social and biological reproduction mechanisms, and it translates into high rates of infant malnutrition and mortality, as well as other serious deficiencies during childhood. Teenage pregnancy also entails more risk for the mother, as there is a greater likelihood of complications—some of which are life-threatening—during pregnancy and delivery.

Again, women who become mothers before the age of 20 manage to complete around two years of schooling less than those who do not become pregnant before that age. This shortfall substantially reduces the mother's and child's chances of achieving a reasonable level of well-being, and its effects are exacerbated by the fact that pregnancy is far more common among young women from lower-income strata, where education is one of the most vital resources for ensuring the child's survival and quality of life (ECLAC, 1998, chapter V).

¹³ The indicator used for this purpose measures the percentage of women between the ages of 20 and 24 with surviving children who were born to them before they reached 20 years of age. For information on the strengths and weaknesses of this indicator, see box V.3.1 of *Social Panorama of Latin America, 1997*.

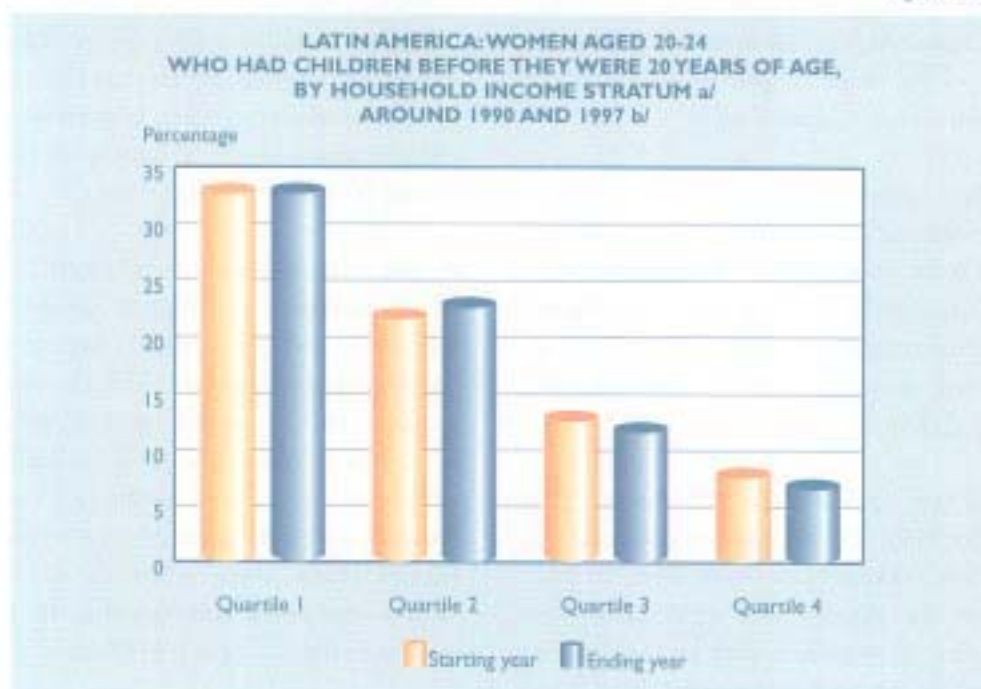
Figure V.19



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

a/ Simple average of the figures for countries having the relevant information available.

Figure V.20



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

a/ Refers to groups of households representing 25% of the total, classified on the basis of income distribution and ranked by income per capita; quartile 1 consists of the 25% of households with the lowest incomes.

b/ Simple average of the figures for countries having the relevant information available.

Table V.16

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 13-14 WHO WORK (Percentages)				
Country	Year	Total	Urban	Rural
Argentina	1990	---	4	---
	1997	---	1	---
Bolivia	1989	---	12	---
	1997	12	10	58
Brazil	1990	26	18	46
	1996	25	17	52
Chile	1990	2	1	5
	1996	2	2	4
Colombia a/	1990	--	5	--
	1994	14	6	24
	1997	11	6	18
Costa Rica	1990	15	5	21
	1997	12	4	18
Ecuador	1990	---	12	---
	1997	---	9	---
Honduras	1990	19	11	25
	1997	23	14	30
Mexico	1989	11	6	18
	1994	14	7	22
Panama b/	1994	7	5	11
	1997	6	2	9
Paraguay c/	1990	---	13	---
	1996	---	22	---
Uruguay d/	1990	---	5	---
	1997	---	6	---
Venezuela	1990	6	---	---
	1997	6	---	---

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

a/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

b/ Because of the way the survey was designed, the figures up to 1991 are for persons aged 15-17.

c/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

d/ Because of the way the survey was designed, the figures are for persons aged 14-17.

Table V.17

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): ADOLESCENTS AGED 15-17 WHO WORK (Percentages)				
Country	Year	Total	Urban	Rural
Argentina	1990	...	19	...
	1997	...	9	...
Bolivia	1989	...	21	...
	1997	44	22	76
Brazil	1990	48	42	63
	1996	44	38	67
Chile	1990	10	7	24
	1996	8	7	16
Colombia ^{a/}	1990	...	17	...
	1994	27	18	40
	1997	23	15	34
Costa Rica	1990	32	21	40
	1997	28	17	36
Ecuador	1990	...	23	...
	1997	...	20	...
Honduras	1990	40	29	47
	1997	44	34	51
Mexico	1989	28	22	37
	1994	30	22	41
Panama	1991	17	13	28
	1997	15	7	26
Paraguay ^{b/}	1990	...	32	...
	1996	...	34	...
Uruguay	1990	...	20	...
	1997	...	17	...
Venezuela	1990	17
	1997	19

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

^{a/} In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

^{b/} Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.18

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 15-17 WHO WORK (Percentages)				
Country	Year	Total	Urban	Rural
Argentina	1990	---	13	---
	1997	---	7	---
Bolivia	1989	---	17	---
	1997	39	17	68
Brazil	1990	39	32	56
	1996	36	29	61
Chile	1990	7	5	17
	1996	6	5	11
Colombia a/	1990	---	12	---
	1994	22	13	34
	1997	18	11	27
Costa Rica	1990	25	15	32
	1997	22	12	28
Ecuador	1990	---	18	---
	1997	---	16	---
Honduras	1990	31	22	37
	1997	35	26	42
Mexico	1989	21	16	29
	1994	23	16	33
Panama b/	1991	17	13	28
	1994	13	10	21
	1997	11	5	19
Paraguay c/	1990	---	24	---
	1996	---	29	---
Uruguay d/	1990	---	16	---
	1997	---	15	---
Venezuela	1990	13	---	---
	1997	14	---	---

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

a/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1993 the survey covered only around half of this population.

b/ Because of the way the survey was designed, the figures up to 1991 are for persons aged 15-17.

c/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

d/ Because of the way the survey was designed, the figures are for persons aged 14-17.

Table V.19

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13-17 WHO WORK, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUANTILE, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)						
Country	Year	Total	Income quartiles			
			1	2	3	4
Argentina	1990	13	12	11	16	14
	1997	7	8	6	5	5
Bolivia	1989	17	9	16	21	23
	1997	17	14	20	19	17
Brazil	1990	32	31	37	34	23
	1996	29	30	32	30	21
Chile	1990	5	4	6	5	4
	1996	5	5	6	4	4
Colombia a/	1990	12	11	11	14	14
	1994	13	11	13	13	15
	1997	11	10	11	13	14
Costa Rica	1990	15	16	18	13	9
	1997	12	11	15	12	8
Ecuador	1990	18	13	20	22	19
	1997	16	15	17	15	17
Honduras	1990	22	19	24	23	22
	1997	26	25	26	29	25
Mexico	1989	16	18	17	16	9
	1994	16	19	19	12	7
Panama b/	1991	13	16	9	11	16
	1994	10	12	9	6	13
	1997	5	5	4	4	10
Paraguay c/	1990	24	20	29	27	22
	1996	29	31	29	27	27
Uruguay d/	1990	16	18	16	16	11
	1997	15	17	15	12	7
Venezuela e/	1990	13	11	13	13	14
	1997	14	12	15	16	11

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

a/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

b/ Because of the way the survey was designed, the figures up to 1991 are for persons aged 15-17.

c/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

d/ Because of the way the survey was designed, the figures are for persons aged 14-17.

e/ Figures are for the national total.

Table V.20

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): ADOLESCENT WOMEN AGED 15-19 WHO WORK EXCLUSIVELY AT DOMESTIC TASKS (Percentages)				
Country	Year	Total	Urban	Rural
Argentina	1990	---	13	---
	1997	---	10	---
Brazil	1990	22	18	32
	1996	17	15	24
Chile	1990	9	7	20
	1996	10	8	21
Colombia a/	1990	---	13	---
	1994	19	12	32
	1997	17	12	27
Costa Rica	1990	16	8	21
	1997	25	14	33
Ecuador	1990	---	12	---
	1997	---	9	---
Honduras	1990	46	25	64
	1997	36	19	52
Mexico	1994	33	24	46
Panama	1991	19	13	35
	1997	18	10	34
Paraguay b/	1995	16	9	22
	1996	---	8	---
Uruguay	1990	---	9	---
	1997	---	8	---
Venezuela	1990	29	---	---
	1997	20	---	---

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

a/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

b/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.21

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): ADOLESCENT WOMEN AGED 15-19 WHO WORK EXCLUSIVELY AT DOMESTIC TASKS, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUANTILE, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)						
Country	Year	Total	Income quartiles			
			1	2	3	4
Argentina	1990	13	21	18	7	0
	1997	10	15	11	5	0
Brazil	1990	18	27	21	13	8
	1996	15	23	16	10	6
Chile	1990	7	10	7	5	2
	1996	8	13	10	3	3
Colombia a/	1990	13	21	16	10	2
	1994	12	18	14	8	3
	1997	12	16	15	9	3
Costa Rica	1990	8	11	9	6	3
	1997	14	20	18	10	4
Ecuador	1990	12	15	13	11	9
	1997	9	12	10	9	3
Honduras	1990	25	38	29	23	8
	1997	19	27	26	13	10
Mexico	1994	24	35	23	17	7
Panama	1991	13	20	15	9	0
	1997	10	15	12	6	1
Paraguay b/	1995	9	14	11	8	3
	1996	8	16	7	6	3
Uruguay	1990	9	16	8	2	1
	1997	8	13	7	4	1
Venezuela c/	1990	29	35	32	26	16
	1997	20	30	18	18	12

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

a/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

b/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

c/ Figures are for the national total.

Table V.22

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): WOMEN AGED 20-24 WITH SURVIVING CHILDREN BORN TO THEM BETWEEN THE AGES OF 15 AND 19 (Percentages)				
Country	Year	Total	Urban	Rural
Argentina	1990	---	18	---
	1997	---	16	---
Bolivia	1989	---	23	---
	1997	25	18	40
Brazil	1993	22	20	30
	1996	21	20	28
Chile	1990	22	21	29
	1996	22	20	31
Colombia a/	1990	--	14	---
	1994	18	17	21
	1997	23	20	30
Costa Rica	1990	26	20	30
	1997	28	23	32
Ecuador	1990	---	20	---
	1997	---	20	---
Honduras	1990	33	25	41
	1997	27	21	35
Mexico	1989	24	19	32
	1994	19	17	24
Panama	1991	21	18	29
	1997	22	16	32
Paraguay b/	1994	---	23	---
	1996	---	23	---
Uruguay	1990	---	12	---
	1997	---	13	---
Venezuela	1994	27	---	---
	1997	26	---	---

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

a/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

b/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.23

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): WOMEN AGED 20-24 WITH SURVIVING CHILDREN BORN TO THEM BETWEEN THE AGES OF 15 AND 19, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)						
Country	Year	Total	Income quartiles			
			1	2	3	4
Argentina	1990	18	39	22	8	1
	1997	16	30	21	7	2
Bolivia	1989	23	30	27	20	16
	1997	18	27	21	14	11
Brazil	1993	20	33	21	13	7
	1996	20	33	21	14	7
Chile	1990	21	37	22	13	7
	1996	20	33	24	12	9
Colombia a/	1990	14	26	14	10	6
	1994	17	25	20	13	9
	1997	20	32	24	14	8
Costa Rica	1990	20	36	23	13	11
	1997	23	37	27	14	11
Ecuador	1990	20	29	22	11	8
	1997	20	31	24	11	11
Honduras	1990	25	34	34	17	16
	1997	21	34	28	14	10
Mexico	1989	19	23	25	15	12
	1994	17	27	21	7	7
Panama	1991	18	33	19	10	6
	1997	16	28	18	8	4
Paraguay b/	1994	23	40	22	16	4
	1996	23	45	35	10	5
Uruguay	1990	12	28	9	4	1
	1997	13	27	9	6	2
Venezuela c/	1994	27	41	31	22	12
	1997	26	40	30	22	11

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

a/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the whole of the country's urban population. Until 1992 the survey covered only around half of this population.

b/ Figures for Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

c/ Figures are for the national total.



Social agenda

PUBLIC SAFETY AND VIOLENCE

INTRODUCTION

The increasing lack of public safety and the mounting level of violence in the region's main cities, as discussed previously in earlier editions of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*, call for an assessment together with policy proposals for dealing with this problem.

The phenomenon of public safety has many dimensions, including a significant subjective component. Learned behaviours are a factor in violence, as in the cases of physical abuse or exposure to it during childhood, or the impact of the media, warfare and the spread of cultural values that accept or promote violent approaches to conflict resolution. This fact is actually encouraging, inasmuch as it means that, since such behaviour is a learned response rather than an innate tendency, it can be modified through the use of preventive policies.

It should be emphasized that violence and delinquency, on the one hand, and, on the other, a perceived lack of public safety are closely related –but nonetheless distinct– phenomena. Not all forms of violence can be classified as criminal behaviour, and hence not all forms of violence have an impact on public safety. By the same token, not all crimes are violent, and there are many crimes that do not alarm the public or make people feel unsafe.

As an initial step towards understanding the relationship between violence and a lack of public safety, the first section of this chapter examines the phenomenon of criminal behaviour, develops victim and perpetrator profiles and discusses the variety of factors associated with violence, the question of equal access to public and private security systems, the socio-economic costs of violence and new forms of criminal behaviour.

The picture that emerges from this analysis raises the question as to what measures can be taken to reduce violence and increase public safety. In an effort to answer that question, the second section presents the views of the mayors of 14 of the region's cities concerning the principal issues to be addressed and the types of approaches that have been successful in confronting them.

The final section is devoted to the international agenda, which reflects the main agreements reached at the Second Summit of the Americas –the Declaration of Santiago and the Plan of Action– as well as the proposals that emerged from the Latin American and Caribbean Regional Youth Meeting preparatory to the third World Youth Forum.

A. THE PROBLEM OF VIOLENCE AND THE LACK OF PUBLIC SAFETY: AN ASSESSMENT

1. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VIOLENCE AND A LACK OF PUBLIC SAFETY

There is a growing perception among the Latin American population that a problem exists in respect of public safety. This view has a factual basis, given the region's rising crime rates, but it has also been driven by the wide coverage that crime receives in the media. Unfortunately, the lack of adequate indicators and comparable statistics on public safety makes it difficult to conduct a systematic assessment of violence in the region.

Violence and public safety have become important items on the political agendas of national and local authorities and of international organizations;¹ they have also become the focus of an ongoing public debate and are of increasing interest and concern to sociologists, political scientists and scholars of human behaviour, as well as to mental health and public health specialists (see box VI.1).

Crime and violence have increased to such an extent in Latin America and the Caribbean that the number of violence-related deaths has begun to affect the general mortality rate (PAHO, 1996). Crime has been on the rise in all of Latin America's cities and is described as a growing problem in many opinion polls.²

The population's growing feeling of insecurity in the face of this situation has been heightened by the wide coverage –excessive coverage, according to some (Chesnais, 1992)– that the media, and television in particular, devote to crime and violence. This sensationalist approach feeds a climate of fear and engenders a strong sense of vulnerability that is not always in line with the actual levels of violence.

Thus, the ways in which public safety is often defined emphasize its intangibility and subjective nature. Broadly speaking, it involves a concern for the quality of life and for human dignity as understood in terms of freedom, market access and

1 The ministries of health of Latin America and the Caribbean identified the prevention of violence as a public health priority in 1993, and the World Health Assembly followed suit in 1996.

2 See chapter VI, "Social Agenda", of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*, 1996 edition.

UNCIVIL SOCIETY: THREATS TO GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT

"One of the starkest contrasts I see in our world today is the gulf that exists between the civil and the 'uncivil'. By civil, I mean civilization: the accumulated centuries of learning that form our foundation for progress. By civil, I also mean tolerance: the pluralism and respect with which we accept and draw strength from the world's diverse peoples. And finally, I mean civil society: the citizens' groups, businesses, unions, professors, journalists, political parties and others who have an essential role to play in the running of any society.

Arrayed against these constructive forces, however—in ever greater numbers and with ever stronger weapons—are the forces of what I call 'uncivil society'. They are terrorists, criminals, drug dealers, traffickers in people and others who undo the good works of civil society. They take advantage of the open borders, free markets and technological advances that bring so many benefits to the world's people.

They thrive in countries with weak laws and institutions. And they show no scruple about resorting to intimidation or violence. Their ruthlessness is the very antithesis of all we regard as civil. They are powerful, representing entrenched interests and the clout of a global enterprise worth billions of dollars. But they are not invincible."

Source: Kofi Annan, "Uncivil Society", a "magisterial lecture" given by the Secretary-General of the United Nations at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Mexico City on 23 July 1998.

social opportunities. An entire range of factors may jeopardize it, including poverty and a lack of opportunity, unemployment, hunger, environmental deterioration, political repression, violence, crime and drug addiction.³

The phrase refers principally to a condition in which people do not fear that they will be the victim of a violent attack because they know that people's physical integrity is respected. To feel safe means above all to be free to enjoy the privacy of one's home without fear of being attacked and to be able

to move about the streets without being threatened by the possibility of robbery or violence. This sort of physical safety related to the fundamental rules of peaceful coexistence.⁴

Public safety contributes to such a climate and can be understood as the result of a coherent package of complementary policies and measures aimed at guaranteeing peace and order by preventing and suppressing crime and public disturbances through crime control and policing.⁵

3 Latin American and Caribbean Institute for Economic and Social Planning (ILPES). *Guía para la identificación, preparación y evaluación de proyectos de seguridad ciudadana: con énfasis en vigilancia policial* (LC/IP/L.149), Santiago, Chile, 1998.

4 United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). *Human Development in Chile, 1998. The Paradoxes of Modernization*, Santiago, Chile, March 1998, p. 128.

5 Samuel González, Ernesto López and José Núñez. "Seguridad pública en México. Problemas, perspectivas y propuestas", *Justicia* series, Mexico City, National Autonomous University of Mexico (UNAM), 1994.

2. FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH INCREASING VIOLENCE AND A LACK OF PUBLIC SAFETY

Violence is a phenomenon with many causes and dimensions which is influenced by individual, family and social circumstances that affect domestic and social behaviour patterns. Rapid modernization and the spread of mercantilism, in combination with the influence of the mass media and the aftermath of war in various countries, appear to have created an environment that has undermined public safety. It is likely that this situation will grow more serious in the future due to the lack of confidence in institutional controls and the belief that corruption is on the rise.

The various forms taken by violence, which is on the increase in the larger cities, are in part the result of individual, family-related, social, and cultural factors that influence domestic and social behaviour patterns (IDB, 1998). The phenomenon of violence can best be examined by using the type of multi-causal approach customary in public health work to identify factors that produce violence or that are frequently associated with it (Guerrero, 1998).

As for factors related to social position and family circumstances, a much larger percentage of victims and perpetrators are young men (see section 5). Job uncertainty aggravates the tension created by poor economic conditions and overcrowding, all of which undermines social integration and leads to marginalization. Low educational levels and the experience of undergoing or witnessing physical abuse as a child are other factors that limit individuals' repertoire of responses to conflict, which can result in higher levels of violence.

Other relevant social factors that, according to some, play an important role include violence in

mass media, not only because a disproportionate amount of time is devoted to violent acts but also because they present models of conflict resolution based on the use of violence. Rather than providing an escape valve for aggressive impulses, violence in the media tends to instigate violent behaviour, producing a "copy-cat effect" among viewers (Aronson, 1995). Other experts, however, feel that the influence of this factor is minimal.

Among the disruptive contextual factors associated with violence are post-war periods, since war legitimizes aggression. If one adds to this the wide availability of weapons found in post-war zones, it becomes clear that societies that have recently emerged from civil conflicts are more likely to develop patterns of violence, with serious consequences. It has been estimated that firearm possession in the home increases the risk of death from such weapons by 2.7% (Guerrero, 1997). In Guatemala, there are two million firearms in the hands of 36% of the civilian population over 15 years of age (Gutiérrez, 1998). In Colombia, 82% of homicides were committed with firearms in 1996

(Colombia, National Reference Centre on Violence, Division of Forensic Services, 1996).

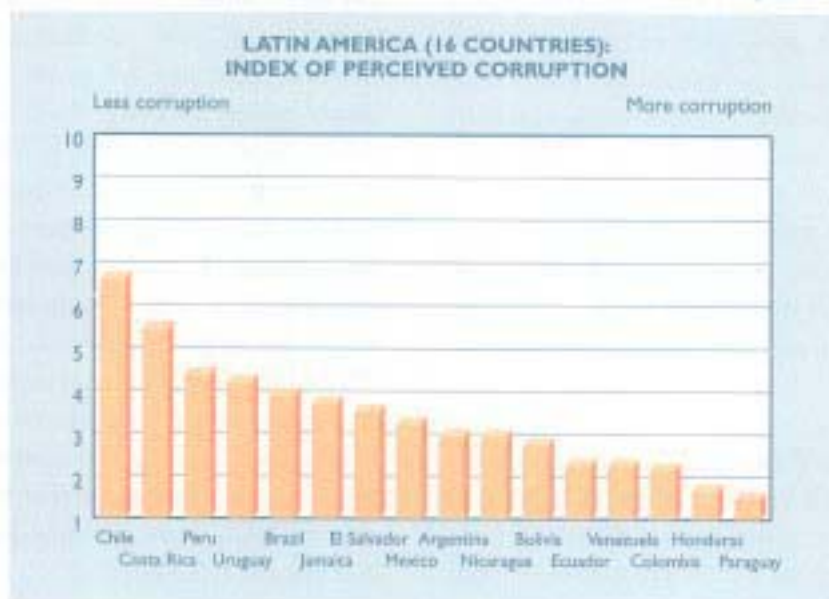
Drug dealing and alcohol consumption are also important factors in triggering child abuse and domestic and other forms of violence (Larraín, Vega and Delgado, 1997). According to data from the Development, Security, and Peace (Desepaz) Programme, established in Cali in 1993, 56% of homicides occur on the three weekend days, with a quarter of them being committed on Sunday and a disproportionate increase on holidays. In Bogotá, 57% of the alcohol tests performed on people implicated in homicides with firearms were positive (Colombia, National Reference Centre on Violence, Division of Forensic Services, 1996).

Finally, the absence of effective institutional controls encourages violence. The failure of judicial systems to function properly undermines the credibility of the institutional structure, including the police force. Chilean data for 1996 indicate that a stay of criminal proceedings was issued in 96% of simple robbery cases, 91% of robbery cases involving bodily violence, and 91% of theft cases. This, along with the ponderous pace of the criminal justice system, would explain the

fact that in 1997 only 40% of robberies and thefts were reported (Fundación Paz Ciudadana, 1998). From the criminal's point of view, this sort of impunity makes their crimes safer to commit, and a quick but effective assessment of the situation shows the delinquent how little is at risk (in terms of prison time) compared with the potential benefits. On the other hand, this kind of situation leaves the victim with a feeling of vulnerability caused by a lack of legal or police protection which in extreme cases can lead people to take justice into their own hands.

The justice system tends to be slow and inefficient. Added to this is the general perception (varying widely, however, from country to country) of an increase in government corruption, which further undermines confidence in the ability of the authorities to resolve public safety problems. Transparency International has an index covering 85 countries which measures the perceived amount of corruption in each country. Sixteen Latin American nations are included in this index, and 14 of them are below the world median, signifying high levels of corruption. This index of perceived corruption does not measure the magnitude of corruption actually present (see figure VI.1).

Figure VI.1



Source: Transparency International, Annual Index, 1998.

Note: The study looked at 85 countries around the world; these countries were then classified using a scale of 1 (most corruption) to 10 (least corruption).

3. POVERTY, CRIME AND VIOLENCE

Violence has historically been associated with poverty. However, this association is misleading, since it is conditions of social inequality –in conjunction with other social factors– more than poverty per se that increase violence and undermine public safety. Nevertheless, the relationship between unemployment and violence is a recognized fact, as is the fact that violence in turn creates conditions of poverty.

There is a tendency to associate growing urban poverty with increasing violence, crime and a lack of safety in urban areas. There are two basic theories that seek to explain criminal behaviour. One is the Maltón theory, according to which criminal behaviour is a function of the individual's ability to achieve the goals that are equated with success within that person's social environment and of the importance placed on economic success; this theory therefore posits a significant correlation between poverty and crime. The other is the Sutherland theory, according to which the primary causes of crime lie in the existence of subcultures of delinquents (groups of friends and family or groups formed in prison) that exchange criminal know-how (ILPES, 1998).

It is a fairly widely held view that poverty generates frustration and that this leads to extreme or aggressive behaviour, culminating in incidents of violence. From this point of view, economic crises are seen as forcing large masses of the population out of the formal labour market; the resulting frustration then leads to aggressive behaviour which in turn accounts for the violence existing in the region's large cities.

However, this analysis (poverty → frustration → aggression) may be too simplistic to account for the diverse and changing forms that violence takes. In point of fact, there is evidence both for and against this interpretation. According to a study conducted in the metropolitan region of Santiago, Chile, every increase of one percentage point in the unemployment rate brings an estimated 4% rise in crimes against property, theft and robbery (García, 1997). Another study done in Chile in the late 1980s found that a greater tendency towards violence existing among groups of people who had hopes of reintegrating themselves (unemployed people) and among persons who already held regular jobs than among the people who were outside the labour market (PREALC, 1989). Informal workers have been found to display attitudes of adaptation and resignation. This suggests that aggressive behaviour is not the only response to frustration and that those individuals who react violently have probably learned to respond in that manner (see box VI.2).

Without denying the contributions made by these theories, it is important to consider contextual factors such as networks of relationships based on

POVERTY DOES NOT CAUSE CRIME

If it did,

1. There would be more crime in the less developed countries, while the more developed, rich countries would invariably be the safest ones.
2. The worst problems with regard to public safety would occur during major economic crises, which is not always the case.
3. The areas of a country with the highest crime rates would be the ones that are the most economically depressed areas, which is not always the case.
4. Many criminals would be workers who earn the minimum wage or people who are unemployed or who have been looking for work for a long time.
5. We would have to accept the proposition that hunger and desperation prompt people to organize and to seek other ways of obtaining funds and logistic capabilities; in other words, we would have to accept the proposition that poverty is the cause of organized crime.
6. As economies grew, crime rates would fall.
7. Eliminating crime would simply be a matter of economic policy and the distribution of wealth.
8. All poor people would be potential criminals.

Source: Based on Instituto Mexicano de Estudios de la Criminalidad Organizada, A.C. (IMECO), *Todo lo que debería saber sobre el crimen organizado en México*, Mexico City, Editorial Océano, 1998.

trust within a community, which contribute to much smoother forms of interaction and help to reduce violence, even under poverty conditions. This "social capital" (Putnam, 1993) is what may make the difference between a poor community in which there is little violence and a similar but much more violent community.

Even when poverty is not the direct cause of crime, the two phenomena are still linked. Many experts on the subject consider poverty to be a significant factor. This belief is based on the profiles of persons who are arrested and convicted, a majority of whom are males from the lower socio-economic strata. However,

account must also be taken of just how small a percentage of the crimes that are committed are actually reported and how small a percentage of suspects are actually brought to trial and (most importantly) convicted, as well as the large number of crimes that go unpunished, especially in the case of white-collar crimes and corruption, which are often difficult to prove and which may be committed by criminals with higher educational and income levels.

Conversely, crime itself has a role in creating poverty, especially given the effects it has in terms of the reduction of the countries' pool of physical, human and social capital (see section 6).

4. MEASURING CRIME

It is not possible to arrive at accurate measurements of the magnitude of violent crime in Latin America, or of the public perception of safety or lack thereof, because the indicators that are used are badly defined, information sources are not reliable, and there are not enough national institutions equipped to centralize, systematize or consolidate the relevant information.

When researchers attempt to measure crime rates, they run into difficulties due to the diversity of definitions and categories that are in use (see table VI.3). Definitions of violence tend to be confined to physical violence so as to facilitate the use of traditional data collection methods based on such sources as records of injuries and deaths. Psychological or emotional damage can also have permanent and disabling consequences, however (Larraín, Vega and Delgado, 1997).

In addition, most of the countries have no national agency that compiles, systematizes or consolidates crime statistics. In general, information is recorded by three types of agencies which then serve as data sources: the police force, which prepares crime reports; the courts, where criminal proceedings are held; and the health-care system, which records deaths and injuries. Public opinion polls are not conducted on an ongoing basis to evaluate changes in perceptions of public safety.

Those statistics that are compiled are also unreliable, due to the under-reporting of such crimes as petty violence, robbery, theft and, especially, sexual and domestic violence. An increase in reports of the latter type of crime has been observed in almost all

the countries. This is surely not attributable to an actual rise in the frequency of such acts, but rather to a higher rate of reporting resulting from a change in attitude whereby this type of behaviour is no longer regarded as a private matter, but is instead considered to be a crime.

Some countries are improving their statistical record-keeping procedures. Brazil, Chile, Colombia, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Peru, and Venezuela have made progress in categorizing and recording acts of violence, in measuring their economic costs and in utilizing other methodologies for evaluating violence, such as victim surveys, which make it possible to gauge the actual prevalence of violence. As part of a study conducted in Peru, an index has been developed which assigns different weights to crimes based on their seriousness. Using this index, the various regions of the country are assigned to one of four categories, ranging from the least safe (including Lima) to the safest (Cajamarca). This index makes it possible to monitor trends and make comparisons (Toche and Reyna, 1998).

Statistics on violent acts, especially homicides, are often used for two main reasons: the seriousness of the acts themselves and the fact that, because they

TYPES AND LEVELS OF VIOLENCE

There is a great diversity of types and levels of violence.

Violence may be instrumental or proactive, i.e., carried out to achieve a goal other than the violence itself (for example, political violence or the violence associated with drug trafficking), or it may be emotional or reactive, a type also referred to as hostile,^{a/} which is a violent reaction whose ultimate goal is to cause harm.

Depending on its nature, violence can be categorized as physical, psychological or sexual. It can also be classified according to the victim involved (children, women, the elderly), according to the motive violence (political, racial, etc.), according to where it occurs (domestic violence, violence in the workplace, street violence, stadium violence).^{b/}

Violence can also occur at different levels (individual, domestic or intra-family, social),^{c/} and may be differentiated by its effects on the victim. Thus, it can be cross-categorized, as follows: ^{d/}

	Examples of violence	
	Physical	Psychological
Personal	Assault Rape Homicide	Paternalism Harassment Defamation
Institutional	Riots Terrorism War	Slavery Racism Sexism

a/ Elliot Aronson, *El animal social. Introducción a la psicología social*, Madrid, Alianza Universidad, 1995.

b/ Rodrigo Guerrero, *Violencia en las Américas, una amenaza a la integración social* (LC/R.1795), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 1998.

c/ Soledad Larrain, Jeanneta Vega and Iris Delgado, *Relaciones familiares y maltrato infantil*, Santiago, Chile, United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Editorial Calicanto, 1997.

d/ Robert Licko, "Violence and power" *International Social Science Journal*, No. 132, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), 1992.

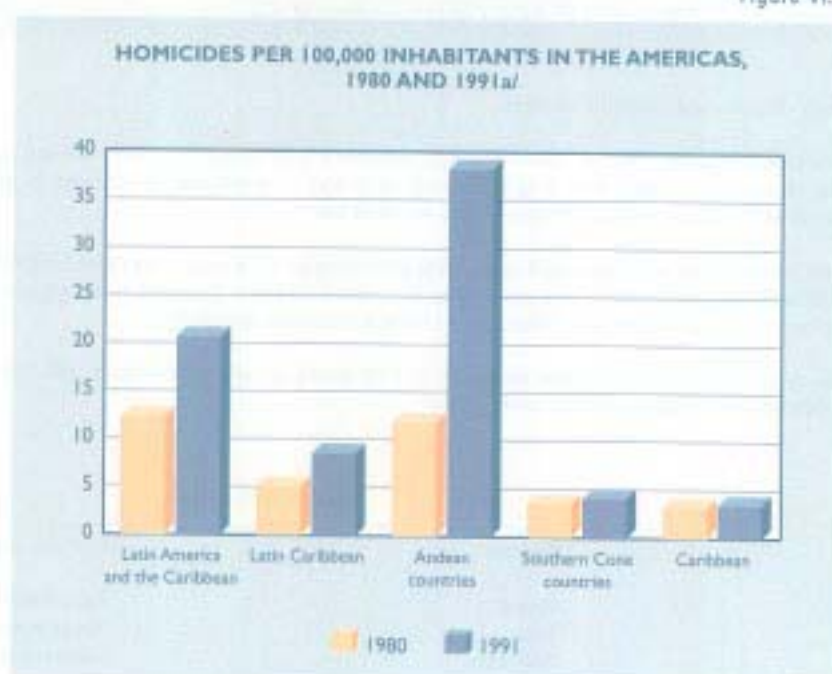
are so serious, greater diligence is exercised in keeping accurate records on these types of crimes. The indicator chosen here for purposes of regional comparison is the homicide rate per 100,000 inhabitants. The results indicate that during the 1980s and 1990s violence in the region has risen. International comparisons conducted in the early 1990s describe Latin America and the Caribbean as one of the most violent regions in the world, with rates averaging around 20 homicides per 100,000 inhabitants (Guerrero, 1998) (see figure VI.2), and

in six countries the rate was about 30 per 100,000 in 1995 (Londoño, 1998).

There are also great differences among subregions, countries and cities within a given country. Colombia, which in the early 1990s had one of the highest homicide rates in the world (almost 90 per 100,000 inhabitants), contrasts notably with Chile, which had only 3 homicides per 100,000.⁶ Colombia's homicide rate was down to 65 per 100,000 in 1996, but the total crime rate has remained constant, and

6 Chile's figure of 3.0 per 100,000 represents homicides reported to the police. For the same year, the rate as measured by the number of homicide cases reaching the courts was 8.9 per, and in 1995 it was 8.3 per 100,000 (Fundación Paz Ciudadana, 1997).

Figure VI.2



a/ Does not include Haiti or Bolivia.

the society's perception of insecurity has grown (Trujillo and Badel, 1998). There are appreciable regional differences to be considered, however. For example, in 1996, the rate was 208 in Medellín, 108 in Cali, 60 in Bogotá and 35 in Cartagena (Colombia, National Reference Centre on Violence, Division of Forensic Services, 1996). Most of the countries show an increase in homicides; in fact, the rate rose in 10 out of 13 countries during the period under review, and in four of them the increase was by a factor of between four and six (Colombia, Panama, Peru, and Trinidad and Tobago) (see table VI.1).

The frequency of crimes against property also varies widely from country to country, especially in the

cases of theft involving force and robbery involving bodily violence. Rates per 100,000 inhabitants range from 1,800 (Bermuda) to 25 (Colombia) for theft with force, and between 523 (Costa Rica) and 97 (Uruguay) for robbery with violence.⁷ This heterogeneity is due in part to the use of different definitions of theft involving force and of robbery involving bodily violence.

Other types of crimes have also increased. It is estimated that in the early 1990s the kidnapping rate increased by more than one per 100,000 inhabitants per year in three countries—Colombia, Guatemala, and Mexico—reaching 9.7 in Colombia (LASR, 1997).

⁷ Information provided by Hugo Frühling based on the text "The Fifth United Nations Survey of Crime Trends and Operations of Criminal Justice Systems" in the second international course on the evaluation of public safety projects, organized by the Latin American and Caribbean Institute for Economic and Social Planning (ILPES) and held in Santiago, Chile, from 7 August to 4 September 1998.

Table VI.1

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): HOMICIDES PER 100,000 INHABITANTS AROUND 1980 AND AROUND 1990		
Country	Late 1970s, early 1980s	Late 1980s, early 1990s
Colombia	20.5	89.5
Brazil	11.5	19.7
Mexico	18.2	17.8
Venezuela	11.7	15.2
Trinidad and Tobago	2.1	12.6
Peru	2.4	11.3
Panama	2.1	10.9
Ecuador	6.4	10.3
Argentina	3.9	4.8
Costa Rica	5.7	4.1
Uruguay	2.6	4.4
Paraguay	5.1	4.0
Chile	2.6	3.0

Sources: Robert Ayres, *Crime and Violence as Development Issues in Latin America and the Caribbean*, World Bank Latin American and Caribbean Studies, Washington, D.C., January 1998.

5. PROFILE OF VICTIMS AND PERPETRATORS

The persons implicated in homicides are often young men from the lower socio-economic strata. The victims of domestic violence are generally women and children, and their assailants may be men of varying ages and socio-economic strata.

The people most often involved as perpetrators and victims in homicides are men, mainly young men. In Latin America, mortality and disability due to all external causes⁸ represent, for men, 20.5% of years of life adjusted for disability, and for women, 8.1%. The highest rates of mortality due to external causes for the 15-24 age group are in Brazil, Colombia, and El Salvador, and the lowest in Barbados and Jamaica. The male population's risk of death due to external causes is five times greater than the female population's (PAHO, 1994).

Most homicides in Colombia involve young men between 15 and 34 years of age, with the male/female ratio being 13:1 (Colombia, National Reference Centre on Violence, Division of Forensic Services, 1996). In 1996, 65.2% of all homicide victims were men between 15 and 34 years of age. In fact, homicide is the leading cause of death among adolescents and young men in Colombia: in 41,000 of the 112,000 homicides that occurred between 1991 and 1995, the victims were young people. In Medellín, there are around 200 gangs formed by people between 12 and 22 years of age who often

clash with one another. There are also children between the ages of 8 and 10, known as "carritos", ("little carts") who transport weapons for the gangs. Some of these gangs attain great economic power by operating a system of "vaccinations", which are payments that buses and commercial establishments in working-class neighbourhoods must make in order to operate without risk of attack by these gangs (each bus has to pay between 20,000 and 25,000 pesos, or approximately US\$ 20 to US\$ 25). In Chile, the involvement of minors in robberies entailing bodily violence is also on the rise, with the percentage of assailants under 18 years of age climbing from 21% of such crimes in 1995 to 32% in 1997 (Fundación Paz Ciudadana, 1998).

Most of the victims fit a similar description: male, young, single and from lower socio-economic strata (see table VI.2). Changes in the profile of the criminal and in typical modus operandi have also been noted. Chilean police authorities indicate that in recent years a larger percentage of criminals are armed (close to 99%) and use drugs (70% of the young people who commit crimes).⁹

⁸ Mortality due to external causes includes intentionally inflicted fatal wounds, i.e., homicides and suicides, and non-intentional ones, such as death due to accidents.

⁹ Interview with Police Captain Marcelo Cáceres, and research by the Fundación Paz Ciudadana, Adimark and the prison guard service, respectively. Cited in "Por qué gana la delincuencia", *Los Últimos Noticias*, Santiago, Chile, 26 April 1998.

In short, data from various countries in the region indicate that a majority of perpetrators are young men from lower socio-economic strata who have dropped out of school and who, as shown by a number of case studies, have been victims of violence in the home.

In the case of domestic violence, which over the last few years has increasingly come to be recognized as a crime, especially within the justice system,¹⁰ the main victims are women. A research project conducted in Managua and Santiago which focused on women from 15 to 49 years of age who had partners at the time of the survey identified several different types of violence: psychological, severe physical, moderate physical, and sexual. The study's

findings indicate that although the historic, economic, and social development of the two cities has differed, these differences are not reflected to any very notable extent in their patterns of domestic violence, although the rate is higher in Managua (52.6%) than in Santiago (40.7%) (see figure VL3).

Violence against children has also risen. According to one estimate, there are six million minors in the region who are victims of abuse, and 80,000 die each year as a result of injuries caused by their parents, family members or others (Ayres, 1998).¹¹ In some countries, civil wars have also affected children. One study estimates that between 100,000 and 250,000 children in Guatemala lost one or both parents as a result of the war in that country (PAHO, 1996).

Table VI.2

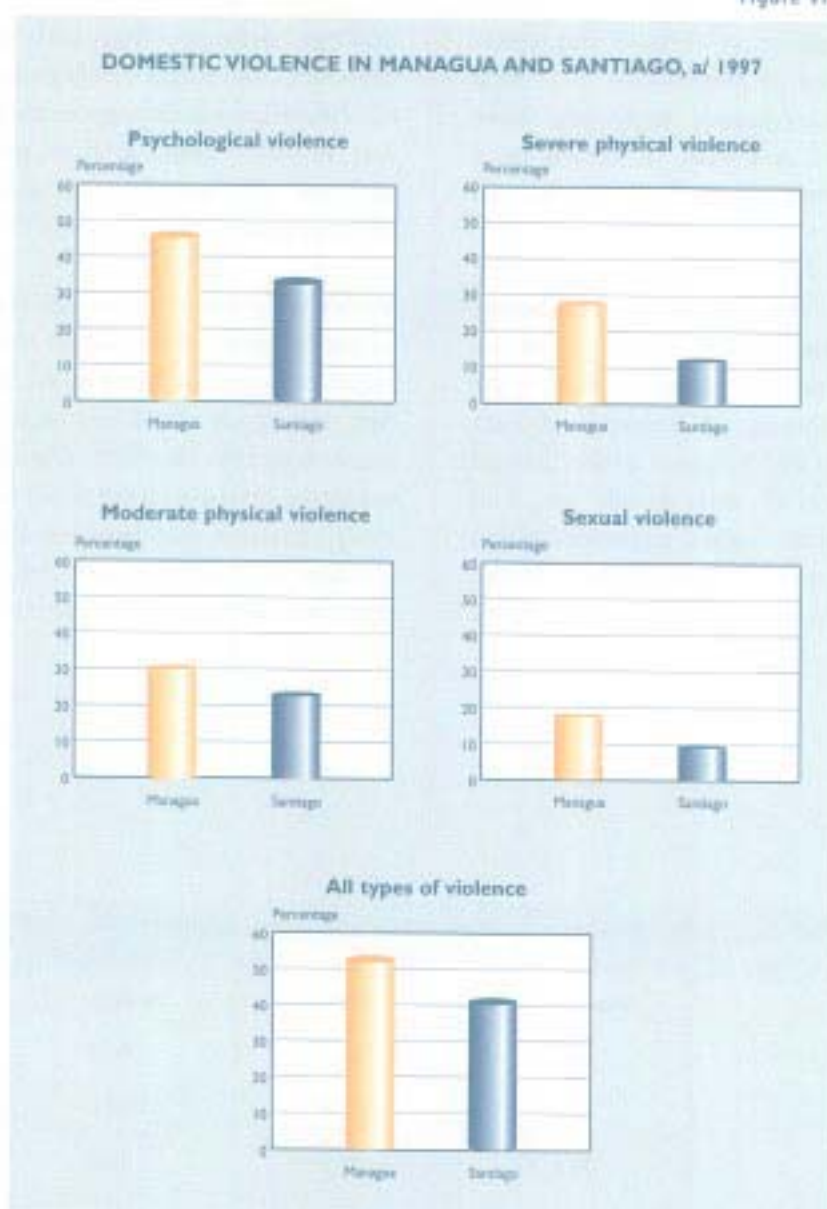
CHILE: PROFILE OF THOSE ARRESTED FOR HOMICIDE, RAPE, ROBBERY, AND THEFT, 1996 (Percentages)				
Profile / Crime	Homicide	Rape	Robbery	Theft
Male	87.4	98.2	94.0	73.2
15 to 24 years old	46.4	27.9	60.1	46.4
25 to 34 years old	29.4	32.9	20.8	26.1
Single	71.3	65.2	83.9	69.6
Worker	50.9	53.4	29.8	26.3
Without profession or trade	26.5	13.9	44.7	35.0

Source: Fundación Paz Ciudadana, Anuario de estadísticas criminales, Santiago, Chile, 1997.

10. All the countries have ratified the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women, signed in 1994 in Belém do Pará, and have consequently modified their legislation to include sanctions against violence within the family (Arriagada, 1998).

11. It is said that in the United States the number of children who die at the hands of their parents is ten times greater than the number of those who die at school. The tradition of learning by example rarely has such tragic consequences as here. "Foretelling violence", *Scientific American*, vol. 279, No. 3, September 1998.

Figure VI.3



a/ Women between the ages of 15 and 49 who were living with a male companion at the time the survey was conducted.

6. THE ECONOMIC COSTS OF A LACK OF PUBLIC SAFETY

Violence damages physical, human and social capital and degrades governmental capabilities for dealing with it. Methods of calculating the economic costs of violence, which have only been developed fairly recently, are seen as a means of fostering the necessary political will, at both the international and national levels, to design effective programmes for tackling this problem. However, although these calculations of economic costs serve as an important indicator, their reliability is limited by a lack of suitable statistics.

During the 1990s various attempts have been made to measure the economic costs of violence, despite the difficulties involved in international comparisons due to the existence of varying definitions of what constitute economic costs and the unreliability of the statistical basis for such computations (see box VI.4).

Violence has substantial costs, including its negative impacts on physical capital. For example, it is estimated that Peru's public infrastructure has sustained cumulative losses of US\$ 25 million caused by terrorism (Ayres, 1998).

Second, violence erodes human capital and people's health, and leads to absenteeism and occupational disabilities among its victims.

Third, violence destroys what is known as "social capital." A study in Jamaica concluded that one of the most evident effects of violence was the social fragmentation of the affected communities, which makes it difficult for any community organization

not based on fear and coercion to operate (Moser and Holland, 1997).

Finally, violence erodes Governments' response capacity. In addition to encouraging corruption, increased violence makes it necessary to devote resources to combating violence which could otherwise be used to promote development. What is more, the population begins to resort to private security system when people begin to feel that the State is ineffective in this area, and this undermines the Government's legitimacy and relevance. The negative effects of violence on growth and poverty reduction in the region are commonly acknowledged (Ayres, 1998).

It is estimated that in Colombia the cost of violence, in gross terms, averaged 4.3% of GDP on an annual basis between 1991 and 1997. These costs include: (a) loss of human life and capital calculated according to the economic value assigned to homicide victims (1.3% of GDP); (b) illegal transfers of goods and funds made in connection

CLASSIFICATION OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC COSTS OF VIOLENCE

There are a number of different definitions and classifications of the socio-economic costs of violence. The IDB ^{a/} distinguishes among the following categories:

Direct costs	: health, police, criminal justice, housing, social services.
Indirect costs	: higher morbidity rate, higher mortality rate due to homicide and suicide, drug and alcohol abuse, depressive disorders.
Economic multiplier effects	: macroeconomic impacts, effect on the labour market and on inter-generational productivity.
Social multiplier effects	: impact on interpersonal relations and on the quality of life.

Trujillo and Badel also differentiate between direct and indirect costs. For them, however, indirect costs are the negative by-products of violence (loss of productivity, reduction or diversion of investment, poor resource allocation, and increased transaction costs), which are what IDB refers to as economic multiplier effects.

Viewing the subject from a different vantage point, some authors also differentiate between:

Gross cost	: costs borne by the victim, as in a kidnapping.
Net cost	: macroeconomic costs (which, in the case of a robbery or kidnapping, would not exist because the crime constitutes a transfer, since it neither adds nor subtracts value). ^{b/}

a/ Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), "Building Peaceable Societies: A Frame of Reference for Action", Washington, D.C., Social Programmes and Sustainable Development Department, 1998.

b/ Edgar Trujillo and Martha Badel, "Los costos económicos de la criminalidad y la violencia en Colombia 1991-1996", *Archivos de macroeconomía*, No. 76, Bogotá, Macroeconomic Analysis Unit, National Planning Department (DNP), March 1998.

with criminal activity (more than 1.1% of GDP); (c) additional military and private security service expenditures that would not have been necessary under other conditions (1.6% of GDP); and (d) the cost of health services and medical care, as well as psychological services and physical rehabilitation for victims (0.3% of GDP). The net cost equals 3.1% of GDP. Though "traditional" types of conflicts in Colombia (guerrilla activity, drug trafficking and paramilitary action) have played a much more important role in the international press, the impact

of urban violence (crime and domestic and petty violence) appears to have been more costly for the economy (Trujillo and Badel, 1998).

Studies on the economic costs of violence aim to fortify the political will to act, but they encounter a major problem in the lack of statistical information, which means that estimates are only of a very approximate nature in many cases. This constitutes yet another argument for improving upon existing methods of measuring these phenomena.

7. EQUAL ACCESS TO COVERAGE BY PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECURITY SERVICES

Security, like income, is not an equitably distributed good, either in terms of coverage or in relation to access to public and private security services.

Violence and insecurity among the inhabitants of large cities generate significant social and economic costs that are not equally distributed throughout society. More than half of all insurance policies covering kidnapping in the world are bought in Latin America (Newsweek, 1998). In Guatemala, total private expenditure for security is at least 20% more than the public budget for the same purpose (Gutiérrez, 1998). In São Paulo, there are three times as many private security guards as government police (Newsweek, 1998).

Social differences are clearly observable with regard to security. High-income sectors of the population, in order to supplement the protection offered by police, avail themselves of a wide range of security services and products that are often provided in coordination with municipal governments, and this arrangement facilitates the implementation of security plans. In poorer municipalities, security is often left up to the general public, which must resort to neighbourhood patrols and other more rudimentary ways (home-made alarm systems) of protecting themselves against muggings and other crimes. Though the participation of an organized

community in confronting violence may help to increase the effectiveness of programmes set up by local authorities, it becomes a problem when community participation is the only alternative because of a lack of police protection. Such situations are illustrated by the operation of civic organizations in Guatemala—where close to 200,000 people have formed community patrols—and by the private patrols of rural Peru, which attempt to fill the gaps left by the police force and the judicial system.

Access to private security services (including alarm services, guards, etc.) is also unequal, which obviously heightens social differences. Security problems have led to changes in urban configurations and have limited neighbourhood sociability, producing closed neighbourhoods and shopping centres, more condominiums, private guards, etc.

People's feelings of being unprotected and vulnerable differ depending on whether they live in high-income or low-income areas. A lack of security in the latter is primarily manifested in a

fear of physical harm, while the predominant fear in higher-income areas is connected with property. On the other hand, kidnapping for monetary gain mostly affects wealthy sectors, whose members may feel so vulnerable that they may even leave the country. In Guatemala, at least five important families (some 40 people), all victims of kidnapping or extortion, have decided to emigrate because they feel the Government is unable to protect them. Much the same thing occurred in Colombia and Peru during the peak years of terrorist activity in those countries.

Private efforts to increase security have also led to a proliferation of weapons among the civilian

population. Rather than reducing crime (robbery, homicides), this may—in some cases—actually increase the risk of victims being killed, and it certainly aggravates the consequences of violent acts.

These factors have, in many cases, carried the situation beyond the enforcement and crime-solving capabilities of the countries' police forces and criminal justice systems. This is what lies at the roots of many people's increased tendency to take justice into their own hands and to resort to private security services. Fear, ineffective justice systems, and the increasingly violent nature of many of the crimes that are committed produce a perception of greater insecurity on the part of citizens.

8. NEW MANIFESTATIONS OF VIOLENCE

The forms of violence seen in the region include a mix of political violence and common crime. Crimes are also becoming increasingly violent, often as a consequence of drug use and the ready availability of firearms. Types of violence associated with organized crime are also emerging, along with new forms of drug trafficking and of smuggling both people and weapons.

New types of crime are beginning to be seen in various countries of the region that are an unorthodox and contradictory mixture of political violence, such as guerrilla and para-military activity, on the one hand, and more traditional sorts of crime, on the other.

Emerging forms of international crime are even more alarming, however, given the amount of resources they divert and the impact they have at a global level. This includes new forms of drug

trafficking, illicit activities involving electronic fraud (mainly involving credit cards), and trafficking in people, organs and blood products, and nuclear materials and arms (IMECO, 1998). International crime has perhaps been somewhat quicker to take advantage of technological advances than the institutions responsible for public safety have, as many of these institutions have not yet modernized their information systems or their systems for controlling these types of illegal activities.

B. PUBLIC SAFETY ISSUES AS VIEWED BY LOCAL AUTHORITIES: MEASURES TAKEN

1. THE MAIN PROBLEMS OBSERVED

Local authorities have identified homicide, the various types of theft and robbery, and drug trafficking and use as the main problems in respect of public safety and security. Increased domestic violence and child abuse are also of concern.

To identify the most important problems relating to public safety and security in the region, the mayors of major cities were surveyed. The information that was gathered is presented using the same terms as were used by the respondents in order to accurately reflect their perception of these problems.

Violent deaths (homicides and accidents) is a major problem. In fact, in four cities, this was felt to be the most important (Bogotá, Medellín, São Paulo, and Santa Cruz) and in another it was listed as the second-most important (Quito). Robbery, assault and muggings were the number-one concern in Buenos Aires and San José, and were ranked in second or third place in Bogotá, Mexico City, Medellín, Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, San José, and Santiago, Chile. Drug use was identified as a priority in Panama City

and Lima, and drug trafficking was high on the list in Rio de Janeiro, San José, and São Paulo. A slightly lower though still high priority was placed on domestic violence and child abuse (Bogotá, Lima, and Panama City), followed very closely by police corruption and an insufficient number of police (Buenos Aires and Mexico) and, at a slightly lower ranking, criminal and gang violence. Unemployment, prostitution and organized crime (problems identified as being of prime importance in Managua, Lima and Mexico City, respectively) and the sale of uncertified products (the only problem mentioned for La Paz) seem to reflect more circumscribed situations (see table VI.3).

The types of action that have been taken by the authorities to address problems of public safety and security are discussed in the following section.

Table VI.3

LATIN AMERICA (14 CITIES): THE THREE PRINCIPAL PROBLEMS OF PUBLIC SAFETY IDENTIFIED BY LOCAL AUTHORITIES			
City	First priority	Second priority	Third priority
Buenos Aires	Property crimes.	Violence in criminal behaviour.	Need for greater police presence on the streets.
Panama City	Drug addiction.	Domestic violence.	Armed crime.
La Paz	Illegal sale of contraband medicines that have no guarantee or expiration date.	Street sale of food products without any guarantee of quality.	Sale of used clothing of dubious origin without meeting minimum disinfection standards.
Lima	Street prostitution without health controls.	Retail drug dealing and use.	Material and psychological abandonment of minors, leading to antisocial behaviour.
Managua	High unemployment and, as a result, very serious economic problems in the household.	Growing number of gangs in the city.	Property problems.
Medellín	Homicide.	Widespread mugging.	Car and motorcycle theft.
Mexico City	Organized crime (robbery of public transport and freight drivers, robbery of motor vehicles and banks, kidnapping).	Muggings and pick-pocketing.	Corruption and inefficiency in the police force.
Quito	Traffic accidents.	Homicide and other crime.	Medical emergencies.
Rio de Janeiro	Drug dealing.	Hold-ups.	Car theft.
San José, Costa Rica	Muggings and other assaults.	Robbery.	Illegal drug traffic.
Santa Cruz de la Sierra	Higher crime rate.	Unauthorized appropriation of private and municipal property.	Emergence of neighbourhood gangs, which disturbs the community and makes it less safe.
Bogotá	Common homicides, deaths from traffic accidents and personal injury.	Stealing (mugging, residential burglary/robbery, bank robbery, car and motorcycle theft, hold-ups of businesses).	Intolerance among the general population, domestic violence and child abuse.
Santiago, Chile	Theft.	Robbery with force.	Robbery with violence.
São Paulo	Execution-style killings in connection with drug dealer's wars.	Drug dealing in schools and among adolescents.	Bank and freight robberies.

Source: ECLAC, survey on public safety sent to the authorities of 23 cities in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1998.

2. PRINCIPAL MEASURES FOR INCREASING PUBLIC SAFETY AND SECURITY

Measures for enhancing public safety can be divided into three main groups: prevention, enforcement and combined measures. The latter have proved to be the most successful, given the multi-dimensional nature of violence. Along with enforcement measures and various forms of primary or secondary preventive action, other important measures include inter-institutional coordination, the ongoing collection of statistical data and community participation.

There are various approaches for dealing with problems of public safety and security, and such measures may be oriented towards **prevention, enforcement, or a combination of the two** (see boxes VL5, VL6, VL7, VL9 and table VL4). However, given the multi-dimensional nature of violence, strategies for dealing with it must combine a broad perspective with specific measures focusing on the relevant risk factors. The police and judicial systems must also be reformed. Some measures need to be directed at changing the behaviour of members of high-risk groups (such as young men who, as children, were witnesses or victims of violence). Other strategies are aimed at changing social attitudes, norms and behaviour patterns in the population at large, especially at an early age. The World Health Organization and the Pan American Health Organization regard violence a public health problem and therefore advocate an epidemiological approach based on an interdisciplinary analysis of the problem that puts greater emphasis on prevention than on treatment (PAHO, 1996).

To date, efforts have centred on combatting violence through police and judicial action and on caring for victims. Preventive measures have been applied to a lesser extent (IDB, 1998), although they may actually prove to be more effective than corrective treatment in terms of cost and long-term sustainability.

In addition to distinguishing among these different levels of intervention, consideration needs to be given to **inter-agency coordination** along with coordination among communities, local governments, national bodies, and the police and judicial systems as a means of promoting crime-prevention and crime-reduction measures at various levels.

Citizen participation has also been a component of the strategies used to deal with crime in various of the region's cities (neighbourhood crime prevention councils in Buenos Aires, local security organizations known as 'safety fronts' in Bogotá, citizens' committees in Mexico City, community security councils in São Paulo, neighbourhood committees in San José,

PREVENTIVE MEASURES

- a. Development of educational programmes, especially for school drop-outs.
- b. Organizing the community through committees and groups, self-protection groups, community alarm systems. Examples include Mexico City's new public safety programme and Nicaragua's ALMA project.
- c. Control of alcohol sales. Examples include Colombia's Desepaz programme.
- d. Control of drug dealing.
- e. Gun control. Examples include the guns-for-food programme in Panama City.
- f. Fighting poverty and inequality. Examples include the social investment funds that have been set up in various countries.
- g. Job creation. Examples include the Desepaz programme's Social Pact for Coexistence in Cali, Colombia.
- h. Recreation and sports programmes for young people. Examples include Managua's municipal ecology brigades.
- i. Installation of video camera networks in high-crime areas. Examples include the system in use in downtown Santiago, Chile.

Costa Rica, and proposed neighbourhood security committees in Santiago, Chile). This kind of strategy involves, on the one hand, promoting the creation of networks and encouraging the community to organize its efforts to prevent, report and even, to some extent, control crime and, on the other, promoting cooperative relations among the community, the police force and government institutions so that they can work together to combat crime (VIVA, community police in Rio de Janeiro).

It should be borne in mind that the existence of community networks contributes to the development of less violent forms of interaction, even under poverty conditions (see section 3). If the public gains confidence in these institutions, this can contribute to a perception of security and to the legitimacy of the political, police and judicial systems' roles in fighting crime.

a) Prevention, enforcement and combined measures

Latin American cities have developed various strategies for reducing crime. A precise evaluation of their effectiveness is not possible, but some measures

seem to have produced good results. This demonstrates that it is possible to achieve greater public safety and security when institutions are active and coordinate their work, when the community participates in the effort, and when measures combining prevention and enforcement are adopted. An overview of some of these measures is provided below, while in the final section the steps taken by local authorities in some of the region's cities are reviewed. (see box VI.4)

Experience has shown that it is important to use integrated plans that combine immediate measures, such as police enforcement, with reforms in the judicial, police and prison systems, which take a long time to complete, are costly and may be difficult to implement (see boxes VI.6 and VI.7). Medium- and long-range objectives should be pursued simultaneously. Thus, for example, judicial reform can be combined with activities that involve the public both in reporting crimes and in crime-control measures.

There are also preventive measures that require police follow-up, as in the cases of gun control or limitations on the consumption of alcohol (limiting the hours during which its sale is permitted; the "carrot hour" in Bogotá) (see boxes VI.5, VI.6, VI.7, and VI.8).

CRIME CONTROL

a) **Police force reform**

Problems affecting the crime-fighting efforts of the region's police forces have included reactive and bureaucratic approaches, a lack of professionalization and suitable equipment, low pay, excessive duty assignments and corruption.

Some police reform proposals focus on:

- i) **The creation of strategic plans** to anticipate events and design scenarios for them;
- ii) **Professionalization** through education and training in techniques for preventing kidnappings and drug dealing, and the formation of special groups to reduce muggings;
- iii) **Controls on administrative functions;**
- iv) **Increased staffing;**
- v) **Increased salaries**, as a means of promoting professionalization and full-time work for employees to avoid their working as providers of private security services;
- vi) **Reinforcing the operations of agencies that monitor the police system** to bring police involved in illicit activities to account and to investigate complaints of practices such as torture and illegal use of force.

b) **Judicial reform**

Reforms currently in progress deal with some of the following aspects:

- i) **Making procedures more flexible** to streamline, professionalize and guarantee impartiality in the investigation and punishment of crime;
- ii) **Coordination** with the police system;
- iii) **Allocation** of more resources;
- iv) **Establishment of sentences** that are commensurate with the seriousness of the crime and increasing the probability that the corresponding sentences will actually be applied;
- v) **Professional treatment for victims** while taking crime reports and the achievement of accuracy and thoroughness in recording the relevant information.

c) **Prison system reforms**

Reforms of the prison system consist of:

- i) **Applying the provisions of international agreements** on detained persons (International Prison Watch, 1995);
- ii) **Allocating adequate funds** to improve the physical conditions of the region's prisons;
- iii) **Streamlining procedures and eliminating bias in the administration of justice** that works in favour of certain prisoners (e.g., large-scale drug dealers) and to the detriment of others (poor prisoners, children, young people);
- iv) **Combating corruption and impunity** not only among criminals, but also, when called for, among guards and heads of gangs inside prisons, to end drug- and arms-dealing and abuses;
- v) **Promoting alternative sentencing** for perpetrators of minor crimes under appropriate control and supervisory systems that will also serve to determine eligibility for this type of sentencing; and
- vi) **Take greater advantage of the time prisoners are incarcerated** as an opportunity for rehabilitation, putting special emphasis on education, vocational training, and psychological and social support.

d) **Create mechanisms**

For the exercise of alternative forms of justice through entities such as reconciliation and mediation centres, or specialized police offices for dealing with family incidents.

BOGOTÁ: HEALTHY POLICIES FOR SECURITY AND CIVIL COEXISTENCE

Objectives	Measures in response to violence	Building civil coexistence
1. Strengthen Institutions	Restructuring the Ministry of the Interior. Strengthening the police. Training police agents. Statistical bulletins on violence and crime.	New integrated management for security and civil coexistence. Police training and adequate staffing. Timely statistical information on violence and crime available for managers and citizenry, making it possible to evaluate management.
2. Mechanisms for preventing or reducing homicide	Gun control by the police. Suspension of licenses to carry arms. Discouraging alcohol use. Police control.	Voluntary surrender of weapons. Awareness campaigns for taking weapons out of circulation. Restricted hours for night clubs, and courses on prevention of alcohol use in schools. "Hand over the keys" campaigns.
3. Develop methods of preventing accidents	New traffic police.	Discourage use of alcohol, and give courses in schools to prevent use of alcohol. Restrict nightclub hours. "Hand over the keys" campaigns. Restrictions on use of fireworks in New Year celebrations. Helmets for motorcyclists.
4. Develop alternative dispute settlement methods	Reconciliation centres. Specialized police offices for family-related incidents. Police inspections.	"Violence Vaccination" seminars. Programmes to prevent child abuse. "Treat them well" seminars.
5. Achieve greater community participation in security matters	Police strategies to foment and support community participation in ensuring security.	Security "fronts". Security schools.
6. Improve prison system	Rebuild district prisons. Design and implement training programmes. Build new prisons.	Social rehabilitation of prisoners. Design alternative models for punishment and social reintegration of violators.

Source: Office of the Mayor of Bogotá, "Seguridad y Violencia en Santafé de Bogotá", 1997.

THE BROKEN WINDOW THEORY

The broken window theory was developed in 1982 on the basis of research conducted by a group of criminologists in the United States headed by James Q. Wilson and George Kelling.

The team conducted an experiment in which they left a new car in a populous neighbourhood to see how and when it would be stolen. Days passed and no one approached it. The researchers then replaced it with an automobile that had a broken window. Shortly, nothing was left of the vehicle.

The experiment led to the basic concept of zero tolerance, which is that any crime that is allowed to go unpunished, as small as it may be, encourages more serious crime, because it gives the criminal the idea that he will not be punished.

Even programmes that have taken more radical approaches to crime control include preventive measures involving the community. For example, New York's "zero tolerance" plan, which is based on the premise that minor crime must be suppressed in order to prevent major crime (see box VI.8), seeks to prevent crime by building up the police force and increasing police officers' discretionary powers for arrests and searches, but it also promotes social initiatives to involve the community and prevent crime (more parks and sports facilities, special schools to rehabilitate juvenile delinquents, etc.).

The Desepar programme takes a threefold approach to the problem of public safety and security by focusing on law enforcement, educating the public for peace and development, and activities such as the conclusion of the "Social Coexistence Pact", which was signed by the army and gang organizations. Gang leaders agreed to give up armed conflict, break off their illegal activities and rely on dialogue to resolve disputes, while for their part the authorities promised to provide these young people with loans, technical training, job opportunities and legal assistance. The plan devised by the Bogotá Mayor's Office to deal with the city's high rates of violence also uses a combined-policy approach (see box VI.7).

A number of multilateral organizations, notably the World Bank, have formulated proposals for combating violence that are based on a classic epidemiological approach. These strategies are summarized in box VI.9.

b) Development and refinement of crime statistics systems

In order to arrive at an accurate understanding of violence and other criminal behaviour, the statistics on these phenomena need to be improved through the establishment of an integrated system that will provide the necessary data for analysing trends and making international comparisons.

Reliable statistics on crime are lacking. This information is essential for assessing the phenomenon and formulating policies, programmes, and preventive and containment measures, as well as to improve the treatment of criminals and enhance measures intended to reintegrate them into society.

In Colombia, thanks to the adoption of an epidemiological approach to the treatment of criminals as part of the Desepar programme and the creation in 1995 of the National Reference Centre on Violence (CRNV), a record-keeping system was put in place that provides information on some of the following parameters: the time and date on which the crime was committed; the alcohol levels of those involved; the sex, age and identity of the criminal(s) and victim(s); causes and place of occurrence; and victim's address. These data have been useful in designing focused intervention strategies (Colombia, National Reference Centre on Violence, Division of Forensic Services, 1996; Kleven, 1998).

PROPOSAL FOR COMBINED INTERVENTION

1. Highly effective forms of intervention

- Epidemiological monitoring
- Alcohol abuse and mental disease intervention
- Gun control
- Effective emergency treatment

2. Macro-social contexts that help

- Prolonged and high-quality education
- Equitable growth to reduce poverty

3. Complex forms of intervention that have enormous pay-offs

- Measures against impunity: increase net expected sentencing
- Fortify independence of control functions exercised by the public, police and judges
- Make non-public controls and prevention more flexible
- Beyond schools: the social fabric and social capital

Source: Juan Luis Londoño, "Epidemiología económica de la violencia urbana", paper presented at the annual meeting of the Board of Governors of the Inter-American Development Bank, Cartagena de Indias, 16-18 March 1998.

In Chile, as part of a joint programme undertaken by the Government and a private organization, a Unified System of Crime Statistics (SUED), which would bring together information gathered by different institutions in the country, has been devised and a proposal has been submitted for its establishment. The system is designed to provide an integrated picture of criminal behaviour by

collecting psychological, social and cultural background information on the perpetrator and the victim at the various stages in the criminal justice process (see box VI.10). Digitized crime maps for different municipalities are also now beginning to be prepared, which makes it possible to identify critical geographical areas.

CHILE: UNIFIED SYSTEM OF CRIME STATISTICS (SUED)

SUED is a proposed system for recording crime information which integrates data from police institutions (the national police force, known as Carabineros, and the national intelligence and detective agency), the courts and the prison system. Its objectives are:

- To identify relevant variables that emerge from reports, arrests, police investigations, court proceedings and the prison population;
- To establish classification systems and rules that will make it possible to compare statistics compiled by the various sub-systems;
- To define indicators and data summarization methods for the purposes described; and
- To ensure that indicators are comparable with statistics from other countries (as stipulated in regional or international conventions).

Source: Chile: Unified System of Crime Statistics (SUED), final report, Santiago, Chile, June 1997.

Table VI.4

**LATIN AMERICA (14 CITIES): MEASURES IMPLEMENTED IN 1998 BY LOCAL AUTHORITIES
IN RESPONSE TO THE PRINCIPAL PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED**

Cities	Preventive Measures	Control Measures	Combined Measures
Buenos Aires	<u>Crime and Violence Prevention Programme</u> , providing for formation of neighbourhood crime prevention councils (nine to date), educational meetings on crime prevention, and improved relations between police and community.	The neighbourhood crime prevention councils assess and monitor the security needs of their neighbourhoods.	This is a multidisciplinary programme that addresses issues relating to education, health, marginalization, police force, justice, urban development, unemployment.
Panama City	<u>Reduction of the number of illegal weapons</u> (the "Arms-for-Food Programme").	Social Disease Prevention Programme; operative teams responsible for different security and safety issues within the district.	Coordination among all security agencies to reduce juvenile delinquency.
La Paz	<u>Raising community awareness of the risk of contracting infectious/contagious diseases</u> ; organizing training courses; regulation through municipal ordinances to prevent and control the negative effects of the sale of uncertified products.	Suppression and confiscation by customs, prefectures and mayoral offices of illegally introduced species and those that have an impact on health.	Introduction of a health card; introduction of mandatory registration of sales of medicines and used clothing.
Lima	<u>Programme for the Rehabilitation of Abandoned Minors</u> ("Little Gardeners"); patrol service; coordination with police and Public Ministry officials.	Blood tests of prostitutes and homosexuals to detect sexually transmitted diseases; bringing minors to the Municipal Complex for Assistance to Children (COMAIN).	Raids or dragnets undertaken with the support of the national police, Public Ministry, and political and health authorities.
Managua	Job creation and other projects in poor neighbourhoods; <u>community participation in identifying and solving problems</u> (1997 ALMA programme); action specifically directed at young people (organization of sports leagues, cultural activities, municipal ecological brigades); provision of properly registered land titles.		
Medellin	<u>Campaigns to take weapons out of circulation</u> ; campaigns to increase the use of community alarms; campaigns to curb the use of prohibited substances; programme to create opportunities for civil coexistence and cooperation; community patrol system with satellite support.	Ongoing operations for weapons control and the monitoring of public establishments in those areas with the highest levels of conflict.	
Mexico City	Public Safety Programme that increases the police presence in specific parts of the city with support from citizens' committees which monitor police activity.	<u>Specific programmes to stop hold-ups of bus/truck drivers and banks, and vehicle theft.</u>	Creation of justice centres that coordinate matters ranging from police patrols to incarceration; programmes to promote clean and efficient operations in the Prosecutor's Office; replacement of staff.

Table VI.4 (continued)

Cities	Preventive Measures	Control Measures	Combined Measures
Quito	<u>Strengthening of community organization</u> (education, training and communication programmes).	Improved communications for calling for emergency assistance and coordination of emergency services - 911 Project.	Security initiative in the historic centre of the city; strengthening of metropolitan police force.
Rio de Janeiro	Increasing the effectiveness and scope of activity of the Municipal Guard; <u>Favela-Barrio programme</u> .	<u>Urban enforcement; interdiction of illegal merchandise.</u>	(Under the authority of the state governments).
San José, Costa Rica	Greater police presence in main areas of the city; formation of neighbourhood committees.	Coordination with ongoing operations in the city.	Community organization; special operations and joint work with other police groups in the country.
Santa Cruz	Protection of natural preserves and other public areas (parks, playing fields); signing of an inter-agency agreement with the Departmental Prefecture.	<u>Public lighting (schools); joint action by neighbourhood groups, mothers' centres, youth and civic organizations.</u>	Agreement concluded with Departmental Prefecture.
Bogotá	Education and citizen participation; citizen training in peaceful forms of dispute settlement; police training; social work with gangs and other at-large criminal groups; traffic rules education for the public; <u>campaigns against domestic violence; control of alcohol consumption; prohibitions on carrying weapons.</u>	<u>Police enforcement and severe economic sanctions, including withholding and seizure of goods.</u>	All the policies have preventive, dissuasive and suppressive components.
Santiago Chile	<u>Crime prevention and citizen protection committees; installation of video camera network; neighbourhood educational programme.</u>	Monthly evaluation system; digitized mapping system on-site in prefectures.	<u>Neighbourhood Patrols Programme;</u> programmes dealing with drug use and youth employment; public radio band with 200 stations.
São Paulo	Police guards in the schools; Community Police Programme; <u>Drug education and "say-no" programme in the schools (PROERD); creation of community safety councils (820 so far).</u>	Secondary school diploma required for entrance into the police force; increased staffing of civil metropolitan guards in the schools; increase in the activities conducted by the police "corregedoria" to fight police corruption; <u>enactment of the Weapons Control Act; establishment of judicial police oversight.</u>	<u>Taking itinerant vendors off the streets in the downtown area</u> (crime in the downtown area has been reduced by 60%).

Source: ECLAC, survey on public safety sent to the authorities of 23 cities in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1998.

Note: Measures considered successful by local authorities have been underlined.

C. INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL AGENDA

Two important regional meetings were held in 1998 at which social issues were addressed: the Second Summit of the Americas and the Latin American and Caribbean Regional Youth Meeting preparatory to the third World Youth Forum.

The Declaration of Santiago, which focuses on five central elements, was approved at the Second Summit of the Americas: education as the key to progress; the preservation and strengthening of democracy, justice and human rights; economic integration and free trade; the eradication of poverty and discrimination; and follow-up to the Summits of the Americas. The increasingly serious problem of public safety remains a pending issue (see box VI.11).

At the Latin American and Caribbean Regional Youth Meeting preparatory to the third World Youth Forum, a declaration was prepared for submission to the Forum at its third session, in Lisbon, which focuses on policy issues relating to young people and education and calls for observance of the Declaration of the Rights of Young People (see box VI.12).

SUMMIT OF THE AMERICAS

- Place and date** : Santiago, Chile, 18-19 April 1998
- Participants** : 34 heads of State and Government of the countries of the Americas
- Organizer** : Government of Chile
- Preceding meetings** : Summit of the Americas (Miami, United States, December 1994).
Hemispheric Conference on the Eradication of Poverty and Discrimination (Santiago, Chile, January 1996).
Hemispheric meeting of ministers of education in the framework of the Second Summit of the Americas (Mérida, Mexico, February 1998).
Ministerial Declaration of San José, Costa Rica, Fourth Ministerial Meeting on Trade in the Hemisphere (San José, Costa Rica, March 1998).
- Objectives** : To strengthen the cooperation begun at the Summit of the Americas held in Miami and redouble efforts to continue reforms aimed at improving living conditions and the integration process in the hemisphere, with special emphasis on education as a decisive factor for development.
- Resolutions** : **The Declaration of Santiago** sets forth the commitments that have been made, and the **Plan of Action** describes the action by which these commitments are to be carried out in the following areas:
- 1. Education, key to progress:** A reiteration of the commitment signed in 1994 to guarantee access to and the opportunity to pursue a quality primary education for 100% of minors by the year 2010, and access to quality secondary education for at least 75% of young people.
 - 2. Preservation and strengthening of democracy, justice and human rights:** Promotion of democratic reforms aimed at protecting the rights of the entire population, achievement of legal equality between men and women by the year 2002, and support for the formation of a solid and active civil society.
 - 3. Economic integration and free trade:** Commencement of negotiations for the Free Trade Area of the Americas (FTAA), which are to achieve concrete progress by the year 2000 and to conclude by 2005 at the latest.
 - 4. Eradication of poverty and discrimination:** This continues to be the greatest challenge. Measures have been proposed for securing access to assets, the development of production, and the elimination of all forms of discrimination against vulnerable groups.
 - 5. Follow-up to the Summits of the Americas:** The Summit Implementation Review Group (SIRG) will oversee fulfillment of the mandates and preparations for the next Summit.

**LATIN AMERICAN AND CARIBBEAN REGIONAL YOUTH MEETING
PREPARATORY TO THE THIRD WORLD YOUTH FORUM**

Place and date	: Santiago, Chile, 1-3 June 1998
Participants	: Representatives of 42 youth organizations from Ibero-America and the Caribbean and of United Nations organizations
Organizer	: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), with cooperation from the Ibero-American Youth Organization (OIJ) and the Latin American Youth Forum (FLAJ).
Preceding meetings	: First session of the World Youth Forum (Vienna, 1991) Second session of the World Youth Forum (Vienna, 1996) Latin American and Caribbean Regional Youth Meeting preparatory to the third World Youth Forum (Lisbon, Portugal, 1998)
Resolution	: Final declaration

SUMMARY OF THE FINAL DECLARATION

- 1. Public policy related to youth.** To create organizations to provide guidance for concerted public policy on youth-related issues; to formulate and implement a comprehensive law on youth issues; to facilitate the participation of young men and women in debates and decision-making on high-priority public issues; to approve the Declaration of the Rights of Young People and promote efforts at the national level to achieve recognition of those rights; to acknowledge the rights of young men and women as an integral part of an indivisible and interdependent set of universal human rights; to establish mechanisms to fully enforce the economic, social, environmental, cultural, and political rights of young people; to create mechanisms to provide young people with accurate information about their rights and how to exercise them; to identify and create indicators that make it possible to measure the enforcement of young people's rights.
- 2. Education and culture.** To reaffirm the duty of all Governments, through quality and equitable education, to provide all girls, boys, and young people with the tools and skills they need to develop as full citizens and human beings; to involve all the relevant actors in the educational process, especially curriculum development; to design curricula that will impart information and knowledge that enable people to articulate and facilitate decision-making functions, acquire skills, participate as full citizens in matters affecting them, and to be their own masters; to check the process of deculturalization, implementing the use of participants' mother tongues in education along with other necessary languages; to recognize and encourage non-formal forms of education administered by youth NGOs as an innovative strategy that is complementary to official educational systems; to establish horizontal channels within the educational system to promote discussion and analysis of issues such as human rights, gender, sports, sexuality, environment, equality, identity, and others; to create flexible mechanisms for validating academic credits in order to allow people to complete their primary, secondary and higher educations.
- 3. Participation and representation of young people.** To create and enhance opportunities that will provide for the participation of young men and women who have been excluded from society; to promote the strengthening of youth leaders; to include young men and women in the development of procedures to facilitate youth representation in institutions and activities involving decision-making powers; to accord legal recognition to existing youth councils and platforms; and to allocate a percentage of budget resources to youth organizations for the operation of their programmes.

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Table 1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990-1997									
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 1990 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1990 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (percentages)	Mean monthly variation in consumer price index	Percentage variation			
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Urban minimum wage
Argentina	1990	4346	4241	7.4	30.38	1990-1997	33.2	37.0	249.6
	1994	5636	5593	11.5	0.30	1990-1994	29.7	31.9	263.9
	1997	5790	5808	14.9	0.03	1994-1997	2.7	3.8	-3.9
Bolivia	1989	796	779	10.2	1.20	1989-1997	12.1	9.1	65.5
	1994	844	840	3.1	0.85	1989-1994	6.1	7.9	70.6
	1997	892	850	4.4	0.54	1994-1997	5.7	1.1	-3.0
Brazil	1990	2882	2809	4.3	32.60	1990-1997	11.5	14.0	21.8
	1994	3032	3040	5.1	29.40	1990-1994	5.2	8.2	8.0
	1997	3214	3203	5.7	0.35	1994-1997	6.0	5.3	12.8
Chile	1990	2321	2204	9.2	1.95	1990-1997	53.3	58.3	40.4
	1994	2942	2810	8.3	0.86	1990-1994	26.8	27.5	24.4
	1997	3557	3488	7.1	0.49	1994-1997	20.9	24.1	12.9
Colombia	1990	1236	1202	10.5	2.15	1990-1997	16.7	22.6	-3.3
	1994	1357	1401	8.9	1.73	1990-1994	9.8	16.5	-4.0
	1997	1442	1474	12.4	1.37	1994-1997	6.3	5.2	0.7
Costa Rica	1990	1881	1845	5.4	1.46	1990-1997	7.9	16.0	4.4
	1994	2069	2152	4.3	1.06	1990-1994	10.0	16.6	1.0
	1997	2030	2140	5.9	0.89	1994-1997	-1.9	-0.6	3.4
Ecuador	1990	1170	1045	6.1	3.35	1990-1997	9.8	4.9	45.4
	1994	1257	1077	7.8	2.03	1990-1994	7.4	3.1	15.9
	1997	1284	1097	9.3	2.25	1994-1997	2.2	1.8	25.5
El Salvador	1990	954	1032	10.0	1.48	1990-1997	21.7	34.9	-4.9
	1994	1101	1339	7.0	0.71	1990-1994	15.4	29.8	2.7
	1997	1161	1392	7.5	0.16	1994-1997	5.5	3.9	-7.4
Guatemala	1989	874	876	6.1	1.02	1989-1997	10.3	15.3	-67.7
	1994	929	979	3.3	0.99	1990-1994	6.2	11.8	-60.7
	1997	964	1009	0.58	1994-1997	3.8	3.1	-17.8
Honduras	1990	686	667	7.8	1.76	1990-1997	5.3	12.9	-8.6
	1994	696	720	4.0	1.65	1990-1994	1.4	7.9	-5.2
	1997	722	753	6.4	0.75	1994-1997	3.9	4.6	-3.6
Mexico	1989	3157	3104	2.7	1.53	1989-1997	7.5	6.8	-36.9
	1994	3386	3330	3.7	0.56	1989-1994	7.3	7.3	-19.6
	1997	3394	3315	3.7	1.22	1994-1997	0.2	-0.5	-21.5
Nicaragua	1990	599	572	11.1 b/	50.58	1990-1997	-1.3	-1.5	19.4 c/
	1994	555	486	20.7 b/	0.98	1990-1994	-7.3	-15.1	20.0 c/
	1997	591	544	13.2 b/	0.69	1994-1997	6.5	16.0	-0.5 c/
Panama	1991	2369	2261	19.3	0.10	1991-1997	14.4	24.1	11.0
	1994	2621	2728	16.0	0.10	1991-1994	10.6	20.6	8.5
	1997	2711	2805	15.3	-0.04	1994-1997	3.4	2.8	2.3

Table 1 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990-1997									
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 1990 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1990 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (percentages)	Mean monthly variation in consumer price index	Percentage variation			
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Urban minimum wage
Paraguay	1990	1248	1258	6.6	2.73	1990-1997	0.0	15.8	-6.2
	1994	1247	1366	4.4	1.57	1990-1994	-0.1	8.6	-14.0
	1997	1248	1456	9.0	0.50	1994-1997	0.1	6.6	9.1
Peru	1990	1657	1591	8.3	43.43	1990-1997	29.1	31.2	14.7
	1994	1897	1826	8.8	1.79	1990-1994	14.5	14.8	-38.1
	1997	2139	2087	8.3	0.50	1994-1997	12.8	14.3	85.3
Dominican Republic	1990	912	929		5.02	1990-1997	21.1	44.1	19.3
	1994	967	1138	16.0 b/	1.12	1990-1994	6.0	22.5	19.3
	1997	1104	1338	15.9 b/	0.67	1994-1997	14.3	17.6	0.0
Uruguay	1990	2975	2874	8.5	6.48	1990-1997	27.2	34.1	-41.2
	1994	3554	3587	9.2	3.13	1990-1994	19.5	24.8	-32.7
	1997	3783	3853	11.5	1.18	1994-1997	6.4	7.4	-12.6
Venezuela	1990	2495	2440	11.0	2.88	1990-1997	7.4	-0.5	-8.4
	1994	2607	2261	8.9	4.04	1990-1994	4.5	-7.3	21.0
	1997 ^{d/}	2681	2427	11.9	2.70	1994-1997	2.8	7.3	-24.3

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

a/ Refers to real per capita gross national income.

b/ National total.

c/ Refers to average real wages.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS											
Country	Year	Ages									
		Males					Females				
		Total	15-24	25-34	35-49	50 and over	Total	15-24	25-34	35-49	50 and over
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	76	66	98	97	53	32	45	45	41	15
	1990	76	62	97	97	55	38	41	52	52	19
	1994	76	65	98	97	54	41	43	59	56	21
	1997	76	61	97	97	59	45	44	61	60	27
Bolivia	1989	73	47	90	97	64	47	35	57	61	34
	1994	75	50	92	98	65	51	37	62	68	37
	1997	75	48	92	98	73	51	35	61	68	42
Brazil	1979	81	75	97	94	60	37	43	44	40	17
	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
Chile	1987	70	48	93	94	53	32	29	44	42	15
	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
Colombia	1980	79	61	96	97	72	42	42	52	46	22
	1990	79	59	94	97	64	46	41	61	54	20
	1994	79	58	96	97	65	48	43	65	59	21
	1997	78	55	96	97	65	50	42	68	63	24
Costa Rica	1981	78	64	93	95	67	34	33	46	40	15
	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
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
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
Guatemala	1986	84	71	97	97	79	41	41	49	47	28
	1989	84	69	97	97	78	43	42	50	49	29
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
Mexico	1984	76	55	94	94	72	29	25	37	36	21
	1989	76	57	94	94	67	33	30	44	38	18
	1994	80	63	96	95	68	37	33	48	46	21
	1996	80	60	97	97	68	41	36	50	50	24
Nicaragua	1997	74	55	90	94	66	51	35	66	70	34
Panama	1979	76	56	97	98	63	45	40	63	55	20
	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

Table 2 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS											
Country	Year	Ages									
		Males					Females				
		Total	15-24	25-34	35-49	50 and over	Total	15-24	25-34	35-49	50 and over
Paraguay (Asunción)	1983	81	66	97	97	66	43	41	57	53	26
	1990	84	69	97	99	75	50	51	63	58	27
	1994	82	69	99	98	66	58	58	74	76	31
	1996	86	76	97	97	75	59	54	69	71	40
Dominican Republic	1992	86	77	96	98	76	53	57	66	57	25
	1995	78	62	95	98	68	44	40	64	57	20
	1997	83	70	96	97	71	49	44	65	61	22
Uruguay	1981	75	74	98	97	50	37	43	57	51	18
	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
Venezuela	1981	79	58	96	98	75	31	26	42	40	15
	1990	78	55	93	96	71	38	25	51	52	21
	1994	79	58	94	97	68	38	26	52	53	20
	1997a	83	66	96	97	73	46	34	59	61	28

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

a/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 3

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS													
Country	Year	Years of schooling											
		Males						Females					
		Total	0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13 and over	Total	0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13 and over
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	76	60	70	76	72	80	32	18	25	26	40	64
	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
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
Brazil	1979	81	79	84	78	82	88	37	29	35	39	54	72
	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
Chile	1987	70	59	73	64	71	80	32	18	25	26	33	60
	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
Colombia	1981	79	84	84	70	75	83	42	42	39	38	46	60
	1990	79	77	82	74	80	83	46	36	40	38	53	72
	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
Costa Rica	1980	78	75	87	73	71	76	34	22	29	30	42	57
	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
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
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
Guatemala	1986	84	90	89	68	78	81	41	37	43	38	51	65
	1989	84	90	89	65	81	87	43	38	41	37	57	77
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
Mexico	1984	77	85	91	70	51	93	30	23	32	33	38	43
	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
Nicaragua	1997	74	75	80	67	73	76	51	46	52	46	53	68
Panama	1979	76	74	84	67	74	81	45	23	41	39	51	75
	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

Table 3 (Concluded)

**LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES):
MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS**

Country	Year	Years of schooling											
		Males						Females					
		Total	0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13 and over	Total	0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13 and over
Paraguay (Asunción)	1983	81	70	91	73	77	83	43	34	47	39	40	59
	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
Dominican Republic	1992	86	87	91	85	85	88	53	38	43	48	61	80
	1995	78	74	81	76	74	86	44	28	37	39	47	72
	1997	83	77	84	84	82	90	49	34	41	42	56	80
Uruguay	1981	75	53	76	81	83	84	37	21	32	42	49	67
	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
Venezuela	1981	79	80	88	72	71	71	31	21	29	32	43	48
	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 b/	83	80	87	81	82	82	46	28	40	43	53	69

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

a/ For 1990 and 1994, the categories of educational attainment used were: completed primary but not secondary; completed secondary; and higher education.

b/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 4

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1980-1997
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners						Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector				Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non technical			
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	100.0	5.5	69.2	-	69.2	6.4	46.0	12.8	25.3	22.4
	1990	100.0	5.4	69.2	-	69.2	9.1	43.0	12.6	25.4	21.8
	1994	100.0	4.8	70.2	-	70.2	-	-	-	25.0	-
	1997	100.0	5.3	73.3	-	73.3	-	-	-	21.5	-
Bolivia	1989	100.0	2.2	53.9	17.9	36.0	3.1	14.4	12.7	44.0	41.8
	1994	100.0	7.6	54.1	12.8	41.3	6.8	15.5	13.8	38.4	36.8
	1997	100.0	7.0	46.4	10.5	35.9	6.8	14.4	11.1	46.7	44.8
Brazil d/	1979	100.0	4.4	75.4	-	75.4	8.2	43.2	16.5	20.2	19.3
	1990	100.0	5.2	72.0	-	72.0	15.7	32.9	17.2	22.8	21.5
	1993	100.0	4.1	68.1	14.4	53.7	5.7	31.4 e/	8.4	27.8	26.4
	1996	100.0	4.2	68.4	13.7	54.7	5.9	30.6 e/	9.8	27.3	25.7
Chile	1990	100.0	2.5	73.8	-	73.8	12.1	54.7	-	23.7	21.7
	1994	100.0	3.3	75.0	-	75.0	15.4	44.9	8.6	21.8	17.4
	1996	100.0	3.9	76.4	9.5	66.9	11.8	39.8	9.2	19.7	16.1
Colombia (8 major cities)	1980	100.0	4.0	69.6	10.6	59.1	4.9	47.4	-	26.4	24.6
	1990	100.0	4.2	69.5	10.4	59.2	6.9	46.8	-	26.3	23.9
	1994 f/	100.0	4.8	68.2	8.6	59.6	6.0	48.3	-	27.1	25.0
	1997	100.0	4.4	62.2	9.9	52.3	6.4	41.4	-	33.4	30.7
Costa Rica	1981	100.0	3.9	77.3	29.9	47.5	4.6	26.0	11.8	18.7	17.8
	1990	100.0	5.5	74.8	25.0	49.7	5.8	29.5	10.0	19.7	18.2
	1994	100.0	6.6	75.3	21.8	53.5	7.5	31.0	11.2	18.2	16.5
	1997	100.0	7.7	72.4	20.5	51.9	7.3	29.9	11.2	19.8	17.7
Ecuador	1990	100.0	5.0	58.9	17.5	41.4	4.5	21.1	11.3	36.1	34.5
	1994	100.0	7.9	58.0	13.7	44.3	5.6	21.8	12.2	34.1	32.1
	1997	100.0	7.8	59.1	13.8	45.3	6.3	23.0	11.0	33.1	31.1
El Salvador g/	1990	100.0	3.4	62.9	13.8	49.1	3.4	26.3	13.3	33.7	33.3
	1995	100.0	6.2	61.8	12.5	49.3	7.2	27.2	10.5	32.1	31.1
	1997	100.0	5.7	61.9	13.3	48.6	7.9	23.7	12.6	32.5	31.5
Guatemala	1986	100.0	4.5	62.1	13.8	48.3	6.2	17.5	15.3	33.3	32.5
	1989	100.0	2.6	63.8	14.7	49.2	7.6	20.3	14.3	33.6	32.7
Honduras	1990	100.0	1.5	65.5	14.4	51.1	4.9	26.3	13.2	33.0	31.6
	1994	100.0	4.1	65.1	11.3	53.7	6.8	30.4	11.1	30.8	29.5
	1997	100.0	6.3	60.4	10.1	50.3	6.5	27.7	11.0	33.4	32.3
Mexico	1984	100.0	2.6	71.9	-	71.9	4.8	64.5	-	25.5	24.8
	1989	100.0	3.3	76.4	-	76.4	7.3	66.4	-	20.3	19.2
	1994	100.0	3.7	74.6	-	74.6	7.8	63.0	-	21.8	20.6
	1996	100.0	4.5	73.5	15.1	58.4	7.1	33.1	14.6	22.3	20.7
Nicaragua	1997	100.0	2.0	45.6	14.8	45.6	3.2	21.0	14.8	37.6	36.5

Table 4 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1980-1997 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners						Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector					
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non technical		Total c/	Non-professional non technical
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons		
Panama	1979	100.0	2.1	80.6 h/	31.1	44.7	5.5	33.0	-	17.3	17.0
	1991	100.0	3.4	73.1	26.6	46.5	4.1	30.0	5.4	23.5	22.5
	1994	100.0	2.5	76.3	24.8	51.5	7.2	31.3	5.7	21.2	20.5
	1997	100.0	3.3	77.1	24.5	52.6	11.4	29.2	5.5	19.7	18.4
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	100.0	7.7	65.4	12.6	52.8	4.6	22.0	12.3	26.9	24.9
	1990	100.0	9.2	66.3	12.9	53.4	5.1	21.1	15.8	24.5	22.9
	1994	100.0	11.6	68.6	13.3	55.3	10.3	22.4	10.1	19.7	17.6
	1996	100.0	7.0	62.3	11.3	51.0	5.0	22.9	13.8	30.7	28.6
Dominican Republic	1992	100.0	2.8	61.9	14.3	47.6	8.7	35.7	-	35.3	32.8
	1995	100.0	4.2	62.8	13.1	49.7	9.0	36.9	-	33.2	30.6
	1997	100.0	3.7	62.5	11.9	50.6	6.7	31.1	8.4	33.9	31.4
Uruguay	1981	100.0	4.6	76.7	23.7	53.0	2.6	35.4	8.0	18.7	17.1
	1990	100.0	4.5	74.2	21.8	52.4	3.6	31.5	10.4	21.3	19.3
	1994	100.0	4.8	72.3	18.7	53.6	5.4	31.8	9.4	22.9	20.1
	1997	100.0	4.3	72.0	17.7	54.3	5.8	30.3	11.1	23.8	21.0
Venezuela	1981	100.0	6.0	75.0	24.8	50.2	4.6	34.4	7.7	19.0	18.4
	1990	100.0	7.5	70.0	22.5	47.5	5.7	31.3	6.5	22.5	21.5
	1994	100.0	6.1	64.5	18.1	46.4	6.1	27.1	9.2	29.3	27.4
	1997 d/	100.0	5.0	62.8	16.8	46.0	5.5	25.4	10.8	32.3	30.3

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

- a/ Includes domestic employees. For Argentina, Brazil (except 1993 and 1996), Chile (1990 and 1992) and Mexico also includes public-sector wage earners.
- b/ For Argentina (1992 and 1994), Chile (1990), Colombia, Mexico (1984, 1989 and 1994) and Panama (1979), no information was available on the size of business establishments. In those cases, wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations in establishments employing up to 5 workers are included in the figures for establishments employing over 5 workers.
- c/ Includes workers in professional and technical occupations.
- d/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, except for 1993 and 1996. Accordingly, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 persons corresponds to the percentage of workers who have an employment contract ("carteira") while the column for establishments employing 5 or fewer workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.
- e/ Includes private-sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments whose size is not known.
- f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.
- g/ The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with those of 1995 and 1997, owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.
- h/ Includes persons employed in the Panama Canal Zone.
- i/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 5

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1980-1997 (Percentages)								
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners			Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total a/	Public sector	Private sector	Total	Agriculture
Bolivia	1997	100.0	3.3	8.9	2.4	6.5	87.8	79.9
Brazil	1979	100.0	2.8	38.0	-	38.0	59.2	53.2
	1990	100.0	3.0	44.3	-	44.3	52.7	44.3
	1993	100.0	1.9	33.6	5.1	28.5	64.5	58.4
	1996	100.0	1.8	34.3	4.4	29.9	63.8	57.2
Chile	1990	100.0	2.8	64.8	-	64.8	32.4	25.1
	1994	100.0	2.6	66.6	-	66.6	30.8	21.3
	1996	100.0	2.4	64.2	3.6	60.6	33.3	26.6
Colombia	1994	100.0	4.5	54.2	-	54.2	41.3	22.4
	1997	100.0	4.2	50.6	-	50.6	45.1	25.0
Costa Rica	1981	100.0	3.3	70.0	12.2	57.8	26.7	17.0
	1990	100.0	5.1	66.2	10.5	55.7	28.7	16.8
	1994	100.0	6.8	69.0	9.6	59.4	24.2	11.1
	1997	100.0	7.1	67.8	9.0	58.8	25.2	11.3
EL Salvador	1995	100.0	6.0	49.6	3.2	46.4	44.3	26.8
	1997	100.0	4.0	50.9	3.1	47.8	45.1	28.1
Guatemala	1986	100.0	0.5	39.8	2.3	37.5	59.7	46.4
	1989	100.0	0.5	38.3	2.9	35.4	61.2	47.9
Honduras	1990	100.0	0.5	34.9	4.0	30.9	64.6	47.6
	1994	100.0	1.6	37.2	4.8	32.4	61.2	43.4
	1997	100.0	2.6	34.8	3.4	31.4	62.6	41.6
Mexico	1984	100.0	0.9	48.3	-	48.2	50.8	38.1
	1989	100.0	2.5	50.2	-	50.2	47.3	34.5
	1994	100.0	4.0	48.6	-	48.6	47.4	30.8
	1996	100.0	5.1	48.1	6.4	41.7	46.7	28.6
Panama	1979	100.0	0.7	40.1	14.3	25.8	59.2	48.9
	1991	100.0	2.9	39.1	12.5	26.6	58.0	45.5
	1994	100.0	3.3	47.0	11.8	35.2	49.7	34.4
	1997	100.0	2.2	46.1	10.1	36.0	51.6	33.4
Dominican Republic	1992	100.0	4.0	52.4	13.2	39.2	43.7	21.6
	1995	100.0	2.1	56.1	11.5	44.6	41.9	15.7
	1997	100.0	3.4	45.6	10.3	35.3	51.0	28.5
Venezuela	1981	100.0	6.8	47.6	9.2	38.4	45.6	30.9
	1990	100.0	6.9	46.6	8.3	38.3	46.5	33.3
	1994	100.0	7.6	47.6	7.4	40.2	44.8	29.7

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

a/ Includes domestic employees. For Brazil (except 1996), Chile and Mexico, also includes public-sector wage earners.

Table 6

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1980-1997
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners						Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector					
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical		Total b/	Non-professional, non-technical
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	8.1	19.3	6.6	-	6.6	12.6	6.5	4.9	9.6	8.7
	1990	6.4	20.6	4.7	-	4.7	9.4	4.5	3.6	7.9	7.2
	1994	8.6	28.3	6.5	-	6.5	-	-	-	10.8	-
	1997	7.2	24.2	5.6	-	5.6	-	-	-	8.6	-
Bolivia	1989	4.1	16.1	3.6	4.1	3.4	7.6	3.9	2.7	4.1	3.9
	1994	3.5	10.3	3.2	3.9	3.0	7.3	2.7	2.0	2.5	2.2
	1997	3.6	10.1	3.9	4.6	3.6	8.8	3.2	2.2	2.5	2.3
Brazil c/	1979	5.6	21.8	4.6	-	4.6	9.0	4.9	3.1	3.8	5.2
	1990	4.7	15.8	4.1	-	4.1	8.4	3.5	2.5	3.8	3.4
	1993	4.3	15.2	4.1	6.3	3.5	10.6	3.3 d/	1.9	3.1	2.7
	1996	5.0	18.8	4.5	6.9	3.9	10.7	3.8 d/	2.4	4.2	3.7
Chile	1990	4.6	24.4	3.8	-	3.8	6.6	3.5	-	5.1	4.7
	1994	6.0	34.2	4.8	-	4.8	9.0	4.2	2.5	6.0	5.3
	1996	6.7	33.1	5.0	6.5	4.8	10.0	4.3	2.6	7.9	6.7
Colombia (8 major cities)	1980	4.0	17.1	3.1	4.8	2.8	7.1	2.5	-	4.3	3.7
	1990	3.9	11.7	3.3	5.1	3.0	6.7	2.6	-	4.4	3.7
	1994 e/	3.8	13.1	3.4	5.5	3.1	7.9	2.6	-	3.4	3.0
	1997	3.8	10.9	3.6	5.7	3.2	6.9	2.7	-	3.2	2.9
Costa Rica	1981	6.6	13.1	6.3	8.9	4.6	7.6	5.1	3.5	7.3	6.9
	1990	5.2	6.8	5.4	7.3	4.4	7.2	4.6	3.3	3.7	3.5
	1994	5.7	10.8	5.5	7.9	4.5	8.2	4.4	3.6	4.4	4.0
	1997	5.6	8.4	5.8	8.2	4.8	9.0	4.8	3.2	3.8	3.6
Ecuador	1990	2.8	4.8	3.2	4.1	2.8	6.0	2.9	2.3	1.9	1.9
	1994	2.9	6.6	2.8	3.5	2.5	5.2	2.6	1.9	2.2	2.0
	1997	3.0	6.0	3.0	3.9	2.7	5.7	2.9	1.8	2.2	2.1
El Salvador	1995	3.4	8.6	3.5	5.3	3.0	6.9	2.8	2.0	2.1	2.0
	1997	3.8	9.9	4.0	5.9	3.5	7.8	3.3	2.3	2.2	2.1
Guatemala	1986	3.1	10.6	2.9	4.6	2.5	3.9	3.2	1.6	2.4	2.2
	1989	3.5	18.1	3.1	4.8	2.5	3.1	3.2	1.7	3.2	3.0
Honduras	1990	2.8	16.8	3.1	4.9	2.5	6.5	2.7	1.6	1.7	1.6
	1994	2.3	7.4	2.2	3.4	2.0	4.5	1.9	1.3	1.7	1.6
	1997	2.0	6.5	2.1	2.9	1.9	4.2	1.8	1.1	1.3	1.2
Mexico	1984	4.8	14.8	4.7	-	4.7	7.0	4.6	-	4.2	4.1
	1989	4.4	21.6	3.5	-	3.5	5.5	3.4	-	4.8	4.4
	1994	4.4	18.3	3.9	-	3.9	6.3	3.8	-	3.7	3.4
	1996	3.7	15.2	3.3	4.9	2.9	6.4	2.8	1.7	2.5	2.3
Nicaragua	1997	2.6	11.7	2.6	2.0	2.5	6.6	3.0	1.6	2.0	1.9

Table 5 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1980-1997 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)											
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners						Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector					
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical		Total b/	Non-professional non-technical
						Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons				
Panama	1979	5.6	12.5	5.9 0	6.0	5.4	7.0	5.9	-	3.0	2.9
	1991	5.0	11.8	5.5	7.4	4.4	8.2	4.8	3.0	2.5	2.3
	1994	5.1	17.7	5.1	7.3	4.1	9.0	4.4	2.5	3.5	3.4
	1997	5.6	15.4	5.6	8.0	4.6	10.0	4.1	2.6	3.7	3.4
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	3.1	8.2	2.6	3.3	2.4	5.9	3.1	1.7	2.6	2.2
	1990	3.4	10.2	2.4	3.4	2.2	3.9	2.9	1.8	3.8	3.6
	1994	3.6	10.1	3.0	4.4	2.7	6.7	2.7	2.0	2.8	2.4
	1996	3.6	10.6	3.3	5.1	2.9	6.5	3.1	2.3	2.8	2.5
Dominican Republic	1997	4.4	13.5	3.9	4.7	3.7	7.5	3.5	2.4	4.3	4.0
Uruguay	1981	6.0	23.6	4.3	5.0	4.0	6.9	4.5	3.0	7.7	7.1
	1990	4.3	12.0	3.7	4.0	3.5	6.0	4.0	2.5	3.5	3.3
	1994	4.9	12.4	4.6	5.3	4.2	9.6	4.5	2.9	4.0	3.6
	1997	4.9	11.5	4.8	5.9	4.5	9.8	4.6	3.0	4.0	3.5
Venezuela	1981	7.6	11.5	7.8	8.8	7.3	12.3	7.6	5.0	5.2	5.0
	1990	4.5	12.0	3.7	3.9	3.6	4.2	4.0	2.5	4.5	4.3
	1994	3.8	8.9	3.2	2.7	3.4	6.3	3.6	2.1	4.1	3.9
	1997 g/	3.6	11.2	2.6	2.9	2.5	5.8	2.4	1.7	4.2	3.9

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

a/ Includes domestic employees. For Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Mexico, also includes public-sector wage earners.

b/ Includes own account workers in professional and technical occupations.

c/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments except for 1993 and 1996. Accordingly, the figure given in the column for establishments employing over 5 persons corresponds to the percentage of workers who have an employment contract ("carteira") while the column for establishments employing 5 or fewer workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.

d/ Includes private-sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments whose size is not known.

e/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the countries. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

f/ Includes persons employed in the Canal Zone.

g/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 7

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1980-1997 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)								
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners			Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total a/	Public sector	Private sector	Total b/	Agriculture
Bolivia	1997	1.3	10.5	3.5	3.7	3.4	0.8	0.6
Brazil	1979	2.1	10.9	2.3	-	2.3	1.5	1.3
	1990	2.0	8.8	2.1	-	2.1	1.5	1.2
	1993	1.8	11.6	2.2	3.9	2.1	1.3	1.2
	1996	2.0	12.7	2.7	4.2	2.5	1.2	1.0
Chile	1990	4.6	26.4	3.3	-	3.3	3.1	3.0
	1994	4.4	28.4	3.8	-	3.8	3.7	3.1
	1996	4.2	24.0	3.5	5.3	3.4	4.0	3.5
Colombia	1994	2.5	5.8	2.8	-	2.8	1.9	2.3
	1997	2.7	7.0	3.1	5.0	3.0	1.8	1.8
Costa Rica	1981	5.9	16.6	5.1	9.8	4.1	7.1	6.9
	1990	5.1	9.9	5.2	8.4	4.6	4.0	3.9
	1994	5.8	11.7	5.4	8.4	4.9	5.4	6.3
	1997	5.6	9.3	5.5	9.4	4.9	4.7	4.9
El Salvador	1995	2.4	5.5	2.7	5.4	2.6	1.7	1.4
	1997	2.4	4.3	3.1	5.7	2.9	1.5	1.1
Guatemala	1986	2.4	16.4	2.1	5.0	1.9	2.2	2.1
	1989	2.5	21.2	2.3	4.9	2.1	2.4	2.1
Honduras	1990	1.7	13.8	2.2	4.9	1.8	1.3	1.3
	1994	2.0	8.6	2.1	4.2	1.8	1.8	1.8
	1997	1.7	9.0	1.6	3.4	1.4	1.4	1.5
Mexico	1984	3.5	7.4	4.0	-	4.0	2.9	2.8
	1989	3.2	9.7	2.9	-	2.9	3.1	3.1
	1994	2.7	9.7	2.6	-	2.6	2.1	1.8
	1996	2.3	7.1	2.4	4.9	2.0	1.6	1.3
Panama	1979	3.6	4.0	5.6 c/	6.7	4.6	2.3	2.0
	1991	3.4	10.8	5.2	7.7	4.0	1.9	1.9
	1994	3.5	13.8	4.1	6.7	3.2	2.2	1.6
	1997	4.0	16.4	4.5	8.1	3.3	3.1	2.3
Dominican Republic	1997	4.3	6.6	4.3	6.2	3.8	4.2	3.4
Venezuela	1981	6.1	11.0	7.4	9.4	6.9	3.9	3.3
	1990	3.8	9.5	3.3	4.3	3.1	3.5	2.9
	1992	4.4	10.1	3.5	4.8	3.3	4.5	4.4
	1994	3.4	7.2	2.9	4.3	2.6	3.4	3.2

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

a/ Includes domestic employees. For Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Mexico, also includes public-sector wage earners.

b/ Includes wage earners in all sectors of activity.

c/ Includes persons employed in the Canal Zone.

Table 8

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF EMPLOYED POPULATION IN URBAN AREAS, BY SEX
 (Percentages)

Country	Year	Males							Females						
		Total	Employers	Professional and technical a/	Public sector wage earners	Private sector wage earners	Own account and unpaid family workers	Domestic employees	Total	Employers	Professional and technical a/	Public sector wage earners	Private sector wage earners	Own account and unpaid family workers	Domestic employees
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	100.0	5.8	5.0	—	55.0 b/	33.2	1.0	100.0	2.3	4.9	—	52.4 b/	30.2	10.1
	1990	100.0	6.9	—	—	66.6 c/	24.7	1.8	100.0	2.8	—	—	57.7 c/	27.0	12.5
	1994	100.0	6.3	—	—	68.7 c/	24.7	0.4	100.0	2.4	—	—	59.8 c/	25.5	12.3
	1997	100.0	6.4	—	—	72.1 c/	21.1	0.4	100.0	2.5	—	—	61.6 c/	22.2	12.7
Bolivia	1990	100.0	3.1	16.5	7.9	38.9	32.8	0.6	100.0	0.8	14.6	4.4	15.2	52.2	12.9
	1994	100.0	10.7	16.8	6.9	39.8	25.4	0.5	100.0	3.5	14.8	3.2	15.7	51.7	11.2
	1997	100.0	10.1	15.8	4.4	33.7	35.5	0.5	100.0	2.8	15.0	2.8	14.3	57.4	7.7
Brazil	1979	100.0	6.0	5.6	—	69.0 b/	19.0	0.4	100.0	1.2	14.0	—	43.5 b/	19.7	21.6
	1990	100.0	6.9	13.3	—	58.5 b/	20.9	0.4	100.0	2.5	23.3	—	36.4 b/	22.3	15.6
	1993	100.0	5.6	10.0	9.0	48.0	26.7	0.8	100.0	1.8	16.6	8.7	27.3	25.8	19.8
	1996	100.0	5.4	10.1	81.0	48.3	27.3	0.8	100.0	2.5	17.7	8.2	28.6	23.4	19.7
Chile	1990	100.0	3.1	11.8	—	62.9 b/	22.0	0.2	100.0	1.4	20.3	—	40.8 b/	18.2	19.4
	1994	100.0	3.9	17.6	—	60.2 b/	18.3	0.1	100.0	2.2	23.8	—	41.4 b/	15.8	16.8
	1996	100.0	4.5	18.3	4.3	55.6	17.0	0.2	100.0	2.8	24.0	4.9	37.6	14.5	16.3
Colombia	1980	100.0	5.7	9.8	6.9	51.2	24.2	0.3	100.0	1.2	9.5	6.8	43.0	22.3	17.3
	1990	100.0	5.6	12.0	6.6	50.9	24.6	0.3	100.0	2.1	13.1	6.3	42.3	22.8	13.5
	1994	100.0	6.3	10.5	5.1	51.9	26.1	0.2	100.0	2.7	12.8	4.5	43.0	23.4	12.7
	1997	100.0	5.6	12.5	5.2	44.0	32.5	0.2	100.0	2.8	15.2	5.5	38.0	28.2	10.4
Costa Rica	1981	100.0	3.5	11.1	18.5	45.3	18.2	1.6	100.0	1.3	20.0	15.6	35.5	13.7	13.9
	1990	100.0	7.2	18.0	14.5	41.9	18.1	0.2	100.0	2.3	22.6	12.1	34.4	16.6	12.0
	1994	100.0	8.1	17.4	12.4	45.1	16.7	0.3	100.0	4.0	22.9	10.1	36.8	16.1	10.1
	1997	100.0	9.9	16.7	9.8	46.3	17.1	0.2	100.0	4.0	25.8	10.0	32.4	18.7	9.2
Ecuador	1990	100.0	6.3	12.6	10.5	38.3	31.7	0.6	100.0	2.7	18.0	6.5	21.6	39.3	11.6
	1994	100.0	9.7	13.3	7.2	41.0	28.5	0.3	100.0	5.0	18.3	4.4	22.7	37.8	11.8
	1997	100.0	9.8	13.6	7.2	40.5	28.3	0.7	100.0	4.5	19.5	4.8	23.3	35.7	12.2
El Salvador d/	1990	100.0	4.8	9.2	11.2	51.3	23.2	0.4	100.0	1.6	8.7	5.6	25.2	45.8	13.1
	1995	100.0	8.6	14.9	7.9	46.9	21.3	0.5	100.0	3.3	13.4	4.9	26.6	42.8	9.1
	1997	100.0	7.6	16.1	8.3	44.9	22.9	0.3	100.0	3.3	15.3	4.2	25.7	42.0	9.4
Honduras	1990	100.0	1.9	12.5	8.1	50.3	26.8	0.4	100.0	0.9	15.2	5.4	23.4	39.0	16.0
	1994	100.0	5.7	13.7	5.0	48.7	26.9	—	100.0	1.9	17.1	3.5	30.3	33.6	13.7
	1997	100.0	8.8	10.3	5.1	47.3	27.8	0.8	100.0	3.1	16.1	4.3	27.4	38.3	10.7
Mexico	1984	100.0	3.3	2.4	—	69.6 b/	24.2	0.5	100.0	1.1	1.2	—	62.5 b/	27.7	7.5
	1989	100.0	4.3	11.1	—	66.5 b/	17.4	0.6	100.0	1.3	8.9	—	60.8 b/	21.9	7.1
	1994	100.0	4.9	8.2	—	68.1 b/	18.1	0.6	100.0	1.5	9.7	—	53.5 b/	25.1	9.6
	1996	100.0	5.8	13.3	9.2	53.4	17.4	0.9	100.0	2.1	17.9	8.1	37.6	25.9	8.3
Nicaragua	1997	100.0	2.8	8.5	10.7	45.3	32.6	0.1	100.0	1.1	7.1	11.9	24.5	41.0	14.4
Panama	1979	100.0	2.9	8.4	24.9	41.6	21.9	0.2	100.0	0.8	18.1	27.3	29.3	9.2	15.3
	1991	100.0	4.4	11.6	16.7	37.8	28.9	0.6	100.0	1.7	21.2	16.4	31.3	11.6	17.8
	1994	100.0	3.0	17.1	13.0	40.3	25.4	1.2	100.0	1.5	23.0	14.6	31.3	11.7	18.0
	1997	100.0	4.6	23.4	12.4	37.2	21.4	1.0	100.0	1.4	26.2	12.8	31.0	14.2	14.5

Table 8 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF EMPLOYED POPULATION IN URBAN AREAS, BY SEX (Percentages)															
Country	Year	Males							Females						
		Total	Employers	Professional and technical a/	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners	Own account and unpaid family workers	Domestic employees	Total	Employers	Professional and technical a/	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners	Own account and unpaid family workers	Domestic employees
Paraguay (Asunción)	1983	100.0	10.0	13.8	9.3	48.7	17.1	0.4	100.0	3.8	10.9	5.4	19.2	31.9	28.8
	1990	100.0	13.5	10.0	8.1	51.9	16.4	-	100.0	2.4	14.2	5.7	24.1	28.1	25.6
	1994	100.0	15.1	19.0	8.6	40.7	14.7	1.8	100.0	7.9	18.3	5.2	23.9	20.7	24.0
	1996	100.0	9.3	10.2	7.0	47.9	24.6	1.0	100.0	4.0	15.1	4.9	22.1	33.9	20.0
Dominican Republic	1995	100.0	5.3	15.1	6.6	37.5	35.2	0.2	100.0	2.0	22.9	7.1	35.6	21.9	10.5
	1997	100.0	4.9	11.7	7.8	40.7	34.5	0.4	100.0	1.5	18.5	5.3	37.3	25.8	11.6
Uruguay	1981	100.0	6.2	5.5	21.2	50.1	16.6	0.4	100.0	1.4	16.1	11.5	31.2	20.2	19.5
	1990	100.0	8.1	9.2	19.4	45.7	17.3	0.1	100.0	2.4	18.8	10.7	32.4	18.6	17.1
	1994	100.0	6.3	10.3	15.3	47.3	20.7	0.1	100.0	2.8	19.1	9.6	32.4	19.2	16.8
	1997	100.0	5.7	10.4	14.1	46.8	23.8	0.2	100.0	2.3	19.5	9.2	33.7	18.5	16.9
Venezuela	1981	100.0	8.1	7.7	16.3	46.2	19.9	1.8	100.0	1.4	20.6	17.8	32.1	14.9	13.2
	1990	100.0	10.2	12.1	11.3	42.0	22.5	1.9	100.0	2.3	25.6	12.2	25.8	19.1	15.0
	1994	100.0	8.4	11.4	8.7	40.9	29.2	1.5	100.0	1.7	24.9	13.3	27.2	23.9	9.0
	1997 e/	100.0	6.7	10.9	7.9	42.6	30.3	1.5	100.0	1.9	22.5	12.0	23.9	30.1	9.7

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

a/ Includes self-employed professionals and technicians and professional and technical wage earners in the public and private sectors.

b/ Includes public-sector wage earners.

c/ Includes professionals and technicians and wage earners in the public sector.

d/ The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with those of 1995 and 1997 owing to the changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

e/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 9

**LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME
TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME IN URBAN AREAS, BY AGE GROUPS**
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Earned income disparity by age group a/						Wage disparity by age group b/					
		Total	15-24 years	25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55 years and over	Total	15-24 years	25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55 years and over
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	63	83	66	61	71	48	70	90	73	60	77	62
	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
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
Brazil	1979	44	64	51	39	38	40	54	69	60	49	50	55
	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
Chile	1987	64	96	77	61	57	50	63	95	80	60	53	48
	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
Colombia	1980	57	94	66	55	44	38	77	108	81	69	59	59
	1990	68	94	76	65	59	51	80	100	87	74	71	62
	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
Costa Rica	1981	73	100	77	63	75	54	83	101	82	74	87	66
	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
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
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
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
Mexico	1984	64	93	77	48	57	38	80	98	86	69	74	64
	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
Nicaragua	1997	61	73	75	56	46	46	66	74	76	62	43	57
Panama	1979	71	79	77	74	62	53	67	74	75	69	59	48
	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

Table 9 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME IN URBAN AREAS, BY AGE GROUPS (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income disparity by age group a/						Wage disparity by age group b/					
		Total	15-24 years	25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55 years and over	Total	15-24 years	25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55 years and over
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	50	60	55	52	58	52	50	56	59	58	53	53
	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
Dominican Republic	1997	75	95	77	76	51	69	90	97	87	90	84	67
Uruguay	1981	51	72	62	46	44	44	58	75	61	56	51	50
	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
Venezuela	1981	71	84	78	65	57	54	86	88	90	82	75	80
	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 c/	69	84	77	62	60	55	83	92	87	77	73	65

Source: 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.

b/ Income differential among wage earners.

c/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 10

**LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME
IN URBAN AREAS, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING**
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Earned income disparity by years of schooling a/						Wage disparity by years of schooling b/					
		Total	0-3 years	4-6 years	7-9 years	10-12 years	13 years and more	Total	0-3 years	4-6 years	7-9 years	10-12 years	13 years and more
Argentina c/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	63	64	63	62	59	55	70	63	64	67	63	55
	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
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
Brazil	1979	44	39	40	43	42	36	54	50	48	51	48	41
	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
Chile	1987	64	79	73	81	67	46	63	80	74	83	68	50
	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
Colombia	1980	57	66	64	66	60	52	77	96	92	86	84	58
	1990	68	70	64	72	68	60	80	87	80	83	82	65
	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
Costa Rica	1981	73	46	53	72	74	79	83	46	59	80	82	85
	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
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
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
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
Mexico d/	1984	64	—	59	73	60	48	80	—	73	73	61	53
	1990	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
Nicaragua	1997	61	56	68	66	69	57	66	51	65	62	78	59
Panama	1979	71	58	55	63	74	65	67	49	50	60	70	65
	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

Table 10 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME IN URBAN AREAS, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income disparity by years of schooling a/						Wage disparity by years of schooling b/					
		Total	0-3 years	4-6 years	7-9 years	10-12 years	13 years and more	Total	0-3 years	4-6 years	7-9 years	10-12 years	13 years and more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1983	50	67	53	57	55	51	50	45	44	46	59	52
	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
Dominican Republic	1997	75	57	60	60	75	66	90	67	71	67	95	75
Uruguay	1981	51	45	49	49	47	43	58	48	53	57	57	44
	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
Venezuela	1981	71	58	59	70	74	74	86	69	73	80	81	81
	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 e/	69	71	61	64	60	63	83	74	73	71	75	70

Source: 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.

b/ Income differential among wage earners.

c/ For Argentina, the levels of education are 0-6 years, 7-9 years and 10 or more years.

d/ Except for 1990, the levels of education in Mexico are 0-5 years, 6-9 years, 10-12 years and 13 or more years.

e/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 11

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1980-1997
(Percentage of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employees	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Total	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
					Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	42.9	3.2	13.3	0.5	12.8	4.0	22.4	7.7	14.7
	1990	43.1	3.8	13.0	0.4	12.6	4.5	21.8	6.6	15.2
	1994	47.8	3.4	14.7	-	-	4.8	24.9	6.2	18.6
	1997	46.2	3.7	15.9	-	-	5.1	21.5	5.1	16.4
Bolivia	1989	62.5	1.1	13.8	1.1	12.7	5.8	41.8	9.9	30.6
	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
Brazil d/	1979	45.7	-	18.9	2.4	16.5	7.5	19.3	3.3	13.5
	1990	49.2	-	21.6	4.4	17.2	6.2	21.4	3.5	15.8
	1993	45.5	1.9	9.0	0.6	8.4	8.2	26.4	4.7	16.0
	1996	46.6	2.0	10.5	0.7	9.8	8.4	25.7	5.0	15.9
Chile	1990	-	-	-	-	-	7.0	21.7 e/	5.7	15.0
	1994	34.6	1.8	9.4	0.8	8.6	6.1	17.3	5.4	11.2
	1996 f/	34.4	2.0	10.2	1.0	9.2	6.1	16.1	4.2	10.7
Colombia (8 major cities)	1980	-	-	-	-	-	6.8	24.6	7.6	16.5
	1990	-	-	-	-	-	5.5	23.9	5.8	17.7
	1994 g/	-	-	-	-	-	5.3	25.0	6.2	18.4
	1997	-	-	-	-	-	4.5	30.8	7.1	22.9
Costa Rica	1981	37.7	2.8	12.0	0.2	11.8	5.1	17.8	4.9	11.1
	1990	37.6	4.4	10.6	0.6	10.0	4.4	18.2	6.5	10.6
	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
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	53.9	6.0	11.9	0.9	11.0	5.0	31.0	6.4	22.8
El Salvador	1995	51.0	4.9	10.7	0.2	10.5	4.4	31.0	8.1	20.2
	1997	54.7	5.0	13.8	0.8	13.0	4.4	31.5	7.1	21.5
Guatemala	1986	61.4	3.6	16.0	0.7	15.3	9.3	32.5	6.5	16.4
	1989	56.8	2.1	15.0	0.7	14.3	7.0	32.7	7.6	16.3
Honduras	1990	53.2	1.0	13.9	0.7	13.2	6.7	31.6	8.8	18.7
	1994	49.9	3.0	12.0	0.9	11.1	5.4	29.5	8.1	16.1
	1997	52.0	3.0	11.6	0.6	11.0	5.1	32.3	7.6	20.4
Mexico h/	1984	-	-	-	-	-	2.6	24.8	2.2	14.0
	1989	-	-	-	-	-	2.7	19.2	3.0	12.8
	1994	-	3.3	-	-	-	3.8	20.6	4.3	15.0
	1996	43.6	3.8	15.8	1.2	14.6	3.6	20.4	3.8	15.7
Nicaragua	1997	60.1	1.3	15.8	0.5	15.3	6.6	36.4	9.1	25.7

Table 11 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1980-1997 (Percentage of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employees	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Total	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
					Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Panama	1979	-	-	-	-	-	6.2	17.0	4.0	9.9
	1991	37.8	2.6	5.7	0.3	5.4	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	33.6	2.2	6.4	0.9	5.5	6.5	18.5	4.6	12.8
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	57.5	6.1	12.6	0.3	12.3	13.9	24.9	6.6	17.2
	1990	57.6	7.2	16.1	0.3	15.8	11.4	22.9	5.6	16.7
	1994	50.6	8.6	11.9	1.8	10.1	12.5	17.6	3.7	13.6
	1996	57.1	4.7	14.6	0.8	13.8	9.3	28.5	6.4	19.9
Dominican Republic	1992	-	-	-	-	-	3.2	32.8	5.6	23.0
	1995	-	-	-	-	-	3.8	30.6	4.9	22.1
	1997	47.0	2.1	9.1	0.7	8.4	4.4	31.4	6.8	21.3
Uruguay	1981	35.2	2.9	8.2	0.2	8.0	7.0	17.1	5.5	11.2
	1990	39.5	2.7	10.6	0.2	10.4	6.9	19.3	5.7	12.2
	1994	40.3	3.3	9.9	0.5	9.4	7.0	20.1	6.4	12.7
	1997	42.5	2.8	11.6	0.5	11.1	7.1	21.0	6.9	12.8
Venezuela	1981	34.7	4.5	8.3	0.6	7.7	3.5	18.4	4.3	12.9
	1990	37.1	4.9	6.7	0.2	6.5	4.0	21.5	4.1	15.5
	1994	45.3	4.2	9.7	0.5	9.2	4.0	27.4	5.9	19.0
	1997 ^{h/}	49.4	3.6	11.3	0.5	10.8	4.3	30.2	6.1	19.9

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons (up to 4 persons in the cases of Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama and Venezuela).

b/ Refers to own account and unpaid family workers engaged in non-professional, non technical occupations. Except in Argentina, where it was impossible to distinguish between skilled and unskilled workers in 1994 and 1997.

c/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.

d/ To 1990, the heading "Micro-enterprises" refers to wage earners lacking an employment contract. In 1993 and 1996, however, it refers to wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons. Consequently, the data for 1995 are not comparable with those of previous years.

e/ Includes employers in micro-enterprises.

f/ In 1996, the heading "Micro-enterprises" refers to establishments employing up to four persons, in line with the categories used for the variable "Size of establishment" in that year's survey.

g/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

h/ The 1994 survey did not provide information on the size of the business establishments where wage earners were employed.

i/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 12

**LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED
IN LOW PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1980-1997**
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Unskilled self-employed workers b/			Domestic employees
			Employers	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.8	18.4	5.1	10.5	4.9	8.7	8.0	9.1	3.2
	1990	6.6	18.4	3.7	7.6	3.6	7.2	6.9	7.3	2.5
	1994	9.3	24.8	5.0	-	-	10.8	9.1	11.2	3.3
	1997	7.2	23.1	3.9	-	-	8.6	6.9	9.2	2.6
Bolivia	1989	3.6	11.8	3.1	7.8	2.7	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
Brazil d/	1979	3.9	-	3.6	6.9	3.1	5.2	5.0	5.7	1.1
	1990	3.2	-	3.6	7.9	2.5	3.4	3.3	3.6	1.0
	1993	2.6	10.5	2.1	5.5	1.9	2.7	2.5	3.4	1.1
	1996	3.5	13.7	2.6	5.9	2.4	3.7	3.5	4.5	1.5
Chile	1990	-	-	-	-	-	4.7	3.9	5.1	1.4
	1994	4.8	17.4	3.2	6.9	2.9	5.3	4.7	5.6	2.0
	1996 e/	5.9	22.3	3.4	7.6	3.0	6.7	5.9	7.0	2.0
Colombia (8 major cities)	1980	-	-	-	-	-	3.7	2.9	3.9	2.1
	1990	-	-	-	-	-	3.7	3.3	3.8	1.7
	1994 f/	-	-	-	-	-	2.9	2.6	2.9	1.7
	1997	-	-	-	-	-	2.8	2.4	2.8	1.6
Costa Rica	1981	5.6	12.9	3.5	5.1	3.5	6.9	5.6	7.1	1.7
	1990	3.6	6.5	3.5	6.1	3.3	3.5	3.0	3.7	1.5
	1994	4.4	9.2	3.8	5.8	3.6	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
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
El Salvador	1995	2.4	6.8	2.0	3.1	2.0	2.0	1.6	2.4	1.0
	1997	2.7	8.0	2.5	5.8	2.3	2.1	2.0	2.4	1.9
Guatemala	1986	2.3	7.6	1.6	2.5	1.6	2.2	1.8	2.6	1.7
	1989	2.9	13.1	1.8	4.2	1.7	3.0	2.4	3.7	1.4
Honduras	1990	1.6	7.6	1.7	4.0	1.6	1.6	1.2	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
Mexico	1984	-	-	-	-	-	4.1	4.3	3.6	1.7
	1989	-	-	-	-	-	4.4	3.9	5.2	1.4
	1994	-	13.8	-	-	-	3.4	2.9	3.7	1.2
	1996	3.1	12.8	1.8	2.9	1.7	2.3	1.9	2.4	1.2
Nicaragua	1997	1.9	9.0	1.8	6.8	1.6	1.9	1.6	2.0	0.9
Panama	1979	-	-	-	-	-	2.9	3.2	3.3	1.3
	1991	2.6	7.7	3.1	5.5	3.0	2.3	2.5	2.9	1.3
	1994	3.2	11.4	2.6	4.9	2.5	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

Table 12 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1980-1997 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Unskilled self-employed workers b/			Domestic employees
			Employers	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	2.3	7.6	1.7	-	1.7	2.2	1.7	2.5	0.7
	1990	3.1	8.3	1.8	-	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
Dominican Republic	1997	3.8	9.9	2.6	5.1	2.4	4.0	4.2	4.1	1.4
Uruguay	1981	6.1	19.9	3.0	3.6	3.0	7.1	5.7	7.9	1.7
	1990	3.2	8.9	2.5	4.9	2.5	3.3	2.1	3.0	1.5
	1994	3.7	10.5	3.0	4.6	2.9	3.6	2.8	4.0	1.7
	1997	3.5	9.8	3.1	4.2	3.0	3.5	2.8	3.8	1.8
Venezuela	1981	5.7	10.9	5.5	11.6	5.0	5.0	4.6	5.3	2.9
	1990	4.4	9.6	2.5	3.2	2.5	4.3	4.0	4.5	1.4
	1992	4.9	10.3	2.5	3.8	2.5	5.1	4.6	5.4	2.0
	1994	3.7	7.5	2.2	4.9	2.1	3.9	3.8	4.1	1.9
	1997 g/	3.6	9.4	1.8	2.9	1.7	3.8	4.0	4.2	1.4

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons (up to 4 persons in the cases of Panama and Venezuela). Where no information was available on the size of establishments, no data are given on the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.

b/ Refers to own account and unpaid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations.

c/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.

d/ In 1979, 1987 and 1990, wage earners without an employment contract were included under two heading "Micro-enterprises".

e/ In 1996, the heading "Micro-enterprises" refers to establishments employing up to four persons, in line with the categories used for the variable "Size of establishment" in that year's survey.

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

g/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 13

**LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS
OF THE LABOUR MARKET, BY SEX**
(Percentage of the total employed urban population)

Country	Year	Males					Females				
		Total	Employers with up to 5 employees a)	Wage earners in establish- ments with up to 5 employees a) b)	Own account and unpaid family workers	Domestic employees	Total	Employers with up to 5 employees a)	Wage earners in establish- ments with up to 5 employees a) b)	Own account and unpaid family workers b)	Domestic employees
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	47.1	3.1	9.8	33.2	1.0	52.6	1.6	10.7	30.2	10.1
	1990	43.9	4.6	12.8 c)	24.7 c)	1.8	52.4	2.3	10.6 c)	27.0 c)	12.5
	1994	45.2	4.4	15.7 c)	24.7 c)	0.4	52.5	1.6	13.1 c)	25.5 c)	12.3
	1997	44.7	4.5	18.7 c)	21.1 c)	0.4	48.6	2.5	11.2 c)	22.2 c)	12.7
Bolivia	1990	53.0	3.2	16.4	32.8	0.6	72.5	0.8	6.6	52.2	12.9
	1994	52.8	8.6	18.3	25.4	0.5	71.9	3.1	7.9	51.7	11.2
	1997	57.1	7.1	14.2	35.3	0.5	74.1	2.1	7.0	57.3	7.7
Brazil	1979	38.2	-	18.8 d)	19.0	0.4	49.6	-	7.1 d)	19.7	21.6
	1990	42.2	-	20.9 d)	20.9	0.4	48.9	-	11.0 d)	22.3	15.6
	1993	40.0	2.5	10.0	26.7	0.8	52.6	1.0	6.0	25.8	19.8
	1997	41.9	2.5	11.4	27.2	0.8	51.9	1.3	7.5	23.4	19.7
Chile	1987	-	-	-	25.8	0.2	-	-	-	24.2	21.8
	1990	33.1	0.9	10.0	22.0	0.2	46.3	0.5	8.2	18.2	19.4
	1994	29.5	2.0	9.1	18.3	0.1	41.8	1.5	7.7	15.8	16.8
	1996 e)	29.3	2.3	9.8	17.0	0.2	40.5	1.5	8.2	14.5	16.3
Colombia	1987	-	-	-	26.2	0.3	-	-	-	22.3	17.3
	1990	-	-	-	24.6	0.3	-	-	-	22.8	13.5
	1994	-	-	-	26.1	0.2	-	-	-	23.4	12.7
	1997	-	-	-	32.5	0.2	-	-	-	28.2	10.4
Costa Rica	1981	34.2	3.4	11.0	18.2	1.6	36.4	0.9	7.9	13.7	13.9
	1990	34.3	5.7	10.3	18.1	0.2	39.1	1.9	8.6	16.6	12.0
	1994	34.7	6.1	11.6	16.7	0.3	39.6	3.1	10.3	16.1	10.1
	1997	37.5	7.8	12.4	17.1	0.2	40.4	3.3	9.2	18.7	9.2
Ecuador	1990	50.4	4.3	13.8	31.7	0.6	60.1	2.3	6.7	39.5	11.6
	1994	51.6	7.8	15.0	28.5	0.3	61.7	4.4	7.7	37.8	11.8
	1997	49.5	7.4	13.1	28.3	0.7	59.2	3.7	7.5	35.7	12.3
El Salvador f)	1990	45.6	3.8	18.2	23.2	0.4	67.5	1.4	7.2	45.8	13.1
	1995	42.8	6.7	14.3	21.3	0.5	60.5	2.8	5.8	42.8	9.1
	1997	46.9	6.6	17.1	22.9	0.3	62.6	3.1	8.1	42.0	9.4
Honduras	1990	45.8	1.2	17.4	26.8	0.4	62.7	0.8	6.9	39.0	16.0
	1994	45.4	4.1	14.4	26.9	0.0	54.8	1.5	6.0	33.6	13.7
	1997	51.7	7.3	15.8	27.8	0.8	56.4	2.7	4.7	38.3	10.7
Mexico	1984	-	-	-	24.2	0.5	-	-	-	27.7	7.5
	1989	-	3.5	-	17.8	0.6	-	1.2	-	22.1	7.1
	1994	-	4.4	-	18.1	0.6	-	1.4	-	25.1	9.6
	1996	40.4	4.8	17.3	17.4	0.9	46.0	1.9	9.9	25.9	8.3
Nicaragua	1997	54.1	1.7	19.7	32.6	0.1	66.2	0.8	10.0	41.0	14.4
Panama	1979	-	-	-	21.9	0.2	-	-	-	9.2	15.3
	1991	39.0	3.4	6.1	28.9	0.6	35.0	1.3	4.3	11.6	17.8
	1994	35.4	2.1	6.7	25.4	1.2	34.8	1.0	4.0	11.7	18.1
	1997	31.1	2.9	5.8	21.4	1.0	34.8	1.0	5.1	14.2	14.5

Table 13 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, BY SEX (Percentage of the total employed urban population)											
Country	Year	Males					Females				
		Total	Employers with up to 5 employees a/	Wage earners in establishments with up to 5 employees a/ b/	Own account and unpaid family workers	Domestic employees	Total	Employers with up to 5 employees a/	Wage earners in establishments with up to 5 employees a/ b/	Own account and unpaid family workers b/	Domestic employees
Paraguay (Asunción)	1983	42.3	8.3	16.5	17.1	0.4	70.3	3.1	6.5	31.9	28.8
	1990	47.3	10.2	20.7	16.4	0.0	64.4	2.1	8.6	28.1	25.6
	1994	39.8	9.9	13.4	14.7	1.8	58.4	7.1	6.6	20.7	24.0
	1996	50.2	6.2	18.4	24.6	1.0	64.3	2.8	7.8	33.9	20.0
Dominican Republic	1992	-	-	-	36.1	0.2	-	-	-	26.7	8.7
	1995	-	-	-	35.2	0.2	-	-	-	21.9	10.5
	1997	47.0	2.7	9.4	34.5	0.4	45.2	1.1	6.7	25.8	11.6
Uruguay	1981	30.9	3.8	10.1	16.6	0.4	46.2	1.1	6.8	20.2	19.5
	1990	29.3	3.7	8.2	17.3	0.1	43.5	1.4	6.4	18.6	17.1
	1994	35.6	4.2	10.6	20.7	0.1	45.6	2.0	7.6	19.2	16.8
	1997	38.7	3.6	12.1	22.8	0.2	46.6	1.6	9.6	18.5	16.9
Venezuela	1981	43.3	6.0	15.6	19.9	1.8	37.6	1.1	8.4	14.9	13.2
	1990	38.8	6.5	7.9	22.5	1.9	39.2	1.7	3.4	19.1	15.0
	1994	47.4	5.8	10.9	29.2	1.5	40.0	1.2	5.9	23.9	9.0
	1997 g/	50.0	4.8	13.4	30.3	1.5	47.0	1.4	5.8	30.1	9.7

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

- a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons (up to 4 persons in the cases of Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Panama, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela).
- b/ Does not include workers employed in professional and technical occupations.
- c/ Includes workers employed in professional and technical occupations.
- d/ Refers to workers without an employment contract ("carteira").
- e/ In 1996, the heading "Micro-enterprises" refers to establishments employing up to four persons, in line with the categories used for the variable "Size of establishment" in that year's survey.
- f/ The 1990 figures are not strictly comparable with those of 1995 and 1997 owing to changes made in the classification of the professional and technical workers.
- g/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 14

**LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES):
OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, 1997**

Country	Sex	Age group				
		Total	15-24	25-34	35-44	45 and over
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires) Oct. 1997	Total	14.3	24.2	12.7	10.6	11.6
	Males	12.4	21.1	10.1	8.6	11.1
	Females	17.2	28.9	16.8	13.8	12.4
Bolivia Nov. 1997	Total	3.7	6.4	3.7	2.9	2.1
	Males	3.7	5.8	3.4	3.1	2.8
	Females	3.7	7.1	4.2	2.5	1.2
Brazil Sept. 1996	Total	8.0	15.1	7.4	5.0	3.8
	Males	6.7	12.8	5.6	4.2	3.7
	Females	10.0	18.2	9.8	6.2	4.0
Chile Nov. 1996	Total	6.0	13.2	5.9	4.1	3.4
	Males	5.1	10.7	5.0	3.6	3.7
	Females	7.3	17.1	7.4	5.0	2.9
Colombia Sept. 1997	Total	11.8	24.3	11.8	6.5	5.8
	Males	9.7	20.7	8.6	5.4	6.1
	Females	14.7	28.3	15.6	7.9	5.1
Costa Rica July 1997	Total	5.8	13.0	4.4	3.9	3.0
	Males	5.3	11.4	3.6	3.9	3.1
	Females	6.7	16.2	5.6	4.0	2.8
Ecuador Nov. 1997	Total	9.2	18.9	9.7	4.7	3.8
	Males	6.9	15.1	6.4	3.6	3.4
	Females	12.6	24.5	14.3	6.3	4.6
El Salvador 1997	Total	7.3	14.6	7.7	4.4	3.5
	Males	8.8	16.1	8.1	6.1	5.4
	Females	5.5	12.4	7.2	2.5	0.8
Honduras Sept. 1997	Total	5.2	8.9	5.4	2.9	2.3
	Males	5.9	9.2	5.6	4.5	3.4
	Females	4.3	8.5	5.2	0.8	0.7
Mexico 3 rd quarter 1996	Total	5.1	12.5	3.2	1.7	2.8
	Males	5.8	13.8	3.4	2.1	3.9
	Females	3.9	10.3	2.9	1.0	0.5
Nicaragua Oct. 1997	Total	13.1	20.9	13.7	9.2	7.4
	Males	13.6	18.9	13.2	11.2	10.1
	Females	12.6	23.8	14.3	7.2	3.9
Panama Aug. 1997	Total	15.4	31.5	14.9	9.7	6.9
	Males	13.3	29.2	10.9	7.5	7.4
	Females	18.2	34.6	20.1	12.2	6.0
Paraguay (Asunción) Aug.-Dec. 1996	Total	8.4	17.8	5.2	3.4	5.8
	Males	8.2	17.4	4.2	1.9	7.6
	Females	8.7	18.2	6.5	5.1	3.4

Table 14 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, 1997						
Country	Sex	Age group				
		Total	15-24	25-34	35-44	45 and over
Dominican Republic April 1997	Total	17.0	27.8	15.7	10.2	8.7
	Males	10.9	20.0	8.0	6.9	6.1
	Females	26.0	38.2	25.5	15.0	14.8
Uruguay 1997	Total	11.4	26.3	10.5	7.1	5.3
	Males	8.9	21.8	7.5	4.4	4.4
	Females	14.7	32.7	14.3	10.2	6.7
Venezuela (National) 2 nd half 1997 ^{a/}	Total	10.6	19.8	10.6	6.8	5.5
	Males	9.0	16.4	8.3	5.7	5.6
	Females	13.6	26.6	14.3	8.5	5.3

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

^{a/} The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 15

**LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING
IN URBAN AREAS, 1997**

Country	Sex	Years of schooling				
		Total	0-5	6-9	10-12	13 or more
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires) Oct. 1997	Total	14.3	16.8	16.6	14.4	9.4
	Males	12.4	15.6	15.7	9.8	7.6
	Females	17.2	18.7	18.4	21.3	11.3
Bolivia Nov. 1997	Total	3.7	2.7	2.1	5.4	4.1
	Males	3.7	3.2	1.8	4.6	4.7
	Females	3.7	2.3	2.6	6.8	3.1
Brazil Sept. 1996	Total	8.0	7.5	11.3	7.5	3.4
	Males	6.7	6.5	9.0	5.8	2.6
	Females	10.0	9.2	14.8	9.3	4.2
Chile Nov. 1996	Total	6.0	6.7	6.7	6.6	4.0
	Males	5.1	6.8	5.9	5.2	3.4
	Females	7.3	6.6	8.1	9.1	4.8
Colombia Sept. 1997	Total	11.8	9.3	14.5	14.7	7.6
	Males	9.7	8.7	11.5	11.4	5.9
	Females	14.7	10.4	18.6	18.4	9.6
Costa Rica July 1997	Total	5.8	5.5	7.3	6.1	3.4
	Males	5.3	4.8	6.4	5.4	3.2
	Females	6.7	7.2	8.9	7.1	3.6
Ecuador Nov. 1997	Total	9.2	5.9	7.8	12.9	8.1
	Males	6.9	6.0	6.4	9.2	5.4
	Females	12.6	5.9	10.5	18.3	11.7
El Salvador 1997	Total	7.3	5.3	8.0	9.6	6.4
	Males	8.8	8.8	9.4	9.8	5.5
	Females	5.5	1.6	5.8	9.3	7.4
Honduras Sept. 1997	Total	5.2	4.8	5.4	6.3	3.6
	Males	5.9	6.6	6.0	5.9	3.3
	Females	4.3	2.2	4.5	6.7	4.0
Mexico 3 rd quarter 1996	Total	5.1	3.5	5.8	5.2	4.6
	Males	5.8	4.8	6.7	5.7	4.2
	Females	3.9	1.2	4.3	4.2	5.5
Nicaragua Oct. 1997	Total	13.1	10.9	14.3	14.9	11.6
	Males	13.6	12.5	14.7	15.1	10.7
	Females	12.6	9.0	13.8	14.7	12.7
Panama Aug. 1997	Total	15.4	12.1	16.6	18.2	11.3
	Males	13.3	13.6	15.6	14.4	8.2
	Females	18.2	9.1	18.4	23.5	14.2
Paraguay (Asunción) Aug.-Dec. 1996	Total	8.4	7.8	9.4	10.6	3.4
	Males	8.2	9.3	9.0	8.8	3.4
	Females	8.7	5.9	9.8	12.9	3.5

Table 15 (Concluded)

**LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING
IN URBAN AREAS, 1997**

Country	Sex	Years of schooling				
		Total	0-5	6-9	10-12	13 or more
Dominican Republic April, 1997	Total	17.0	15.3	18.9	18.1	15.1
	Males	10.9	10.4	11.2	11.5	10.0
	Females	26.0	24.8	32.7	26.2	19.5
Uruguay 1997	Total	11.4	8.1	13.2	11.8	6.8
	Males	8.9	6.7	10.1	8.9	4.8
	Females	14.7	10.7	18.1	14.9	8.3
Venezuela (National) 2 nd half 1997 a/	Total	10.6	9.4	11.0	12.7	8.4
	Males	9.0	7.9	9.5	10.6	6.6
	Females	13.6	13.4	14.3	15.5	10.4

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

a/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 16

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS
 (Percentages)

Country	Year	Total	Households below the poverty line a/				Households below the indigence line				
			Urban areas			Rural areas	Total	Urban areas			Rural areas
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Argentina	1980	9	7	5	9	16	2	2	1	2	4
	1990	-	-	16	-	-	-	-	4	-	-
	1994	-	12	10	16	-	-	2	2	3	-
	1997	-	-	13	-	-	-	-	3	-	-
Bolivia	1989	-	49	-	-	-	-	22	-	-	-
	1994	-	46	-	-	-	-	17	-	-	-
	1997	-	47	-	-	-	-	19	-	-	-
Brazil b/	1979	39	30	21 b/	34	62	17	10	6 b/	12	35
	1990	41	36	-	-	64	18	13	-	-	38
	1993	37	33	-	-	53	15	12	-	-	30
	1996	29	25	-	-	46	11	8	-	-	23
Chile c/	1987	39	38	33	41	45	14	14	11	15	17
	1990	33	33	28	37	34	11	10	8	11	12
	1994	23	23	17	26	26	6	6	4	7	8
	1996	20	19	12	22	26	5	4	2	5	8
Colombia	1980	39	36	30	37	45	16	13	10	14	22
	1990	-	35	-	-	-	-	12	-	-	-
	1994 d/	47	41	35	43	57	25	16	12	18	38
	1997	45	39	30	43	54	20	15	10	16	29
Costa Rica	1981	22	16	15	17	28	6	5	5	6	8
	1990	24	22	20	25	25	10	7	5	9	12
	1994	21	18	16	21	23	8	6	4	7	10
	1997	20	17	16	18	23	7	5	5	5	9
Ecuador	1990	-	56	-	-	-	-	23	-	-	-
	1994	-	52	-	-	-	-	22	-	-	-
	1997	-	50	-	-	-	-	19	-	-	-
El Salvador	1995	48	40	30	50	58	18	12	7	17	27
	1997	48	39	26	50	62	19	12	6	18	28
Guatemala	1980	65	41	26	52	79	33	13	5	19	44
	1986	68	54	45	59	75	43	28	20	31	53
	1990	-	-	-	-	72	-	-	-	-	45
Honduras	1986	71	53	-	-	81	51	28	-	-	64
	1990	75	65	-	-	84	54	38	-	-	66
	1994	73	70	-	-	76	49	41	-	-	55
	1997	74	67	-	-	80	48	35	-	-	59
Mexico	1984	34	28	- e/	- e/	45	11	7	- e/	- e/	20
	1989	39	34	-	-	49	14	9	-	-	23
	1994	36	29	-	-	47	12	6	-	-	20
	1996	43	38	-	-	53	16	10	-	-	25
Nicaragua	1997	-	66	-	-	-	-	36	-	-	-

Table 16 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Total	Households below the poverty line a/				Households below the indigence line				
			Urban areas			Rural areas	Total	Urban areas			Rural areas
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Panama	1979	36	31	27	42	45	19	14	12	19	27
	1991	36	34	32	40	43	16	14	14	15	21
	1994	30	25	23	35	41	12	9	8	13	20
	1997	27	25	24	29	34	10	9	8	10	14
Paraguay	1986	-	-	46	-	-	-	-	16	-	-
	1990	-	-	37	-	-	-	-	10	-	-
	1994	-	42	35	51	-	-	15	10	21	-
	1996	-	40	34	48	-	-	13	8	20	-
Peru	1979	46	35	29	41	65	21	12	9	15	37
	1986	52	45	37	53	64	25	16	11	22	39
	1995 d/	41	33	-	-	56	18	10	-	-	35
	1997 d/	37	25	-	-	61	18	7	-	-	41
Dominican Republic	1997	32	32	-	-	34	13	11	-	-	15
Uruguay	1981	11	9	6	13	21	3	2	1	3	7
	1990	-	12	7	17	-	-	2	1	3	-
	1994	-	6	4	7	-	-	1	1	1	-
	1997	-	6	5	6	-	-	1	1	1	-
Venezuela	1981	22	18	12	20	35	7	5	3	6	15
	1990	34	33	25	36	38	12	11	7	12	17
	1994	42	41	21	46	48	15	14	4	16	23
	1997 g/	42	-	-	-	-	17	-	-	-	-
Latin America h/	1980	35	25	-	-	54	15	9	-	-	28
	1990	41	35	-	-	58	18	12	-	-	34
	1994	38	32	-	-	56	16	11	-	-	34
	1997	36	30	-	-	54	15	10	-	-	31

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

a/ Includes households below the indigence line.

b/ Average of the figures for Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo.

c/ Calculations based on the 1987, 1990, 1992, 1994 and 1996 national socio-economic survey (CASEN) data. Estimates adjusted for the latest figures for the household income and expenditure account from the Ministry of Planning and Cooperation (MIDEPLAN).

d/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country, plus the rural population. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

e/ Estimates could not be made for the Federal District because the sample size is too small.

f/ Figures provided by the National Institute of Statistics and Informatics (INE), based on the National Household Survey (ENAHU) for the fourth quarters of 1995 and 1997.

g/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

h/ Estimates for 19 countries of the region.

Table 17

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE								
Country	Year	Per capita income brackets expressed as multiples of the poverty line						
		0-0.5 (Indigent)	0.5-0.9	0.9-1.0	1.0-1.0 (Poor)	1.0-1.25	1.25-1.5	1.5-3.0 More than 3.0
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	3.5	10.6	2.1	16.2	7.3	22.5	18.7
	1994	1.5	6.6	2.1	10.2	7.4	16.7	19.0
	1997	3.3	7.0	2.8	13.1	7.2	19.0	17.5
Bolivia	1989	22.1	23.1	4.1	49.3	9.0	16.4	10.6
	1994	16.9	24.3	4.6	45.8	9.8	19.3	10.2
	1997	19.2	22.6	5.1	46.8	9.7	17.2	11.2
Brazil a/	1990	14.7	17.2	3.7	35.6	8.3	16.6	12.3
	1993	13.6	16.0	3.8	33.3	8.5	19.0	13.3
	1996	9.9	12.1	2.9	24.9	7.7	17.3	15.4
Chile	1990	10.3	19.0	4.5	33.8	9.5	20.3	14.3
	1994	5.9	13.5	3.8	23.2	9.0	21.5	16.7
	1996	4.6	11.8	3.4	19.8	8.5	20.5	17.2
Colombia b/	1990	11.9	18.7	4.0	34.6	9.7	19.1	13.4
	1994	16.2	20.3	4.1	40.6	9.1	18.2	12.6
	1997	14.6	20.3	4.5	39.5	9.6	18.9	12.6
Costa Rica	1990	7.3	11.2	3.7	22.2	7.9	21.9	20.2
	1994	5.7	9.1	3.4	18.2	7.9	20.4	20.7
	1997	5.2	9.0	2.8	17.0	8.1	20.5	20.3
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
	1997	18.6	25.6	5.6	49.8	10.0	19.4	10.7
El Salvador	1995	12.5	22.4	5.1	40.0	12.0	22.0	12.8
	1997	12.0	21.8	4.8	38.6	11.0	21.8	13.6
Guatemala	1989	22.9	21.0	4.3	48.2	8.5	17.3	11.0
Honduras	1990	38.0	22.7	3.8	64.5	8.2	12.0	6.5
	1994	40.8	24.5	4.3	69.6	7.6	12.0	5.1
	1997	36.8	26.0	4.2	67.0	8.2	12.5	5.9
Mexico	1989	9.3	19.8	4.8	33.9	11.0	22.3	13.1
	1994	6.2	18.2	4.6	29.0	10.8	21.8	14.4
	1996	10.0	22.2	5.3	37.5	10.7	21.3	12.4
Nicaragua	1997	35.7	27.0	3.6	66.2	8.3	11.6	6.6
Panama	1991	13.9	15.5	4.2	33.6	8.5	17.0	13.7
	1994	8.7	13.2	3.4	25.3	7.7	19.2	16.5
	1997	8.6	12.2	3.7	24.6	7.5	18.8	15.4
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
	1996	8.0	19.2	6.4	33.5	11.3	22.2	13.5
Dominican Republic	1997	11.0	16.6	4.0	31.6	10.4	21.5	15.6

Table 17 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE								
Country	Year	Per capita income brackets expressed as multiples of the poverty line						
		0-0.5 (Indigent)	0.5-0.9	0.9-1.0	1.0-1.5 (Poor)	1.5-2.0	2.0-3.0	More than 3.0
Uruguay	1990	2.0	7.0	2.8	11.8	7.1	22.7	35.3
	1994	1.1	3.4	1.3	5.8	3.6	15.4	52.0
	1997	0.9	3.5	1.4	5.7	4.0	15.2	53.8
Venezuela	1990	10.9	17.5	5.0	33.4	10.9	21.5	19.4
	1994	13.5	22.0	5.4	40.9	10.4	21.4	14.4
	1997 ^{c/}	16.5	21.2	4.6	42.3	10.6	19.3	16.3

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

- a/ In this country the percentages used to determine indigence (0 to 0.5 poverty lines) may not coincide with those presented in Table 16. This is because in Brazil the poverty line is calculated by multiplying the indigence line by a variable coefficient instead of a fixed rate (2.0), as is done elsewhere.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.
- c/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 18

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES a/, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Non-professional, non-technical, own account workers	
					In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	21	10	-	12 b/	15	21	8	6
	1994	13	5	-	5 b/	7	10	4	3
	1997	18	8	-	8 b/	12	18	8	6
Bolivia	1989	53	39	-	41	52	31	46	39
	1994	52	41	35	48	58	31	52	44
	1997	52	43	30	42	50	35	59	46
Brazil c/	1990	41	32	-	31	48	49	41	36
	1993	40	32	20	32	39	47	43	33
	1996	31	22	14	22	27	35	29	22
Chile	1990	38	26	-	31 b/	-	37	28	23
	1994	27	20	-	20 b/	27	21	20	15
	1996	22	15	7	17	24	20	10	9
Colombia (8 major cities)	1990	39	29	-	36 d/	-	27	30	34
	1994 e/	45	34	15	41 d/	-	31	42	42
	1997	40	33	15	37 d/	-	34	48	42
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
Ecuador	1990	62	51	33	50	60	56	70	61
	1994	58	46	31	49	58	56	60	56
	1997	56	45	28	46	62	53	56	54
El Salvador	1995	54	34	14	35	50	32	50	41
	1997	56	35	13	33	48	40	50	43
Guatemala	1989	53	42	-	45	54	42	47	34
Honduras	1990	70	60	-	56	75	51	81	72
	1994	75	66	42	71	83	56	84	77
	1997	73	64	44	69	83	52	84	72
Mexico	1989	42	33	-	36 h/	-	60	29g/	-
	1994	37	29	-	33 h/	-	56	27g/	-
	1996	45	38	19	41	59	63	48	41
Nicaragua	1997	72	63	57	58	74	68	75	68
Panama	1991	40	26	-	22	38	31	42	38
	1994	31	18	6	16	30	28	26	25
	1997	33	18	6	17	27	26	32	25
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	42	32	-	38	49	29	41	31
	1994	42	31	10	38	44	36	42	37
	1996	39	29	13	27	40	33	44	37

Table 18 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES ^{a/} , URBAN AREAS (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Non-professional, non-technical, own account workers	
					In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
Dominican Republic	1997	37	21	21	18	25	26	20	25
Uruguay	1990	18	11	-	9	19	25	21	14
	1994	10	6	2	6	7	13	12	7
	1997	10	6	2	5	9	12	10	9
Venezuela	1990	39	22	-	23	33	30	25	22
	1994	47	32	38	29	48	41	32	32
	1997 ^{h/}	48	35	34	44	50	52	27	27

Source: 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 below the poverty line.

b/ Includes public-sector wage earners.

c/ For 1990, the columns corresponding to establishments employing more than 5 and up to 5 persons correspond to wage earners with and without an employment contract ("carteira"), respectively.

d/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

e/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

f/ Includes wage earners in the public sector and in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

g/ Refers to all non-professional, non-technical own account workers.

h/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 19

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES ^{a/} , RURAL AREAS (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Non-professional, non-technical, own account workers	
					In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employees	Total	Agricultural, forestry and fisheries
Bolivia	1997	79	79	35	48	41	49	87	89
Brazil ^{b/}	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
Chile	1990	40	26	-	31 ^{c/}	-	23	22	24
	1994	31	22	-	20	28	13	21	24
	1996	31	21	13	21	27	16	18	20
Colombia	1994	62	55	-	55 ^{d/}	-	57	61	59
	1997	60	48	16	40 ^{e/}	-	48	62	67
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
El Salvador	1995	64	53	24	43	56	50	63	72
	1997	69	58	26	47	56	49	67	79
Guatemala	1989	78	70	-	72	74	64	71	76
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
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
Panama	1991	51	40	-	24	43	43	52	57
	1994	49	38	6	23	39	40	52	61
	1997	42	29	6	22	39	33	36	42
Dominican Republic	1997	39	25	17	14	26	40	30	42
Venezuela	1990	47	31	-	35	37	44	32	37
	1994	56	42	27	50	50	53	42	44

Source: 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 below the poverty line.

^{b/} For 1990, the figures given in the columns for establishments employing more than and 5 up to 5 persons correspond to wage earners with and without an employment contract ("carteira"), respectively.

^{c/} Refers to all wage earners.

^{d/} Includes public-sector wage earners.

^{e/} Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

^{f/} Includes wage earners in the public-sector and in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

Table 20

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS
(Percentages of total employed urban population living in poverty)

Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Non-professional, non-technical own account workers		Total ^{a/}
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	-	68	17	5	4	4	98
	1990	-	46	14	8	11	18	97
	1994	-	52	22	10	6	10	100
	1997	-	49	23	11	5	12	100
Bolivia	1989	18	15	17	5	12	31	98
	1994	11	18	19	4	11	29	81
	1997	7	14	13	3	16	29	75
Brazil ^{b/}	1979	-	38	17	10	3	13	81
	1990	-	32	26	10	5	18	91
	1993	9	32	11	12	6	17	87
	1996	8	31	12	13	7	16	87
Chile	1990	-	65 ^{c/}	-	10	6	13	94
	1994	-	54	14	8	7	12	95
	1996	5	54	17	9	3	8	96
Colombia (8 major cities)	1980	-	64 ^{c/}	-	2	9	16	91
	1990	-	58 ^{c/}	-	5	6	21	90
	1994 ^{d/}	4	58 ^{c/}	-	5	8	22	97
	1997	4	46 ^{c/}	-	5	10	30	91
Costa Rica	1981	-	33	19	11	7	10	80
	1990	-	28	13	8	12	17	78
	1994	11	28	18	9	10	18	94
	1997	7	30	18	8	10	22	88
Ecuador	1990	11	21	13	5	11	29	79
	1994	9	23	15	6	8	29	81
	1997	9	24	15	6	8	27	80
El Salvador	1995	5	28	15	4	12	25	84
	1997	5	22	18	5	10	27	82
Guatemala	1986	-	17	15	7	9	16	64
	1989	-	19	16	7	9	13	64
Honduras	1990	-	27	17	6	12	23	85
	1994	7	33	14	5	10	19	88
	1997	7	30	14	4	10	23	81
Mexico	1984	-	62 ^{d/}	-	5	15 ^{e/}	-	82
	1989	-	72 ^{d/}	-	5	14 ^{e/}	-	91
	1994	-	71 ^{d/}	-	7	17 ^{e/}	-	95
	1996	7	36	23	6	5	17	87
Nicaragua	1997	13	19	17	7	11	28	82
Panama	1979	-	30 ^{d/}	-	7	7	15	59
	1991	-	25	8	8	7	16	64
	1994	9	30	19	14	7	19	89
	1997	8	29	9	10	9	18	75

Table 20 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS (Percentages of total employed urban population living in poverty)								
Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Non-professional, non-technical own account workers		Total ^{a/}
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	-	25	17	11	10	21	84
	1990	-	26	24	10	7	16	83
	1994	3.0	32	19	14	7	19	94
	1996	5.3	22	19	11	10	26	93
Dominican Republic	1997	12	27	10	6	7	26	76
Uruguay	1981	-	40	11	21	3	9	84
	1990	-	24	17	15	10	15	81
	1994	8	32	13	16	13	15	97
	1997	7	27	17	15	12	19	90
Venezuela	1981	-	25	8	5	9	23	70
	1990	-	32	10	6	5	16	69
	1994	21	26	14	5	6	19	91
	1997 ^{f/}	17	32	15	7	5	15	90

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

- a/ In most cases, the totals are less than 100% owing to the lack of figures for employers, professionals and technicians, and public-sector wage earners.
 b/ For 1990, the columns corresponding to establishments employing more than 5 and up to 5 persons correspond to wage earners with and without an employment contract ("cartas"), respectively.
 c/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.
 d/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.
 e/ Refers to all non-professional, non-technical own account workers.
 f/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 21

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS
(Percentages of total employed urban population living in poverty)

Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Non-professional, non-technical own account workers		Total ^{a/}
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employees	Total	Agriculture	
Bolivia	1997	1	2	2	0	94	89	98
Brazil ^{b/}	1979	-	6	25	2	66	62	99
	1990	-	9	26	4	57	51	96
	1993	5	23	2	3	66	61	99
	1996	3	21	2	3	70	65	99
Chile	1990	-	69 ^{c/}	-	3	27	23	99
	1994	-	39	26	2	31	25	98
	1996	2	29	35	3	30	3	99
Colombia	1994	-	47 ^{c/}	-	4	45	24	96
	1997	1	35	-	3	57	35	96
Costa Rica	1981	-	29	36	10	20	14	95
	1990	-	25	23	6	41	27	95
	1994	5	20	28	7	35	19	95
	1997	3	20	28	9	36	19	96
El Salvador	1995	1	23	15	3	52	36	93
	1997	1	21	16	4	54	39	95
Guatemala	1986	-	22	16	2	59	49	99
	1989	-	22	12	2	62	52	98
Honduras	1990	-	11	17	2	68	31	98
	1994	3	14	15	2	65	49	99
	1997	2	13	16	2	65	45	98
Mexico	1984	-	43 ^{c/}	-	2	53	45	98
	1989	-	50 ^{c/}	-	3	45	38	98
	1994	-	50 ^{c/}	-	3	45	35	98
	1996	3	20	22	4	49	35	95
Panama	1979	-	13 ^{c/}	-	2	80	73	95
	1991	-	9	9	3	75	65	96
	1994	3	10	15	4	68	56	100
	1997	2	11	17	4	65	50	99
Dominican Republic	1997	7	12	9	5	63	48	96
Venezuela	1981	-	15	7	2	68	53	92
	1990	-	28	14	3	48	39	93
	1994	5	23	19	6	45	31	98

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

^{a/} In most cases, the totals are less than 100% owing to the lack of figures for employers, professionals and technicians, and public-sector wage earners.

^{b/} For 1990, the figures given in the columns for establishments employing more than 5 and up to 5 persons correspond to wage earners with and without an employment contract ("carteira"), respectively.

^{c/} Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

Table 22

**LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE
IN FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS, URBAN AREAS**

Country	Year	Percentage of female-headed households at each poverty level				Distribution of female-headed households by poverty level			
		Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor	Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor
Argentina	1980	18	36	17	18	100.0	2.8	3.4	93.7
	1990	21	26	12	22	100.0	4.3	7.0	88.7
	1994	24	22	20	24	100.0	1.0	7.5	91.1
	1997	26	32	24	26	100.0	4.1	9.0	86.9
Bolivia	1989	17	23	16	15	100.0	30.2	25.5	44.3
	1994	18	20	17	18	100.0	18.1	27.0	54.9
	1997	21	24	22	19	100.0	22.2	30.0	47.8
Brazil	1979	19	33	20	16	100.0	17.4	20.7	62.0
	1990	20	24	23	18	100.0	16.0	25.1	58.9
	1993	22	23	21	22	100.0	12.3	20.9	66.8
	1996	24	24	22	24	100.0	7.7	15.9	76.4
Chile	1987	23	27	23	22	100.0	16.1	24.1	59.8
	1990	21	25	20	22	100.0	11.7	21.3	67.0
	1994	22	27	21	22	100.0	7.1	16.0	76.8
	1996	23	29	22	23	100.0	5.3	13.6	81.1
Colombia	1980	20	23	21	19	100.0	13.9	22.4	63.8
	1990	23	22	23	23	100.0	11.3	22.8	65.9
	1994	24	24	24	24	100.0	16.1	24.0	59.9
	1997	27	32	28	25	100.0	17.5	25.9	56.6
Costa Rica	1981	22	53	38	18	100.0	12.9	18.5	68.6
	1990	23	36	25	21	100.0	10.9	16.5	72.6
	1994	24	42	27	22	100.0	9.8	14.0	76.2
	1997	27	51	36	24	100.0	9.9	15.7	74.4
Ecuador	1990	17	22	16	15	100.0	28.9	31.2	39.9
	1994	19	23	18	18	100.0	27.3	28.1	44.6
	1997	19	24	19	17	100.0	23.9	31.1	45.0
El Salvador	1995	31	38	31	29	100.0	15.4	28.1	56.5
	1997	30	36	33	28	100.0	14.2	29.3	56.5
Guatemala	1987	20	23	19	20	100.0	30.9	24.8	44.3
	1989	22	23	21	22	100.0	24.2	24.3	51.5
Honduras	1988	28	39	26	23	100.0	38.5	23.6	37.9
	1990	27	35	21	21	100.0	50.4	21.1	28.5
	1994	25	28	25	21	100.0	45.8	29.2	25.0
	1997	29	32	28	28	100.0	40.3	28.6	31.1
Mexico	1984	17	16	13	19	100.0	6.3	15.7	78.0
	1989	16	14	14	17	100.0	8.2	21.9	69.9
	1994	17	11	16	18	100.0	4.0	21.3	74.7
	1996	18	17	15	19	100.0	9.8	23.0	67.3
Nicaragua	1997	37	41	36	33	100.0	39.6	30.4	30.0

Table 22 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS, URBAN AREAS									
Country	Year	Percentage of female-headed households at each poverty level				Distribution of female-headed households by poverty level			
		Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor	Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor
Panama	1979	25	50	25	20	100.0	27.7	17.1	55.2
	1991	26	34	29	24	100.0	18.0	22.0	60.0
	1994	25	35	25	24	100.0	12.1	16.2	71.7
	1997	28	37	29	26	100.0	11.4	16.7	71.9
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	19	26	14	20	100.0	22.3	21.7	56.0
	1990	20	21	23	18	100.0	11.2	30.5	58.3
	1994	23	20	26	22	100.0	8.4	29.3	62.3
	1996	27	25	26	27	100.0	7.4	24.7	67.9
Dominican Republic	1997	31	50	31	29	100.0	17.5	20.5	62.0
Uruguay	1981	22	25	22	22	100.0	2.5	7.4	90.1
	1990	25	28	22	26	100.0	2.2	8.4	89.4
	1994	27	21	23	27	100.0	0.8	4.0	95.1
	1997	29	27	23	29	100.0	0.8	3.9	95.3
Venezuela	1981	22	50	31	19	100.0	10.5	18.7	70.7
	1990	22	40	25	18	100.0	19.6	25.4	55.1
	1994	25	34	28	21	100.0	18.7	30.8	50.5
	1997 ^{a/}	26	28	29	24	100.0	18.6	28.4	53.0

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

a/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 23

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): TRENDS, IN HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION

Country	Year	Average household income a/		Gini coefficient b/		Income share of poorest quartile c/		Income share of poorest 40%		Income share of richest 10%		Average income of richest 10% as multiple of average income of poorest 40%		Households with below-average income	
		Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	4.56	-	0.375	-	9.3	-	18.0	-	29.8	-	6.7	-	66	-
	1990	3.59	-	0.423	-	8.4	-	14.9	-	34.8	-	9.3	-	72	-
	1994	4.91	-	0.439	-	6.8	-	13.9	-	34.2	-	9.8	-	72	-
	1997	4.55	-	0.439	-	7.5	-	14.9	-	35.8	-	9.6	-	73	-
	1994	4.53	-	0.438	-	7.0	-	14.4	-	34.6	-	9.7	-	73	-
Bolivia d/ (17 cities) (9 cities) (Urban areas)	1989	1.77	-	0.484	-	5.4	-	12.1	-	38.2	-	12.6	-	71	-
	1994	1.97	-	0.435	-	7.5	-	15.2	-	35.6	-	9.4	-	75	-
	1997	1.95	1.16	0.455	0.531	6.5	4.2	13.6	9.8	37.0	42.0	10.8	17.2	73	76
Brazil	1979	3.21	1.30	0.493	0.407	5.6	8.1	11.7	16.6	39.1	34.7	13.3	8.4	74	72
	1990	3.30	1.30	0.528	0.456	4.7	7.1	10.3	14.5	41.8	38.2	16.3	10.6	76	73
	1993	3.24	1.76	0.519	0.473	5.4	6.0	11.5	13.1	43.2	41.2	15.0	12.6	76	72
	1996	4.52	2.03	0.538	0.460	4.9	6.1	10.5	13.4	44.3	39.6	16.8	11.8	77	73
Chile	1987	2.56	1.80	0.485	0.387	6.1	9.3	12.6	17.7	39.6	34.1	12.6	7.7	74	74
	1990	2.68	2.93	0.471	0.486	6.6	6.8	13.4	13.8	39.2	45.1	11.7	11.6	74	80
	1994	3.48	2.72	0.473	0.409	6.6	8.8	13.3	17.3	40.3	37.7	11.7	8.7	74	76
	1996	4.00	2.74	0.473	0.402	6.5	8.4	13.4	16.8	39.4	35.6	11.8	8.5	74	75
Colombia (8 major cities)	1980	2.05	-	0.518	-	4.9	-	11.0	-	41.3	-	15.0	-	75	-
	1990	2.59	-	0.450	-	6.6	-	13.6	-	34.9	-	10.2	-	73	-
	1994 e/	2.52	1.53	0.505	0.494	5.3	3.7	11.6	10.0	41.9	34.6	14.5	13.8	76	72
	1997 e/	2.43	1.45	0.477	0.401	6.1	6.5	12.9	15.4	39.5	30.1	12.2	7.8	74	71
Costa Rica	1981	2.95	2.50	0.328	0.355	9.5	7.9	18.9	17.2	23.2	25.6	4.9	6.0	65	66
	1990	2.56	2.30	0.345	0.351	8.2	7.8	17.8	17.6	24.6	24.5	5.5	5.6	65	65
	1994	3.09	2.59	0.363	0.372	8.3	7.6	17.4	17.1	27.5	28.5	6.3	6.6	69	69
	1997	3.02	2.56	0.357	0.357	8.5	7.9	17.3	17.3	26.8	25.9	6.2	6.0	66	67
Ecuador	1990	1.35	-	0.381	-	8.2	-	17.1	-	30.5	-	7.1	-	70	-
	1994	1.48	-	0.397	-	7.4	-	15.6	-	31.7	-	7.9	-	70	-
	1997	1.55	-	0.388	-	8.5	-	17.0	-	31.9	-	7.4	-	70	-
El Salvador	1995	1.83	1.15	0.382	0.355	8.7	7.3	17.3	17.0	31.7	26.1	7.3	6.2	70	65
	1997	1.91	1.12	0.384	0.317	8.4	9.7	17.2	19.4	31.1	24.7	7.2	5.1	70	67
Guatemala	1986	1.55	1.01	0.464	0.472	5.8	6.1	12.5	13.1	36.4	39.5	11.6	12.1	72	76
	1989	1.89	1.00	0.479	0.432	5.4	6.4	12.1	14.4	37.9	35.1	12.5	9.7	73	73
Honduras	1990	1.27	0.70	0.487	0.465	5.4	6.1	12.2	13.1	38.9	37.4	12.8	11.4	73	75
	1994	1.08	0.88	0.459	0.467	6.2	5.1	13.3	12.1	37.2	36.2	11.2	11.9	73	71
	1997	1.19	0.78	0.448	0.427	6.5	6.7	14.3	14.4	36.8	33.5	10.3	9.3	73	72
Mexico	1984	2.33	1.75	0.321	0.323	10.5	10.6	20.1	20.3	25.8	26.4	5.1	5.2	70	71
	1989	2.54	1.57	0.424	0.345	8.5	9.6	16.0	18.7	36.9	27.4	9.1	5.9	75	70
	1994	2.76	1.68	0.405	0.330	9.0	11.0	16.8	20.1	34.3	27.1	8.2	5.4	74	71
	1996	2.21	1.40	0.392	0.334	9.4	10.6	17.6	20.3	33.7	28.3	7.7	5.6	73	69
Nicaragua	1997	1.23	-	0.443	-	6.6	-	14.4	-	35.4	-	9.8	-	74	-
Panama	1979	2.65	1.67	0.399	0.347	7.0	9.5	15.5	17.8	29.1	28.1	7.5	6.3	67	67
	1991	2.72	2.14	0.448	0.431	5.9	7.5	13.3	15.0	34.2	35.6	10.3	9.5	71	72
	1994	3.40	2.16	0.451	0.411	6.4	7.7	13.8	15.5	37.4	33.1	10.9	8.5	73	71
	1997	3.67	2.79	0.462	0.440	6.1	7.4	13.3	14.9	37.3	37.7	11.2	10.1	73	74

Table 23 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION															
Country	Year	Average household income a/		Gini coefficient b/		Income share of poorest quintile c/		Income share of poorest 40%		Income share of richest 10%		Average income of richest 10% as multiple of average income of poorest 40%		Households with below-average income	
		Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
		(Percentages)										Urban	Rural	(Percentages)	
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	1.81	-	0.404	-	8.0	-	16.3	-	31.8	-	7.8	-	71	-
	1990	1.92	-	0.357	-	9.4	-	18.6	-	28.9	-	6.2	-	68	-
	1994	-	-	0.417	-	8.3	-	16.2	-	35.2	-	8.7	-	74	-
	1996	2.22	-	0.389	-	8.8	-	17.4	-	33.1	-	7.6	-	70	-
	(Urban areas)	2.01	-	0.423	-	5.7	-	16.1	-	35.2	-	8.7	-	73	-
	1996	2.00	-	0.395	-	8.4	-	16.7	-	33.4	-	7.9	-	72	-
Dominican Republic	1997	2.57	1.41	0.432	0.392	6.9	7.9	14.8	16.5	35.5	32.6	9.6	7.9	74	69
Uruguay	1981	3.91	-	0.379	-	9.3	-	17.7	-	31.2	-	7.1	-	69	-
	1990	3.29	-	0.353	-	10.9	-	20.1	-	31.2	-	6.2	-	70	-
	1994	4.06	-	0.300	-	11.8	-	21.6	-	25.4	-	4.7	-	67	-
	1997	4.72	-	0.300	-	11.9	-	22.0	-	25.8	-	4.7	-	68	-
Venezuela	1981	2.90	2.00	0.306	0.288	10.0	10.2	20.2	20.5	21.8	20.5	4.3	4.0	66	67
	1990	2.18	1.80	0.378	0.316	8.2	10.1	16.8	19.8	28.4	23.8	6.8	4.8	69	68
	1994	1.90	1.58	0.387	0.349	8.4	9.3	16.7	18.6	31.4	29.3	7.5	6.1	71	69
	1997 f/	1.97	-	0.425	-	7.0	-	14.7	-	32.8	-	8.9	-	72	-

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

a/ Average monthly per capita household income divided by the per capita poverty line.

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

c/ Percentage of total income received by the 25% of all households having the lowest incomes.

d/ Both the 1989 and 1992 surveys include the eight departmental capitals and El Alto. The 1989 survey also includes eight other cities, which represented 8.2% of the total.

e/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

f/ The figures shown in the column "Urban" actually refer to the national total.

Table 24

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more	0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1997	3	35	30	32	-	-	-	-
Brazil	1979	48	29	19	5	87	9	3	2
	1990	41	31	23	5	79	15	5	1
	1996	35	33	27	5	71	19	9	1
Colombia b/	1980	31	31	28	10	-	-	-	-
	1990	20	29	39	13	-	-	-	-
	1997	15	25	47	13	53	23	22	2
Costa Rica	1981	7	38	41	14	20	57	20	4
	1990	9	40	34	17	20	59	17	4
	1997	7	35	40	18	18	55	22	6
Chile	1987	7	20	38	34	22	47	21	10
	1990	6	20	39	36	17	45	26	12
	1996	3	19	37	41	12	42	31	15
El Salvador	1997	16	24	34	26	53	27	14	5
Honduras	1990	24	48	16	12	58	38	3	2
	1997	16	48	20	16	47	44	6	3
Mexico s/	1996	5	17	58	21	20	37	38	6
Nicaragua	1997	17	39	35	9	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	6	33	35	26	21	50	20	9
	1989	6	31	33	30	15	49	21	14
	1997	4	28	33	36	16	42	24	18
Paraguay c/	1986	11	36	28	25	-	-	-	-
	1990	7	33	29	31	-	-	-	-
	1996	11	38	27	24	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	20	30	27	22	41	32	19	8
Uruguay	1981	7	41	38	14	-	-	-	-
	1990	4	35	43	19	-	-	-	-
	1997	3	38	33	26	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	14	45	33	9	46	41	12	1
	1990	10	43	37	10	39	45	15	2
	1997 d/	10	36	41	14	-	-	-	-

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

a/ The way the survey questionnaire is designed makes it impossible to estimate the variable "years of schooling" prior to 1997.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 25

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING
 (Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more	0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more
Argentina a/	1997	10	34	14	42	-	-	-	-
Brazil	1979	70	12	10	8	96	2	1	1
	1990	56	16	18	11	89	6	4	1
	1996	49	19	20	12	85	9	5	2
Colombia b/	1980	52	16	19	13	-	-	-	-
	1990	37	17	29	17	-	-	-	-
	1997	33	16	32	19	75	10	11	4
Costa Rica	1981	27	35	22	15	58	31	7	3
	1990	17	33	27	24	40	41	13	6
	1997	12	33	29	27	30	48	14	8
Chile	1987	19	24	18	39	51	32	9	9
	1990	16	24	18	42	44	34	10	13
	1996	12	21	17	50	40	37	10	12
El Salvador	1997	33	18	16	33	79	13	5	4
Honduras	1990	43	27	8	22	81	15	1	2
	1997	33	30	10	27	71	22	3	5
Mexico a/	1996	18	27	29	26	52	28	14	7
Nicaragua	1997	27	29	28	16	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	18	36	17	29	57	34	4	5
	1989	15	29	19	38	40	37	8	15
	1997	10	26	18	47	31	39	11	19
Paraguay c/	1986	22	31	12	36	-	-	-	-
	1990	17	33	12	38	-	-	-	-
	1996	20	33	12	35	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	32	23	14	31	62	22	8	9
Uruguay	1981	27	40	19	14	-	-	-	-
	1990	17	38	24	20	-	-	-	-
	1997	12	37	25	26	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	30	41	19	10	74	21	5	1
	1990	19	38	26	16	61	29	8	2
	1997 d/	19	34	30	17	-	-	-	-

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

a/ The way the survey questionnaire is designed makes it impossible to estimate the variable "years of schooling" prior to 1997.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 26

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 44 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more	0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more
Argentina ^{a/} (Greater Buenos Aires)	1997	6	32	16	46	-	-	-	-
Brazil	1979	65	13	12	10	95	2	1	1
	1990	48	18	21	13	86	8	5	1
	1996	42	22	23	13	81	11	6	2
Colombia ^{b/}	1980	48	18	20	15	-	-	-	-
	1990	31	18	32	20	-	-	-	-
	1997	26	18	36	21	69	13	14	5
Costa Rica	1981	20	36	26	18	50	37	9	4
	1990	11	32	31	26	29	48	16	7
	1997	8	31	32	29	21	52	17	9
Chile	1987	14	21	20	45	41	38	11	11
	1990	11	21	20	48	33	39	12	16
	1996	8	17	19	56	29	42	13	15
El Salvador	1997	25	18	18	39	73	15	7	5
Honduras	1990	36	30	10	25	76	20	2	3
	1997	26	33	11	29	65	27	3	6
Mexico ^{a/}	1996	13	24	34	29	41	32	19	8
Nicaragua	1997	22	29	31	17	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	13	36	19	33	49	40	5	6
	1989	10	27	20	43	29	42	10	19
	1997	7	24	18	51	21	42	13	24
Paraguay ^{c/}	1986	16	30	13	41	-	-	-	-
	1990	12	33	13	42	-	-	-	-
	1996	15	33	13	39	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	25	23	16	36	55	24	10	12
Uruguay	1981	18	39	25	18	-	-	-	-
	1990	10	36	29	25	-	-	-	-
	1997	6	35	28	31	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	24	43	22	12	67	25	6	1
	1990	15	39	29	18	53	35	10	2
	1997 ^{d/}	14	34	33	19	-	-	-	-

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

^{a/} The way the survey questionnaire is designed makes it impossible to estimate the variable "years of schooling" prior to 1997.

^{b/} As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

^{c/} Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

^{d/} The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 27

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 45 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more	0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more
Argentina a/	1997	17	37	11	35	-	-	-	-
(Greater Buenos Aires)									
Brazil	1979	82	8	6	5	98	1	0	1
	1990	74	10	10	7	97	2	1	0
	1996	66	12	12	10	94	3	2	1
Colombia b/	1980	65	12	16	8	-	-	-	-
	1990	58	12	20	10	-	-	-	-
	1997	53	12	22	14	88	5	5	2
Costa Rica	1981	44	33	14	9	81	15	3	1
	1990	33	36	15	16	71	23	3	3
	1997	21	37	22	20	53	36	7	5
Chile	1987	30	29	14	28	72	19	4	5
	1990	26	31	13	30	67	21	4	8
	1996	22	28	14	36	63	27	4	6
El Salvador	1997	50	20	10	20	90	7	2	1
Honduras	1990	63	18	4	15	93	5	1	1
	1997	50	23	7	21	85	11	1	4
Mexico a/	1996	33	34	17	16	78	16	3	2
Nicaragua	1997	43	29	18	10	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	32	36	12	20	77	18	2	2
	1989	25	35	16	24	62	28	4	6
	1997	17	30	16	36	51	32	7	10
Paraguay c/	1986	36	31	9	23	-	-	-	-
	1990	28	32	9	31	-	-	-	-
	1996	31	33	11	25	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	53	23	8	16	78	17	2	2
Uruguay	1981	37	42	12	9	-	-	-	-
	1990	27	41	18	14	-	-	-	-
	1997	20	41	21	18	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	24	43	23	10	67	25	6	1
	1990	34	38	18	10	80	16	3	1
	1997 d/	30	37	20	13	-	-	-	-

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

a/ The way the survey questionnaire is designed makes it impossible to estimate the variable "years of schooling" prior to 1997.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 28

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION OVER 15 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more	0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more
Argentina a/	1997	8	33	15	44	-	-	-	-
Brazil	1979	61	17	14	9	93	4	2	2
	1990	48	21	21	11	85	9	5	1
	1996	44	22	22	12	83	10	6	1
Colombia b/	1980	47	19	21	13	-	-	-	-
	1990	28	20	33	19	-	-	-	-
	1997	29	17	35	19	72	11	13	4
Costa Rica	1981	20	36	27	16	42	44	11	4
	1990	14	34	28	24	33	47	13	7
	1997	11	33	29	28	27	50	15	9
Chile	1987	15	21	18	45	42	37	11	11
	1990	13	21	19	48	37	36	12	15
	1996	10	19	18	54	36	37	12	15
El Salvador	1997	31	19	17	33	72	16	8	5
Honduras	1990	38	32	9	21	75	21	2	3
	1997	30	35	11	25	65	28	3	5
Mexico a/	1996	11	20	11	58	23	29	13	35
Nicaragua	1997	26	32	28	14	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	14	35	18	33	48	38	6	8
	1989	13	29	19	40	35	40	9	17
	1997	8	25	18	49	31	38	10	21
Paraguay c/	1986	19	33	14	35	-	-	-	-
	1990	15	33	15	38	-	-	-	-
	1996	18	33	15	34	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	28	24	16	31	57	23	10	9
Uruguay	1981	21	39	24	16	-	-	-	-
	1990	14	37	28	22	-	-	-	-
	1997	10	37	26	27	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	24	43	23	10	67	26	6	1
	1990	17	39	29	15	57	32	9	2
	1997 d/	17	34	31	18	-	-	-	-

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

a/ The way the survey questionnaire is designed makes it impossible to estimate the variable "years of schooling" prior to 1997.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 29

**LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION OVER 15 YEARS OF AGE,
BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING**
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more	0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more
Argentina a/	1997	8	37	16	39	-	-	-	-
Brazil	1979	64	17	12	8	94	4	1	1
	1990	51	21	18	10	87	8	4	1
	1996	47	23	20	10	84	10	5	1
Colombia b/	1980	47	20	19	14	-	-	-	-
	1990	30	21	31	18	-	-	-	-
	1997	32	17	33	18	77	10	11	3
Costa Rica	1981	22	38	25	15	45	43	9	3
	1990	16	35	27	22	36	47	12	5
	1997	12	35	28	25	30	50	13	6
Chile	1987	16	22	20	42	44	37	10	9
	1990	13	22	20	44	39	37	11	12
	1996	11	20	19	51	38	38	11	13
El Salvador	1997	28	20	20	32	72	16	8	4
Honduras	1990	39	34	9	18	76	21	1	2
	1997	31	37	11	21	67	28	3	3
Mexico a/	1996	9	19	11	60	20	31	14	36
Nicaragua	1997	26	33	27	14	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	16	36	19	29	51	38	6	6
	1989	16	32	18	34	39	41	7	12
	1997	10	28	19	43	34	40	10	16
Paraguay c/	1986	18	32	14	36	-	-	-	-
	1990	15	32	16	38	-	-	-	-
	1996	18	35	15	32	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	32	27	15	26	60	23	10	7
Uruguay	1981	23	41	24	12	-	-	-	-
	1990	16	39	28	17	-	-	-	-
	1997	12	40	27	21	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	26	45	21	9	69	26	5	1
	1990	18	42	27	13	59	33	7	1
	1997 d/	20	37	29	14	-	-	-	-

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

a/ The way the survey questionnaire is designed makes it impossible to estimate the variable "years of schooling" prior to 1997.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 30

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION OVER 15 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more	0-5	6-8	9-11	12 or more
Argentina a/	1997	8	28	12	52	-	-	-	-
Brazil	1979	56	17	18	10	92	4	2	2
	1990	42	21	25	13	80	11	7	1
	1996	40	21	26	14	81	10	7	2
Colombia b/	1980	48	18	24	11	-	-	-	-
	1990	27	19	35	20	-	-	-	-
	1997	26	16	37	21	61	14	20	6
Costa Rica	1981	18	32	31	20	31	47	16	6
	1990	11	31	30	28	24	47	18	12
	1997	9	29	30	32	19	47	19	15
Chile	1987	13	20	15	51	30	35	12	23
	1990	12	19	16	53	25	31	13	32
	1996	8	17	15	59	28	34	13	26
El Salvador	1997	34	17	15	35	73	14	7	6
Honduras	1990	37	29	10	25	70	22	2	7
	1997	29	32	10	30	59	29	4	9
Mexico a/	1996	13	21	12	54	29	26	12	33
Nicaragua	1997	26	31	29	14	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	11	33	17	40	32	37	9	22
	1989	8	24	19	50	21	33	13	34
	1997	5	20	16	58	19	32	12	37
Paraguay c/	1986	20	33	13	34	-	-	-	-
	1990	15	34	12	39	-	-	-	-
	1996	18	32	14	37	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	24	21	18	38	49	24	12	16
Uruguay	1981	19	37	23	22	-	-	-	-
	1990	12	34	27	28	-	-	-	-
	1997	8	33	25	34	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	21	39	28	13	57	29	11	3
	1990	14	34	33	20	47	31	18	5
	1997	d/	13	29	35	24	-	-	-

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

a/ The way the survey questionnaire is designed makes it impossible to estimate the variable "years of schooling" prior to 1997.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 31

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL

Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4
Argentina a/	1997	10.0	7.4	8.7	10.4	13.2	-	-	-	-	-
Brazil	1979	5.1	2.7	3.7	5.1	8.4	2.4	1.9	1.8	2.3	3.5
	1990	6.2	3.3	4.6	6.4	10.1	2.6	1.5	1.9	2.6	4.4
	1996	6.6	3.9	5.4	7.1	10.3	3.0	1.7	2.5	3.2	5.4
Colombia b/	1980	6.8	4.4	5.3	6.6	10.3	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	8.2	5.6	6.8	8.5	11.7	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	8.6	6.1	7.3	9.0	11.9	4.5	3.3	4.0	4.3	6.5
Costa Rica	1981	7.5	5.4	6.5	8.0	10.4	4.6	3.4	4.0	4.7	6.5
	1990	9.6	7.6	8.6	9.7	12.4	6.3	4.8	5.7	6.1	8.3
	1997	9.3	7.3	7.9	9.6	12.2	6.4	5.1	5.7	6.3	8.1
Chile	1987	9.3	7.1	8.1	9.6	12.5	5.5	4.7	5.1	5.4	7.0
	1990	9.7	7.6	8.6	10.0	12.5	6.2	5.3	5.5	5.8	8.1
	1996	10.4	8.2	9.5	10.8	13.1	6.3	5.5	6.1	6.2	7.7
El Salvador	1997	7.9	4.6	6.5	8.4	11.9	2.9	2.0	2.4	3.0	4.3
Honduras	1990	6.4	3.8	4.6	6.3	10.1	2.5	1.8	2.0	2.3	4.0
	1997	7.2	4.6	6.1	7.5	10.5	3.4	2.4	2.7	3.4	5.3
Nicaragua	1997	7.9	6.0	6.9	8.0	11.0	-	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	8.4	5.8	7.1	8.7	11.7	4.4	3.2	3.8	4.5	6.3
	1989	9.4	6.5	8.1	10.1	12.8	5.9	4.0	4.9	5.9	9.0
	1997	10.3	7.5	8.8	11.0	13.6	6.8	5.0	5.8	7.0	9.6
Paraguay c/	1986	8.8	5.8	7.3	9.6	12.5	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	9.0	6.7	7.9	9.9	11.6	-	-	-	-	-
	1996	8.8	6.2	7.6	9.4	12.1	-	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	8.2	6.4	7.4	8.5	10.4	4.7	3.3	4.4	5.0	6.1
Uruguay	1981	7.3	5.5	6.5	7.6	9.4	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	8.3	6.3	7.7	8.9	10.9	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	8.9	6.9	8.2	9.5	11.9	-	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	6.8	4.9	5.9	6.8	9.3	3.0	1.9	2.6	3.2	4.6
	1990	8.2	6.2	7.2	8.4	10.8	4.0	3.1	3.6	4.1	5.4
	1997 d/	8.4	6.3	7.5	8.5	10.9	-	-	-	-	-

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

a/ The way the survey questionnaire is designed makes it impossible to estimate the variable "years of schooling" prior to 1997.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 32

**LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION
BETWEEN 25 AND 44 YEARS OF AGE, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL**

Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4
Argentina a/	1997	10.5	7.9	9.4	11.3	14.0	-	-	-	-	-
(Greater Buenos Aires)											
Brazil	1979	5.6	3.1	4.1	5.7	9.3	2.6	2.0	2.1	2.7	4.0
	1990	6.9	3.8	5.3	7.2	11.0	3.1	1.7	2.3	3.2	5.3
	1996	7.2	4.4	6.1	7.9	11.0	3.5	2.0	3.0	3.9	6.4
Colombia b/	1980	7.2	4.7	5.7	7.2	10.6	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	8.7	6.0	7.4	9.3	12.4	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	9.2	6.6	8.0	9.8	12.6	5.1	3.7	4.4	4.9	7.5
Costa Rica	1981	8.2	5.9	7.0	8.7	11.1	5.2	3.8	4.4	5.2	7.2
	1990	10.1	7.9	8.9	10.6	13.0	7.0	5.4	6.2	7.0	9.3
	1997	9.8	7.7	8.6	10.3	12.9	6.9	5.6	6.2	7.1	8.9
Chile	1987	10.0	7.7	9.1	10.5	13.3	6.3	5.3	5.9	6.3	8.1
	1990	10.4	8.2	9.4	11.0	13.2	7.0	5.9	6.3	6.8	9.3
	1996	11.0	8.8	10.3	11.7	13.9	7.2	6.2	6.9	7.3	8.9
El Salvador	1997	8.8	5.3	7.4	9.4	12.9	3.4	2.2	2.8	3.6	5.4
Honduras	1990	7.0	4.4	5.3	6.9	10.6	3.0	2.2	2.4	2.9	4.8
	1997	7.7	5.2	6.8	8.1	10.9	3.9	2.7	3.2	4.1	5.9
Nicaragua	1997	8.5	6.5	7.5	8.6	11.5	-	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	9.0	6.2	7.6	9.4	12.5	4.9	3.5	4.2	5.1	7.2
	1989	10.0	7.1	8.8	10.9	13.4	6.8	4.6	6.0	7.1	10.0
	1997	10.8	8.0	9.6	11.7	14.1	7.7	5.7	6.8	8.3	10.6
Paraguay c/	1986	9.5	6.3	8.1	10.2	13.1	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	9.5	7.0	8.4	10.8	12.0	-	-	-	-	-
	1996	9.3	6.5	8.2	10.1	12.6	-	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	8.9	7.0	8.2	9.2	11.2	5.3	3.7	4.8	5.7	7.1
Uruguay	1981	8.1	6.2	7.4	8.9	10.7	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	9.1	6.9	8.7	10.2	12.1	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	9.6	7.5	9.1	10.6	12.8	-	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	7.4	5.3	6.4	7.5	10.0	3.6	2.3	3.0	4.0	5.5
	1990	8.7	6.6	7.8	9.1	11.3	4.7	3.5	4.3	5.0	6.3
	1997 d/	8.9	6.8	8.2	9.2	11.4	-	-	-	-	...

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

a/ The way the survey questionnaire is designed makes it impossible to estimate the variable "years of schooling" prior to 1997.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 33

**LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION
BETWEEN 45 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL**

Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4
Argentina a/	1997	9.1	6.2	7.5	9.4	12.2	-	-	-	-	-
Brazil	1979	3.9	1.8	2.7	3.7	6.6	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.6	2.5
	1990	4.6	1.9	2.9	4.3	8.2	1.6	0.8	1.1	1.5	2.7
	1996	5.3	2.4	3.4	5.1	8.9	2.0	1.1	1.4	1.8	3.8
Colombia b/	1980	5.8	3.7	4.1	5.3	9.3	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	6.5	4.0	4.8	6.3	9.9	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	7.1	4.5	5.4	7.1	10.5	3.3	2.3	2.8	3.1	4.7
Costa Rica	1981	6.0	4.4	5.2	6.3	8.7	3.1	2.4	2.8	3.2	4.3
	1990	8.2	6.8	7.5	7.3	10.9	4.3	2.8	3.9	3.9	6.1
	1997	8.1	6.0	6.3	8.2	10.9	4.8	3.5	4.1	4.4	6.6
Chile	1987	7.8	5.3	6.2	7.9	11.1	3.9	3.0	3.3	3.5	5.3
	1990	8.3	5.8	6.7	8.1	11.2	4.4	3.3	3.5	3.7	6.2
	1996	8.9	6.1	7.4	9.1	11.7	4.5	3.7	3.9	4.1	6.0
El Salvador	1997	5.9	2.8	4.3	6.1	9.9	1.8	1.3	1.6	1.8	2.2
Honduras	1990	4.5	2.0	2.7	4.3	8.6	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.3	2.4
	1997	5.7	2.4	4.0	5.8	9.5	2.4	1.6	1.8	2.1	3.9
Nicaragua	1997	6.2	4.3	4.8	5.9	9.5	-	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	7.1	4.6	5.9	7.2	9.9	3.2	2.4	2.8	3.1	4.4
	1989	7.8	4.7	6.1	7.9	11.4	4.1	2.7	3.0	3.6	7.3
	1997	9.1	5.7	7.0	9.4	12.8	5.0	3.2	3.9	4.8	7.9
Paraguay c/	1986	7.1	4.4	5.6	8.0	10.6	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	7.8	5.6	6.5	8.2	10.6	-	-	-	-	-
	1996	7.6	5.2	6.1	7.5	11.1	-	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	6.0	4.3	4.9	6.1	8.1	3.4	2.6	3.2	3.7	4.2
Uruguay	1981	6.1	4.3	5.2	6.2	8.1	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	7.1	5.0	6.3	7.3	9.5	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	7.8	5.8	6.9	8.2	10.7	-	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	5.1	3.5	4.1	4.9	7.4	1.7	1.0	1.4	1.6	2.7
	1990	6.6	4.6	5.3	6.5	9.2	2.4	2.0	1.9	2.2	3.5
	1997 d/	7.0	4.6	5.7	6.9	9.7	-	-	-	-	-

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

a/ The way the survey questionnaire is designed makes it impossible to estimate the variable "years of schooling" prior to 1997.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 34

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): NON-INDEPENDENT 20 TO 24 YEAR OLDS WHO DO NOT ATTEND SCHOOL AND HAVE COMPLETED FEWER THAN 10 YEARS OF SCHOOLING, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Total	Q 1	Q 4	Difference (Q 1 - Q 4)	Total	Q 1	Q 4	Difference (Q 1 - Q 4)
Argentina	1997	32	65	7	58	-	-	-	-
(Greater Buenos Aires)									
Brazil	1979	53	75	24	51	85	87	80	7
	1990	53	74	20	54	85	88	76	12
	1995	42	63	16	47	73	80	56	24
Colombia a/	1980	44	65	16	48	-	-	-	-
	1992	33	54	10	44	-	-	-	-
	1997	27	44	8	37	67	75	53	21
Costa Rica	1988	40	63	21	42	71	73	65	8
	1992	35	59	10	49	74	82	64	17
	1997	37	57	14	43	65	76	49	27
Chile	1987	23	43	6	37	73	83	58	25
	1992	21	38	8	30	63	71	52	19
	1996	14	29	1	28	57	71	35	36
Ecuador	1990	28	37	13	24	-	-	-	-
	1997	25	37	11	26	-	-	-	-
El Salvador	1997	35	60	13	47	78	91	62	29
Honduras	1988	50	70	24	46	90	98	78	20
	1992	54	74	26	48	86	96	64	33
	1997	55	80	25	55	88	97	75	22
Mexico	1996	19	37	5	32	55	77	28	49
Nicaragua	1997	45	53	27	26	-	-	-	-
Panama b/	1979	40	54	25	29	72	86	53	33
	1992	32	48	10	38	59	75	34	41
	1997	31	53	8	45	56	72	32	40
Paraguay b/ c/	1986	41	53	23	30	-	-	-	-
	1992	30	52	17	36	-	-	-	-
	1996	38	72	15	57	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	38	49	24	25	63	62	57	5
Uruguay	1981	53	79	27	52	-	-	-	-
	1992	38	63	13	50	-	-	-	-
	1997	43	65	13	52	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	56	63	42	20	86	87	80	6
	1992	46	57	26	31	77	82	67	15
	1997 d/	44	61	26	35	-	-	-	-

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

a/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

b/ Owing to the design of the survey prior to 1994, the data for these countries are for young people who did not describe themselves as student and who reported that they have completed nine years of schooling or less.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 35

**LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES):
MALES AGED 15-24 WHO NEITHER WORK NOR ATTEND SCHOOL, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL**
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas (Income level)				Rural areas (Income level)			
		Total	Q 1	Q 4	Difference (Q 1 - Q 4)	Total	Q 1	Q 4	Difference (Q 1 - Q 4)
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	11	17	6	11	-	-	-	-
	1986	9	19	2	17	-	-	-	-
	1992	13	28	6	22	-	-	-	-
	1997	16	34	1	33	-	-	-	-
Bolivia	1997	5	7	2	5	2	3	1	2
Brazil	1979	11	20	4	16	4	5	3	2
	1987	11	22	5	16	5	7	4	3
	1990	11	21	4	17	5	8	4	4
	1996	13	22	7	15	8	9	4	5
Colombia a/	1980	12	20	5	16	-	-	-	-
	1990	16	28	8	19	-	-	-	-
	1997	16	26	9	17	9	13	7	6
Costa Rica	1988	11	26	6	20	13	25	5	20
	1990	11	27	4	23	11	24	3	21
	1997	12	28	3	25	13	28	4	25
Chile	1987	18	28	10	18	21	33	10	23
	1990	17	26	7	19	16	28	8	20
	1996	12	24	6	18	14	23	7	16
Ecuador	1990	8	13	4	8	-	-	-	-
	1997	9	16	3	14	-	-	-	-
El Salvador	1997	13	21	7	15	14	19	11	8
Guatemala	1986	12	18	8	10	6	13	5	9
	1989	9	13	6	7	5	9	4	5
Honduras	1988	17	29	6	23	8	7	11	4
	1990	15	27	8	19	8	5	10	4
	1997	13	25	4	21	6	8	4	4
Mexico	1989	11	18	6	12	7	11	3	8
	1996	15	24	8	16	9	13	4	9
Nicaragua	1997	18	28	8	20	-	-	-	-
Panama b/	1979	24	40	11	29	10	10	9	1
	1989	24	32	10	22	14	12	13	-1
	1997	17	28	6	22	13	17	6	12
Paraguay b/ c/	1986	16	24	3	21	-	-	-	-
	1990	22	33	12	22	-	-	-	-
	1996	16	28	10	18	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	13	26	6	19	12	16	7	10

Table 35 (Concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MALES AGED 15-24 WHO NEITHER WORK NOR ATTEND SCHOOL, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas (income level)				Rural areas (income level)			
		Total	Q 1	Q 4	Difference (Q 1 - Q 4)	Total	Q 1	Q 4	Difference (Q 1 - Q 4)
Uruguay	1981	12	21	4	17	-	-	-	-
	1989	13	21	5	16	-	-	-	-
	1997	17	27	4	23	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	15	24	8	16	11	12	9	3
	1990	21	32	11	21	14	19	10	9
	1997 d/	15	25	7	18	-	-	-	-

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

a/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

b/ Owing to the design of the survey prior to 1994, the data for these countries refer to young people who describe themselves as not working for reasons other than school attendance.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 36

**LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): 13 TO 17 YEAR OLDS WHO NEITHER WORK NOR ATTEND SCHOOL,
BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL**
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas (income level)					Rural areas (income level)				
		Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4
Argentina	1980	16	25	17	8	8	-	-	-	-	-
(Greater Buenos Aires)	1992	13	25	12	6	7	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	13	21	11	7	1	-	-	-	-	-
Bolivia	1997	3	4	4	3	2	4	3	4	6	4
Brazil	1979	13	19	13	9	4	17	16	18	17	14
	1990	12	19	12	7	4	16	17	17	16	12
	1996	10	16	10	6	3	13	14	15	11	7
Colombia a/	1980	10	14	11	8	3	-	-	-	-	-
	1992	9	16	9	5	1	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	11	16	11	7	4	15	18	15	16	10
Costa Rica	1988	15	23	16	10	4	31	37	35	27	24
	1992	12	19	13	7	6	24	32	24	21	14
	1997	12	19	15	8	2	24	35	24	19	10
Chile	1987	7	12	6	4	2	23	28	22	20	13
	1992	6	10	6	3	1	18	24	18	17	8
	1996	6	11	6	2	1	13	17	13	11	4
Ecuador	1990	6	9	6	4	3	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	7	10	8	4	2	-	-	-	-	-
El Salvador	1997	10	16	10	6	3	25	32	27	18	20
Honduras	1988	17	25	21	12	7	29	32	28	29	29
	1992	19	25	24	14	7	27	29	29	29	17
	1997	17	27	19	14	4	25	31	24	26	21
Mexico b/	1989	15	20	13	14	10	28	34	30	23	23
	1996	14	23	11	7	4	20	26	19	15	12
Nicaragua	1997	14.4	19	17	11	7	-	-	-	-	-
Panama	1997	10	17	9	4	2	17	22	20	12	4
Paraguay b/ c/	1990	29	34	34	24	20	-	-	-	-	-
	1996	12	18	13	7	4	-	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	7	9	7	6	3	13	14	13	14	10
Uruguay d/	1981	16	25	15	7	5	-	-	-	-	-
	1992	13	22	9	5	1	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	17	26	11	6	1	-	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	13	15	15	12	8	20	18	18	23	21
	1992	13	16	14	11	8	20	24	20	18	16
	1997 e/	14	19	14	12	8	-	-	-	-	-

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

a/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

b/ Owing to the design of the survey prior to 1994, the data for these countries refer to young people who describe themselves as not working for reasons other than school attendance.

c/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

d/ Owing to the design of the sample, data are for young people between 14 and 17 years of age.

e/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 37

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 0-5 AND 6-14 RESIDING IN HOUSEHOLDS WITH RISK FACTORS FOR THE FORMATION OF EDUCATIONAL CAPITAL, IN URBAN AREAS (Percentages)			
Country	Year	Children in households with low-level educational environment a/ and income quartile 1 or 2	
		Ages 0 - 5	Ages 6 - 14
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1997	9.6	11.2
Bolivia	1989 b/	24.5	23.1
	1997	25.0	24.3
Brazil	1979	55.9	61.8
	1990	47.9	52.1
	1996	47.5	48.7
Colombia c/	1980	43.0	47.6
	1990	30.9	33.1
	1997	25.8	27.2
Costa Rica	1988	14.0	19.2
	1990	18.8	22.4
	1997	17.9	15.1
Chile	1990	12.0	14.3
	1996	7.7	9.4
El Salvador	1997	33.6	35.5
Guatemala	1986	50.5	50.4
	1989	—	47.4
Honduras	1988	42.2	43.4
	1990	42.6	46.2
	1997	35.4	36.9
Nicaragua	1997	29.4	28.3
Panama	1997	11.8	13.0
Paraguay d/	1986	24.3	22.6
	1990	20.7	16.6
	1997	23.4	23.5
Dominican Republic	1997	23.9	26.7
Uruguay	1981	27.3	29.1
	1989	18.5	22.6
	1997	15.7	17.4
Venezuela	1981	34.8	37.6
	1990	26.4	28.7
	1997 e/	24.8	23.5

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

a/ Low-level educational environment refers to an average of 0-5.99 years of schooling among the adults in the household.

b/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

c/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

d/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

e/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 38

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) ^{a/} OF GAINFULLY EMPLOYED 25 TO 59 YEAR OLDS WHO WORK MORE THAN 20 HOURS PER WEEK, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING
(Averages)

Country	Year	Urban areas (years of schooling)					Rural areas (years of schooling)				
		Total	0-5 years	6-9 years	10 or more	Difference 10+ to 0.5	Total	0-5 years	6-9 years	10 or more	Difference 10+ to 0.5
Argentina ^{b/} (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	8.8	5.6	7.3	12.9	8.3	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	5.9	4.3	5.1	7.5	3.2	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	7.4	4.2	4.8	9.4	5.2	-	-	-	-	-
Bolivia	1989 ^{c/}	4.7	3.2	3.6	6.2	3.0	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	4.0	2.4	2.9	5.4	3.0	2.6	1.9	3.6	5.7	3.8
Brazil	1979	7.0	4.2	7.4	15.5	11.3	3.1	2.9	6.6	14.2	11.3
	1990	5.6	3.0	4.5	10.6	7.6	3.5	3.0	5.5	9.4	6.4
	1996	5.6	3.1	4.0	10.3	7.2	3.2	2.7	3.8	9.0	6.3
Colombia ^{d/}	1980	4.6	2.3	3.6	9.1	6.8	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	4.2	2.3	3.0	6.3	4.0	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	3.9	2.1	2.8	5.5	3.4	-2.9	2.4	2.8	5.4	3.0
Costa Rica	1988	5.9	3.7	4.3	7.7	4.0	6.0	5.4	5.7	8.3	2.9
	1990	5.7	3.2	4.0	7.7	4.5	5.9	4.9	5.4	8.8	3.9
	1997	5.5	3.4	3.7	7.3	3.9	5.7	4.5	5.0	9.0	4.5
Chile	1990	4.3	2.3	2.7	5.4	3.1	3.6	2.7	2.9	6.2	3.5
	1996	7.1	3.2	4.0	8.7	5.5	4.3	3.4	3.5	7.3	3.9
Ecuador	1990	3.0	3.0	2.6	3.7	0.7	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	3.1	1.9	2.1	4.2	2.3	-	-	-	-	-
El Salvador	1997	4.2	2.1	3.0	7.9	5.8	2.8	2.5	3.8	4.6	2.1
Guatemala	1986	3.7	2.2	3.3	7.2	5.0	3.0	2.6	5.7	12.3	9.7
	1989	4.4	2.5	3.8	7.9	5.4	3.4	3.0	4.6	10.5	7.5
Honduras	1988	3.8	1.7	2.6	6.9	5.2	2.3	1.9	2.6	7.3	5.4
	1990	3.4	1.6	2.5	6.7	5.1	2.3	1.9	3.3	7.5	5.6
	1997	2.1	1.2	1.7	3.6	2.4	2.0	1.8	2.0	4.7	2.9
Mexico	1989	4.7	3.0	3.9	7.2	4.2	3.8	3.2	4.5	7.5	4.3
	1996	3.5	1.8	2.3	4.5	2.7	2.4	1.9	2.2	3.7	1.8
Nicaragua	1997	2.5	1.6	2.1	3.8	2.2	-	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	7.0	3.7	5.0	10.2	6.5	4.6	3.4	5.1	10.1	6.7
	1989	6.4	3.2	4.1	8.6	5.4	5.7	3.3	4.5	9.3	6.0
	1997	6.0	3.1	3.8	7.6	4.5	5.3	3.3	4.5	7.7	4.4
Paraguay ^{e/}	1986	3.6	1.4	2.2	5.5	4.1	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	3.7	2.0	2.7	5.1	3.1	-	-	-	-	-
	1996	3.8	2.0	2.5	5.8	3.8	-	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	4.6	3.4	3.9	5.9	2.5	4.7	4.3	4.8	6.2	1.9
Uruguay	1981	6.2	4.4	5.4	8.8	4.4	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	4.3	2.8	3.4	5.7	2.9	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	5.1	3.4	3.9	6.8	3.4	-	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	8.5	6.0	7.9	12.4	6.4	7.4	6.1	9.2	16.3	10.2
	1990	5.4	3.9	4.6	7.1	3.2	5.1	4.4	5.8	7.3	2.9
	1997 ^{f/}	3.9	2.9	3.2	5.1	2.2	-	-	-	-	-

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

a/ Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per hour worked, expressed in terms of the poverty line. Does not include unpaid family workers.

b/ Prior to 1997, the categories of educational levels used here were primary school uncompleted, primary school completed but secondary school uncompleted, and secondary school completed and over, rather than 0-5, 6-9 and 10 or more, respectively.

c/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

d/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

e/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

f/ The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 39

**LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) ^{a/}
FOR WOMEN AS A PERCENTAGE OF CEMIT FOR MEN AMONG GAINFULLY EMPLOYED
25 TO 59 YEAR OLDS WHO WORK MORE THAN 20 HOURS PER WEEK, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING
(Percentages)**

Country	Year	Urban areas (years of schooling)					Rural areas (years of schooling)				
		Total	0-5 years	6-9 years	10 or more	Difference (10+ to 0-5)	Total	0-5 years	6-9 years	10 or more	Difference (10+ to 0-5)
Argentina ^{b/} (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	78	80	70	71	-9	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	90	93	80	87	-4	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	87	95	84	78	-18	-	-	-	-	-
Bolivia	1989 ^{c/}	65	64	74	71	5	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	75	74	74	86	12	70	84	49	66	-19
Brazil	1979	53	46	49	45	-1	54	52	45	46	-6
	1990	67	51	56	62	11	65	56	54	57	1
	1996	74	65	63	63	-1	74	62	53	59	-3
Colombia ^{d/}	1980	62	62	77	59	-2	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	76	72	78	70	-2	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	95	74	123	85	11	83	58	77	80	22
Costa Rica	1988	84	79	64	81	2	79	57	61	94	37
	1990	84	64	73	81	17	92	62	72	101	39
	1997	96	68	73	95	27	90	60	69	92	32
Chile	1990	77	65	89	75	10	108	93	83	86	-7
	1996	73	79	74	68	-11	89	80	78	74	-6
Ecuador	1990	70	77	59	75	-2	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	88	80	70	88	8	-	-	-	-	-
El Salvador	1997	89	79	76	84	5	96	88	82	126	237
Guatemala	1986	75	71	85	73	2	77	74	46	61	-13
	1989	85	71	90	80	9	86	81	63	85	4
Honduras	1980	70	65	64	64	-1	104	68	107	85	17
	1990	71	56	53	72	16	88	60	69	119	59
	1997	78	69	72	64	-6	71	58	68	64	6
Mexico	1989	75	78	79	72	-6	97	100	93	86	-14
	1992	68	64	82	65	-1	80	74	73	73	-1
	1996	72	75	79	67	-8	77	62	71	85	23
Nicaragua	1997	67	67	71	63	-4	-	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	78	63	64	75	12	118	85	83	85	0
	1989	84	61	65	79	18	111	76	75	107	31
	1997	83	59	68	76	18	118	94	79	100	6
Paraguay ^{e/}	1986	58	65	59	60	-5	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	63	70	54	65	-5	-	-	-	-	-
	1996	83	90	74	77	-14	-	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	88	68	71	84	17	78	71	71	80	9
Uruguay	1981	63	53	60	63	10	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	74	63	67	72	9	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	83	68	76	74	6	-	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	82	60	72	92	32	85	64	72	123	59
	1990	73	65	79	69	4	85	78	72	89	11
	1997 ^{f/}	79	77	71	71	-5	-	-	-	-	-

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

^{a/} Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per hour worked, expressed in terms of the poverty line. Does not include unpaid family workers.

^{b/} Prior to 1997, the categories of educational levels used here were primary school uncompleted, primary school completed but secondary school uncompleted, and secondary school completed and over, rather than 0-5, 6-9 and 10 or more, respectively.

^{c/} Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

^{d/} As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

^{e/} Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

^{f/} The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 40

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) ^{a/} OF INDEPENDENT 15 TO 24 YEAR OLDS WHO WORK MORE THAN 20 HOURS PER WEEK AND DO NOT ATTEND SCHOOL, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING

Country	Year	Urban areas (years of schooling)					Rural areas (years of schooling)				
		Total	0-5 years	6-9 years	10 or more	Difference (10+ to 0.5)	Total	0-5	6-9	10 or more	Difference (10+ to 0.5)
Argentina ^{b/} (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	5.0	4.6	4.6	6.4	1.8	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	4.7	3.3	4.3	6.0	2.7	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	4.5	3.9	4.2	5.2	1.3	-	-	-	-	-
Bolivia	1989 ^{c/}	3.2	1.4	1.9	3.1	1.7	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	2.4	1.8	2.3	2.8	0.9	2.3	2.1	2.0	3.5	1.4
Brazil	1979	3.3	2.3	4.0	7.9	5.6	2.2	2.0	2.5	7.6	5.6
	1990	2.9	1.8	2.9	5.6	3.8	2.5	2.2	2.4	4.6	2.4
	1996	3.1	2.1	3.3	4.8	2.7	2.4	2.0	3.3	5.7	3.7
Colombia ^{d/}	1980	2.8	1.6	1.9	4.3	2.7	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	2.3	1.7	2.0	3.9	2.2	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	2.4	1.7	1.9	3.2	1.5	2.4	2.2	2.8	2.6	0.4
Costa Rica	1988	3.6	2.4	3.6	4.2	1.8	5.1	4.0	5.1	6.0	2.0
	1990	3.8	2.9	3.4	4.7	1.8	4.9	3.9	4.8	7.2	3.3
	1997	3.9	2.6	3.5	4.9	2.3	5.3	4.2	5.1	8.6	4.4
Chile	1990	2.5	2.2	2.0	3.8	0.6	2.8	2.4	2.5	3.9	1.5
	1996	4.1	2.1	3.2	4.6	2.5	3.2	2.7	3.0	3.9	1.2
Ecuador	1990	1.4	2.9	-	0.5	-2.4	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	2.3	1.6	1.9	2.9	1.3	-	-	-	-	-
El Salvador	1997	2.9	2.4	2.5	4.3	1.9	2.8	2.8	2.6	-	-
Guatemala	1986	2.1	1.8	1.9	4.2	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.8	-	-
	1989	2.4	1.7	2.5	4.7	3.0	2.6	2.4	2.7	-	-
Honduras	1988	1.3	0.9	1.1	3.2	2.3	1.5	1.3	1.8	5.1	3.8
	1990	1.5	1.0	1.3	3.4	2.4	1.7	1.3	2.0	5.8	4.5
	1997	1.7	1.4	1.4	2.7	1.3	1.7	1.4	2.0	2.8	1.4
Mexico	1989	3.2	2.2	3.8	4.6	2.4	2.6	2.2	2.7	6.7	4.5
	1996	2.3	1.3	1.8	2.6	1.3	2.2	1.5	2.1	2.8	1.3
Nicaragua	1997	2.1	1.2	2.2	2.5	1.3	-	-	-	-	-
Panama	1979	3.6	1.7	2.5	5.9	4.2	4.7	2.8	3.9	9.8	6.2
	1989	2.7	2.0	1.9	3.9	2.0	2.8	2.3	2.5	3.8	1.5
	1997	2.7	2.6	3.7	3.9	1.3	6.2	4.4	4.1	9.6	5.2
Paraguay ^{e/}	1986	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.8	1.0	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	1.3	0.8	1.1	2.5	1.7	-	-	-	-	-
	1996	2.1	1.8	1.8	2.8	1.0	-	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	3.5	2.2	3.0	4.2	1.0	4.6	4.0	4.3	7.0	3.0
Uruguay	1981	2.9	3.1	3.7	4.6	1.5	-	-	-	-	-
	1990	2.9	2.1	2.8	3.4	1.3	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	3.7	3.4	3.2	4.5	1.1	-	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	5.9	4.2	3.6	9.3	5.1	6.5	4.9	7.5	11.0	6.1
	1990	3.2	2.3	3.1	4.3	2.0	3.6	3.3	3.9	4.3	1.0
	1997 ^{f/}	3.2	2.3	2.7	4.6	2.3	-	-	-	-	-

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

^{a/} Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per hour worked, expressed in terms of the poverty line. Does not include unpaid family workers.

^{b/} Prior to 1997, the categories of educational levels used here were primary school uncompleted, primary school completed but secondary school uncompleted, and secondary school completed and over, rather than 0-5, 6-9 and 10 or more, respectively.

^{c/} Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

^{d/} As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

^{e/} Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

^{f/} The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 41

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) ^{a/} OF CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13-17, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL											
Country	Year	Urban areas (income level)					Rural areas (income level)				
		Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	3.9	3.0	3.7	4.3	5.0	-	-	-	-	-
	1992	4.6	3.1	3.9	4.5	7.1	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	2.8	2.6	2.5	3.5	2.7	-	-	-	-	-
Bolivia	1989 ^{b/}	1.9	1.6	1.6	2.1	2.0	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	1.7	1.0	1.6	1.9	2.6	2.3	0.6	1.0	1.9	3.2
Brazil	1979	1.4	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.3	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.8
	1990	1.2	0.7	1.1	1.6	2.0	1.5	0.7	1.2	1.6	2.5
	1996	1.7	1.1	1.6	2.2	3.6	1.6	1.0	1.3	1.9	2.9
Colombia ^{c/}	1980	1.3	0.7	1.2	1.6	1.7	-	-	-	-	-
	1992	1.2	0.7	1.3	1.5	1.7	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	1.9	1.1	1.6	2.6	3.5	2.9	1.0	2.3	2.8	4.3
Costa Rica	1988	2.7	1.5	2.1	3.1	4.0	4.3	1.9	2.5	3.7	6.0
	1992	2.6	2.1	2.2	3.2	3.7	3.2	2.1	3.2	3.4	4.0
	1997	2.8	2.3	2.6	3.6	3.3	3.4	2.7	3.0	3.3	5.1
Chile	1992	1.7	1.4	1.5	2.2	2.2	2.5	1.3	2.3	2.4	3.5
	1996	2.9	2.3	2.7	2.6	7.1	2.9	1.5	2.7	3.1	4.0
Ecuador	1990	2.5	0.9	2.1	2.8	7.2	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	1.4	1.0	1.4	1.5	2.1	-	-	-	-	-
El Salvador	1997	2.2	1.7	2.1	4.0	1.5	2.3	1.8	2.3	2.5	2.6
Honduras	1988	0.9	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.4
	1992	0.9	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	0.6	1.0	1.3	1.6
	1997	0.8	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.0	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.5
Mexico	1989	1.2	0.9	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.5	0.7	1.3	1.8	2.8
	1996	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nicaragua	1997	1.4	0.9	0.9	1.2	3.5	-	-	-	-	-
Panama	1997	2.6	1.9	2.3	3.3	6.6	2.6	1.7	2.3	2.9	4.1
Paraguay ^{d/}	1990	0.9	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.8	-	-	-	-	-
	1996	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.5	2.4	-	-	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	1997	2.3	1.7	2.2	2.3	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.5	2.7	3.6
Uruguay ^{e/}	1981	2.1	1.6	2.4	2.6	3.0	-	-	-	-	-
	1992	2.1	1.7	2.3	2.8	2.6	-	-	-	-	-
	1997	2.6	2.1	3.1	3.3	5.4	-	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1981	3.7	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.0	4.4	2.9	3.9	4.5	5.0
	1992	2.2	1.7	2.1	2.4	2.7	2.7	1.7	2.3	2.8	3.5
	1997 ^{f/}	2.2	1.2	1.7	2.2	5.5	-	-	-	-	-

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

^{a/} Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per hour worked, expressed in terms of the poverty line. Does not include unpaid family workers.

^{b/} Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

^{c/} As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

^{d/} Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

^{e/} Owing to the design of the survey, data are for young people aged 14-17.

^{f/} The design of the sample used in the surveys conducted since 1997 does not allow for urban/rural disaggregation, and figures therefore refer to the national total.



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