



SOCIAL PANORAMA OF LATIN AMERICA

EDITION 1995



**United Nations
Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
Santiago, Chile**



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Notes and explanation of symbols

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

Three dots (...) indicate that data 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., 1991-1993, indicates reference to the complete number of calendar years involved, including the beginning and the 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 totals, because of rounding.

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SUMMARY

In the 1995 edition of the **Social Panorama of Latin America**, the Secretariat of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean presents its annual assessment of social development. The report consists of four chapters and a statistical appendix of 46 tables based on social and socio-economic indicators.

The first chapter analyses the links between current economic change and social change. An examination of economic growth, inflation and reductions in unemployment brings into focus the relationship between the dynamics of the economy and their social effects in the context of the new forms of development within the region. Some of the countries which reduced their poverty levels in the early 1990s achieved further successes, while others suffered setbacks.

As regards employment, current economic growth is not generating sufficient jobs for productive absorption of the labour force, and pronounced differences persist between the open unemployment rates affecting households in different income groups.

As concerns income distribution, the share of income going to the lower-middle-income urban group has diminished, despite the fact that in some countries income has increased in real terms in recent years. The inequalities of income distribution observed recently persist, and progress in the area of social stability will depend mainly on the

reduction of the absolute poverty that growth may create, since such poverty gives rise to uncertainty as to how far lower-middle-income groups will go in pressing their income demands.

The second chapter, which relates to the education and work of children, adolescents and young people, presents quantitative evidence on the high returns brought by investment in more and better education—not only for young people themselves but also for their households, society and the economy as a whole. There is also a description of the negative impact of child labour on children, adolescents and the families they may form in the future, owing to the large educational deficit incurred by young people who work, and to the consequent loss of earnings during their adult working life.

The chapter on gender, poverty and participation refers to women's important contribution to the family income, as a result of their growing participation in economic activities: in households where both partners have a paid job, 30% of the family income comes from the woman. The number of female heads of household has increased, and the chapter deals with the greater incidence of extreme poverty in such households and the existence of a gender bias which tends to reproduce such situations. There is also information on occupational segregation, the persistence of income disparities between men and women, and wage discrimination against women.



In the context of the political and economic events of the past year, the chapter on the social agenda describes the emergence of new social policy proposals and analyses the main reforms being implemented in the health, education and social security sectors. These reforms are characterized by changes in institutional structure, management and evaluation processes in those sectors; by the fact that the quality of the services provided is acquiring greater importance; and by the combination of public and private financing. In terms of results, questions remain relating to equity in service

provision and to the resistance of some of the actors involved —mainly unions. The salient social themes mentioned are the concern aroused by increased poverty and inequality of income distribution, and the growth of drug addiction, corruption, violence and urban insecurity. As regards the international social agenda, the main commitments reached at the World Summit for Social Development and the Fourth World Conference on Women are outlined and reference is made to the Regional Programme of Action for the Women of Latin America and the Caribbean, 1995-2001.

INTRODUCTION

The **Social Panorama of Latin America** is an expression of the continuing efforts of the secretariat of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) to incorporate the social dimension into its annual appraisals of regional development. The report is prepared periodically by the Statistics and Economic Projections Division and the Social Development Division of ECLAC.

This edition once again analyses important aspects of the situation of children in the region. This is the result of ECLAC's joint activities with the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) in order to provide up-to-date information on opportunities for access to well-being from childhood onwards.

On this occasion the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) has collaborated in the preparation of the study. Thanks to the UNFPA Support Team for Latin America and the Caribbean, it was possible to include in this edition of the **Social Panorama of Latin America** an examination of some of the most important economic and social aspects of women's situation.

The themes and statistical data presented in this edition of the **Social Panorama** also provide a framework for consideration of some of the principal topics discussed at the World Summit for Social Development

and the Fourth World Conference on Women. The main focus is on themes related to poverty, employment and social integration, and to women's participation in development. There is also an analysis of the impact on children of education and child labour, and their impact on the well-being of households. Lastly, the countries' social agenda is examined, with special reference to social reforms in education, health and social security, and the major social themes at the international level are outlined.

The quantitative data which inform most of this report are given in the statistical appendix in a collection of tables based on social and socio-economic indicators of a periodic nature. This has been made possible by the ongoing efforts of statistical offices and other agencies in Latin America and the Caribbean to upgrade, update and give continuity to their countries' household surveys. ECLAC processed the original information, and incorporated it into the Household Survey Data Bank in order to assess its quality and establish an acceptable degree of standardization. The efforts of all these institutions have made it possible to include more countries in the **Social Panorama of Latin America** and broaden its scope.

The first chapter examines the impact of recent economic trends on poverty, employment and income distribution in the



region. It describes the consequences of economic growth for poverty levels in some countries during the first half of the 1990s. There is also a description of the effects in some countries of the uneven development of the main variables affecting household income: the objective is to highlight the successes of some countries and consider the problems raised in others.

An analysis of open unemployment in urban areas of a number of countries of the region illustrates the limitations of current economic growth as regards the productive integration of the labour force. New information is presented on the impact of unemployment on the active population at different income levels, and on unemployment trends at each of those levels during fluctuations in open unemployment.

A concern for social equity continues to be one of the central focal points of this study. The first chapter, therefore, presents the main features of changes in income distribution in Latin America from the beginning of the 1980s to the beginning of the 1990s, and compares income distribution in urban areas in eleven countries in tabular form. Given the importance attached to the middle-income urban groups in relation to the strengthening of democracy and processes of social integration, there is also a detailed analysis of trends in income levels in the lower-middle-income group, and of trends in its share of income.

The chapter on the situation of children provides evidence of the great benefits which timely investment in more and better education can provide for students, businesses and society as a whole. An account is also given of the high social, economic and opportunity costs of child and adolescent labour which, among other

negative effects, limits the educational potential of that sector of the population.

The same chapter quantifies the economic return on an increase in educational expenditure which allows children or adolescents to remain at primary or secondary school for three additional years. The amount saved by early investment in education is also calculated, by comparing the cost of regular classes with the cost of compensatory programmes for adults, and by analysing initial training costs for enterprises in relation to the number of years new workers have spent in basic education.

The chapter continues by describing the serious consequences child labour has not only for children and adolescents themselves, but also for the families they form in the future. Child labour leads to a large educational deficit and thus to loss of earnings during adult working life. In this respect, detailed information is presented on the number of hours worked per week and the level of pay, on the impact of such earnings on the total income of the households in question and on the potential for rising above the poverty or indigence line.

The chapter on the gender dimension, which was prepared in collaboration with UNFPA, examines the salient aspects of the themes of demographics, occupation and the well-being of the household. Special attention is paid to changes in the composition of the family and the role played in the family by women from different socio-economic strata, with particular regard to their increasing participation in economic activity.

The first part of the chapter presents data on Latin American women's fast-growing access to paid employment and the

INTRODUCTION

importance of their contribution to the household income. Specifically, the contribution of women in paid employment to the family income is quantified, as is the degree to which such income reduces poverty indexes.

The subject of the female head of household is also discussed in the context of demographic changes in the region and of trends since the beginning of the 1980s. Evidence is presented on the greater proportion in poor strata of households with a female head, and on the existence of a gender bias in the configuration and reproduction of situations of urban poverty. There is also an analysis of women's participation in the labour market and of the changes in the rates of economic activity for both sexes, by age, level of education and poverty level. Some factors determining women's participation in employment are examined: number of children and their ages, in relation to the stage in the woman's life-cycle; and number of years of education.

Lastly, recent changes in the structure of male and female employment are described, particularly as regards participation of the workforce in low-productivity sectors. Trends in the

inequality of men's and women's income over the last 15 years are also analysed. All the themes in question are dealt with in the Regional Programme of Action for the Women of Latin America and the Caribbean, 1995-2001.

The fourth chapter examines major social policy changes against the background of political and economic transformations connected with the growing importance of the market and the opening-up of economies.

The main features of reforms in the health, education and social security sectors are described, as well as the debate surrounding their results and the problems involved in their implementation. Current themes of the regional social agenda, such as poverty, inequitable income distribution, urban insecurity, violence, corruption and drugs are examined in a qualitative analysis based on press reports and information from the countries.

Lastly, mention is made of the main elements of the international agenda, and the agreements reached at the World Summit for Social Development and the Fourth World Conference on Women.



***POVERTY, EMPLOYMENT AND
INCOME DISTRIBUTION
IN THE FIRST HALF
OF THE 1990s***

- 1. Poverty: recent trends***
- 2. Unemployment trends***
- 3. Income distribution***



1. Poverty: recent trends

Some of the countries which reduced poverty at the beginning of the 1990s had further success during the period 1993-1995 —and Peru was added to this group— while others suffered setbacks. All these developments were closely related to the countries' ability to sustain a high rate of economic growth while reducing inflation and unemployment. At the same time, a large number of countries still have per capita growth rates which are highly likely to impede their progress in alleviating poverty.

During the first half of the 1990s (1990-1994) there were some successes in alleviating poverty. One group of countries managed to combine economic growth with reductions in unemployment and inflation. It is thus very likely that Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico, Panama, Peru and Uruguay have, to varying degrees, reduced the percentages of their populations living in indigence and poverty. For some of these countries, much of this economic growth meant simply recovering the ground lost during the crisis in the 1980s. However, as idle capacity was absorbed, it became more difficult in some cases to continue to make progress on all three fronts —growth, employment and price stability.

During these five years, Brazil and Venezuela have alternated between periods of growth and recession, without being able to control either inflation or their macroeconomic accounts in general. Therefore, these countries' anti-poverty efforts are likely to have stagnated or recessed relative to 1990.

For the region as a whole, then, the very moderate progress made in alleviating poverty was insufficient to restore the situation achieved at the end of the 1970s.

During 1994 worrisome trends became apparent in some of the countries which had been making gradual progress in the fight against poverty in recent years, such as Argentina, Costa Rica and Mexico. In Argentina, where priority was given to controlling inflation, economic growth was accompanied by increases in unemployment, which at the time were ascribed basically to the reform process. In Costa Rica, the reforms gradually altered income distribution, but the pace of poverty alleviation was not commensurate with economic growth rates. Lastly, in Mexico, economic growth dropped drastically, and in 1993 per capita gross domestic product (GDP) fell, which had a negative impact on poverty levels.

The year 1995 demonstrated the strength of the processes taking place in Chile, Colombia and Peru, and Brazil's success in restoring growth and reducing inflation. A reduction in poverty can be expected in all of these countries, although Brazil's aim of



maintaining stability could conflict with growth and employment in the short term.

Chile and Peru provide examples of successful efforts to alleviate poverty through simultaneous progress in achieving economic growth and maintaining price stability and average and minimum wage levels. There have been very significant poverty reductions in Chile since the mid-1980s. Between 1987 and 1994, according to ECLAC estimates, the percentage of households with incomes below the poverty line fell from 39.4% to 24.1%. However, the figures show that poverty, and especially indigence, have decreased less in the past two years than in the two years preceding them. Between 1992 and 1994 the poverty rate declined from 27.8% to 24.1%, while between 1990 and 1992, it decreased from 33.3% to 27.8%.

This situation is attributable to the slow-down in growth and the difficulties which Chile has faced in sustaining growth while curbing inflation, significantly increasing employment and improving income distribution. Thus, in 1993 and 1994, cumulative per capita GDP growth was 6.7%, as compared with 14.2% in the previous two years. The urban unemployment rate returned to 6.3% in 1994,¹ after falling from 6.5% to 5% between 1990 and 1992, which lessened the positive impact of increased employment on the incomes of the poorest households in the early years of the decade. The inflation rate continued to fall, albeit more slowly: the average monthly percentage increases in the consumer price index (CPI) climbed from 2% in 1990 to

1.2% in 1992 and to 0.7% in 1994. Wage hikes also had less of a positive impact on the incidence of poverty, especially the increase in the urban minimum wage, which rose again in real terms between 1992 and 1994 (8.8%), but significantly less than in the previous two years (14.3%).

One notable aspect of the Chilean situation concerns the trends in extreme poverty, or indigence, in the past two years. In contrast to the period 1987-1992, when urban indigence decreased by 50% (from 14.3% to 7.2%), the proportion of indigent households dropped very slightly (from 7.2% to 6.6%) in 1993 and 1994, despite the achievements in the macroeconomic sphere and the efforts to increase social spending. In this respect, it is again becoming clear that increases in unemployment have a substantial impact on the incomes of the poorest households: in the lowest decile, there was a decrease in the number of employed persons per household and a drop in average incomes.

This underscores the high degree of vulnerability of households which are still living in indigence. They represent a type of hard-core poverty; their incomes, unlike those of households at other poverty levels, scarcely depend on GDP growth or real wage increases in the formal sector, since they usually derive from the social security, retirement or widows' pensions paid to the inactive population, the own-account work of persons with very minimal skills, and the benefits provided by social-welfare programmes, such as consolidated household subsidies and allowances. Rural households, which have borne the brunt of

¹ These figures are a twelve-month average for the Metropolitan Region of Santiago, Chile. They are not comparable with the unemployment rates shown in table I-1, which represent the urban total for November.

agricultural restructuring, represent around 20% of indigent households.

In Peru, local estimates indicate that in recent years poverty has declined by around six percentage points at the national level—from 55.1% in 1991 to 49.6% in 1994. These figures also showed a significant drop in poverty in the Lima metropolitan area—from 44% to 38%.² This progress is largely attributable to the resumption of growth in 1993, after more than five years of economic recession. In 1993 and 1994 the cumulative increase in per capita GDP was nearly 15%. During the same period, the average monthly inflation rate fell by two thirds, from 3.8% to 1.2%, so that real wages rose noticeably.³ During 1994 average wages in metropolitan Lima, whether subject to collective bargaining or not, rose 11.8% in real terms.

In Peru, as in Chile, a significant proportion of the increase in the incomes of poor urban households stemmed from the sizeable hike in the minimum wage. In April 1994 the nominal minimum living wage went up from 72 new soles to 132 new soles—a real increase of 59%. Moreover, while the resumption of growth was not accompanied by a significant decline in unemployment—in metropolitan Lima the open unemployment rate fell from 9.4% in 1992 to 8.8% in 1994—total employment expanded significantly owing to the rapid increase in the urban labour force.

It should be borne in mind that, prior to the recent successes in alleviating poverty, poverty levels in Peru were extremely high relative to what they had been at the end of the 1970s, or even the mid-1980s.

According to ECLAC estimates, the poverty rate in metropolitan Lima reached 29% in 1979 and 37% in 1986. Consequently, the major decrease that has taken place in recent years reflects the current stage of the economic recovery; the households that have escaped from poverty are basically those with incomes close to the poverty line, which had dropped to the non-indigent poor level during the previous period.

At the opposite extreme are Argentina and Mexico, countries which in 1995 faced severe balance-of-payments deficits and abrupt changes in the trends seen during the first half of the 1990s. In Argentina the efforts to protect stability and exchange-rate parity succeeded, but at the cost of an economic recession and a phenomenal rise in open unemployment which had already increased as a result of changes in production patterns. In Mexico, while unemployment increased to a much smaller extent than in Argentina, there were major setbacks in the battle against inflation, and the output level fell by around 7%. Thus, indigence and poverty levels rose significantly in both countries.

In Argentina, the notable rise in unemployment during 1995 seems to have been the biggest factor in exacerbating

² These estimates are based on data from the Standard of Living Surveys (ENNIV), in which the method of determining income differs from that used by ECLAC. Thus, the figures on absolute poverty levels are not comparable with those for 1979 and 1986, although they accurately reflect poverty trends from 1990 onward. See Instituto Cuánto and UNICEF, "Retrato de la familia peruana. Niveles de vida, 1994", Lima, May 1995.

³ The slow-down in the inflation rate was notable, since up to August 1990, it had averaged nearly 40% per month.



urban poverty, by largely neutralizing the improvements seen since 1990. The figures available for Greater Buenos Aires indicate that between 1990 and 1992, it proved possible to reduce the incidence of poverty from 16% to 10%, a decline which should have continued, during the following two years, although probably at a slower pace, given the less rapid growth of per capita GDP and the increase in open unemployment.

The unemployment increase accelerated in mid-1994, and gained further momentum in early 1995, following the adoption of stringent adjustment measures. By May 1995 the open unemployment rate in 25 large urban areas approached 19% and was reaching 20% in Greater Buenos Aires. Despite unemployment insurance, which

benefited some laid-off workers, the continual rise of unemployment had a serious negative impact on the lowest-income groups. This is what the figures on open unemployment by poverty levels show: in October 1992 the unemployment rate in Greater Buenos Aires was 6.7%, but it reached 34% among the active population classified as poor. The current average figure for urban unemployment in Argentina (which is three times higher than in 1992) suggests that there must have been a substantial rise in the number of households with unemployed members, which in turn must have led to a sharp drop in income for households in the poorest deciles, and a resulting increase in poverty.

2. Unemployment trends

The current rate of economic growth is generating fewer jobs than are needed to absorb the growing labour force in a productive way. This situation was initially interpreted as a specific consequence of the early stages of the reform process, but it now appears to have become permanent, even in cases where the process is at an advanced stage and growth rates are high. At the same time, disparities remain, or are increasing, with regard to the number and type of jobs being created and their distribution among households at various income levels.

Recent trends in the Latin American economies make it clear that the number and type of jobs being created by current economic development processes limit the dissemination of the benefits of growth within society.

The overall increase in employment during the recovery periods that followed

the crisis in the 1980s was very significant. The economic momentum was based largely on the utilization of idle installed capacity and the rehiring of unemployed workers. Once GDP had exceeded the pre-crisis levels, and growth was based on capital accumulation, employment expanded more slowly. At the same time, the resumption of growth in some countries coincided with the introduction or strengthening of institutional and macroeconomic reforms.

Thus, during the past two years (1994-1995), high GDP growth rates have been combined with persistent or rising unemployment levels in some countries. Furthermore, where stagnation or negative growth occurred in 1995, it had an extremely adverse impact on employment. In Argentina, for example, the open unemployment rate, which had reached levels of close to 10% in May 1993 and May 1994, rose to nearly 20% at the end of the first half of 1995.⁴ In Mexico, the behaviour of unemployment rates also confirms this observation: open unemployment levels, while initially lower than in Argentina, rose steadily from 1992 onward to reach an average of 3.7% in 1994. In May 1995 the urban

⁴ These figures are for May of each year and refer to the 25 large urban areas covered by the Argentine National Institute of Statistics and Censuses employment survey. In May 1993 unemployment stood at 9.9%, and it reached 10.7% in May 1994.



unemployment rate was 6.6%, more than double the levels recorded since the mid-1980s.

It is also worth noting what happened to employment in Brazil as a result of the resumption of growth. Despite a cumulative increase in GDP of close to 9% during 1993 and 1994, the jobs created were insufficient to absorb the expanding labour force. As a result, the unemployment rate in the main urban areas remained above 5%, the highest rate recorded since the mid-1980s.

Even in Chile, which is the clearest example of sustained economic growth, the 4.5% growth rate during 1994 was accompanied by an increase of more than 2 percentage points in urban unemployment (from 4.1% to 6.3%). In 1995, despite having achieved an 8% growth rate, Chile has been unable to bring unemployment level down to what it was in 1994.

The quality, structure and distribution of employment and the unemployment levels, all of which are linked to the new forms of growth, are gradually widening the disparities in this area. A case in point is the pattern of unemployment among households classified according to per capita income. While it can be expected that this method of classification will result in a certain concentration of unemployment among the lower-income deciles, the concentration seen here is remarkably high and persistent. In many countries, the open unemployment rate in the first poorest decile is four or more times higher than the average unemployment rate, while for the poorest 20% of households, it is three or more times the average rate. These high rates are proving intractable and are not greatly affected by the fluctuations in overall unemployment. Moreover, in the second poorest quintile, the unemployment rate is also above average. In 1992,

unemployment remained high among households in the second quintile, even in countries which had managed to lower their open unemployment rates to levels of between 4% and 6%.

In the 20% of highest-income households, however, the unemployment level is very low and hardly varies with the overall rate, a pattern that shows it to be frictional unemployment. In all of the countries considered, the level of such unemployment is between 1% and 3%, except in Panama, where it reaches 6.1%—but even so, this figure does not account for as much as one third of Panama's average urban unemployment level (see table I-1).

The above discussion makes it clear that strong growth and the dissemination of technological progress have major consequences for employment among only a few deciles, while having indirect consequences for the lowest deciles. Thus, very high and sustained economic growth would be needed in order for the unemployment levels of these deciles to fall. In other words, decreases in open unemployment are far from being evenly distributed among households at different levels. Improvements are of benefit mainly to households in the five, six or seven highest-income deciles, and only when unemployment falls to very low levels do these benefits reach enough families to reduce unemployment among the two or three poorest deciles.

Hence, the current level of economic growth has yet to reduce the high concentrations of unemployment in the lowest deciles, a situation that goes beyond the mere rotation of unemployment among various households. Meanwhile, the situation of households in these deciles is determined by a number of factors. First, few of their members work (somewhat

Table I-1

URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY INCOME LEVELS a/

Country	Year	Total	First decile	First quintile	Second quintile	Fifth quintile
Argentina b/	1986	6.6	32.3	24.3	9.4	1.3
	1990	5.9	30.2	19.9	7.8	1.3
	1992	6.7	30.0	18.6	5.7	1.2
	1994	13.1
Bolivia	1992	5.5	23.4	16.6	5.0	1.9
	1994	5.8
Brazil	1990	4.5	17.1	11.9	5.0	1.4
	1994	5.1
Chile c/	1987	10.9	34.2	26.5	12.8	2.7
	1990	8.7	30.9	22.9	11.7	2.3
	1992	6.0	21.2	15.9	7.8	1.6
	1994	6.8	23.5	17.9	8.0	2.0
Colombia	1986	13.1	31.5	27.4	17.9	3.8
	1990	10.3	22.5	19.7	14.1	3.6
	1992	9.1	21.5	19.7	11.4	3.0
	1994	8.9
Costa Rica	1992	4.2	22.4	15.5	5.2	0.6
	1994	4.3
Honduras	1992	5.1	12.6	11.3	7.2	1.4
	1994	6.3
Mexico d/	1992	4.3	6.4	7.1	5.2	2.8
	1994	3.7
Panama	1986	12.4	23.3	23.1	18.1	2.4
	1989	19.0	37.5	33.3	24.4	5.7
	1991	18.6	41.7	35.2	24.5	6.1
	1994	15.8
Paraguay	1992	5.0	22.0	13.5	7.4	1.8
	1994	4.6
Uruguay	1986	9.0	22.4	18.4	11.8	2.9
	1990	8.9	20.8	17.4	10.6	3.4
	1992	8.4	19.8	15.9	9.8	3.0
	1994	9.1
Venezuela	1986	11.3	43.9	33.4	14.3	2.4
	1990	10.2	44.3	33.9	13.0	2.1
	1992	7.3	37.6	26.0	9.6	1.4
	1994	8.7

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from ongoing household surveys and official figures provided by the countries.

a/ Refers to percentiles of per capita family income distribution.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires metropolitan area. Figures are for October of each year.

c/ Special tabulations of data from national socio-economic surveys conducted in 1987, 1990, 1992 and 1994.

d/ Special tabulations of data from national household income and expenditure surveys.



fewer than one person per household on average), and those who do earn very low pay; they have no investment income, and the transfers and subsidies which they receive consist of very small amounts; lastly, they have no assets, or virtually none. These households therefore have

hardly any links with the formal sectors of the economy. For that reason, economic growth has a limited impact, whether direct or indirect, on unemployment among the lowest deciles, except in the case of very high and sustained growth rates.

3. Income distribution

The economies of most Latin American countries during the 1990s have been characterized by an unequal distribution of the costs of adjustment and by a notable rigidity of income distribution during expansionary phases. If the distributive inequity of current development models continues, any progress towards social stability which may result from economic growth will depend chiefly on the reduction of poverty and indigence, and it is uncertain how far lower-middle-income groups will go in pressing their income demands.

Previous editions of the **Social Panorama** have analysed the changes in income distribution that took place during the 1980s and the early 1990s.⁵ These studies have concluded that, in most of the countries, households in the highest decile did not suffer income losses during the crisis and that, in some cases, their incomes even increased in real terms. Thus, in general, their share of income distribution rose. On the other hand, the available

evidence indicates that households in the seven lowest-income deciles bore the brunt of the crisis and the costs of adjustment policies. In addition, the most recent trends show that the periods of resumed growth in the region have been characterized by a highly inflexible pattern of income distribution, which has prevented the benefits of such growth from outweighing the relative disadvantages faced by population groups whose income share had fallen during the 1980s.

Under these circumstances, the percentage increases in household incomes among the various deciles have been similar, so that while the relative share of the lowest-income households has not improved, their real income has increased in direct proportion to economic growth. This has allowed a significant percentage of households in this category to escape from indigence and poverty, particularly in cases where economic growth has been strong and sustained. Given the effects of scarce resources on households in the poorest deciles, it must be assumed that during periods of rapid growth, such groups would be likely to support a development mode that enables them to escape from the worst kinds of poverty. At the other end of the scale, the two or three highest deciles are receiving a major share of the income increases, and can naturally

⁵ See ECLAC, **Social Panorama of Latin America**, 1994 edition (LC/G.1844), Santiago, Chile, November 1994, chapter III, and table 18.



be expected to be more supportive of current development processes.

Between these two extremes are the population groups which, while not poor, are not fully integrated into the more dynamic sectors of the economy. These are the households whose incomes, while sufficient to meet their basic needs, are still below the average. In the urban areas of the countries which have attained what may be considered a middle or high per capita income level for Latin America, such households make up the next three deciles after the poorest 40% in terms of family income distribution.⁶ In 1980 the lowest household incomes in this group were between 30% and 40% above the per capita value of the poverty line, and the highest incomes were between 2.2 and 3.3 times higher than the poverty line, depending on the country (except in Argentina and Uruguay, where they were around four times higher)⁷ (see table I-4). The 30% of households in this group earn incomes ranging between US\$ 300 and US\$ 800 per month for a family of four, and they typically constitute the lower level of the broad middle-income urban groups in the region's countries.⁸

The following discussion will examine the trends in the income share of

middle-income urban households in the fifth, sixth and seventh deciles and their absolute levels of well-being, which are relevant to an analysis of how the fruits of economic growth have been distributed in recent years. This group is generally considered to play an important role in strengthening democracy, since it consists mainly of wage-earners employed in enterprises in the formal sector of the economy and a portion of the public sector. Moreover, because of its position in the income pyramid, the urban group is the one that best represents the paramount level of well-being in the countries, and it is therefore the reference group for the population living in poverty. A further factor which may be important to social stability is the perception that the members of the lower-middle group have of their own incomes as compared with those of other groups and with their growing consumer expectations, as well as their opportunities for social mobility. This perception derives from their access to the mass media, and their higher educational attainments.

Be that as it may, households at the lower-middle level receive a significantly smaller share of total urban income distribution than the 30% which they

⁶ This analysis does not include countries with annual per capita incomes under US\$ 1,000 and poverty levels of nearly 50% or higher in urban areas. Of the countries for which information is available on income distribution trends during the period 1980-1992, Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras and Paraguay were not included.

⁷ The low poverty percentages and the high income and urbanization levels reached in Argentina and Uruguay in the early 1980s, as compared with the rest of the region, mean that this group was larger in both countries. The next 10% of households after the poorest 30% should be added to the three deciles mentioned; the lower-middle level would thus consist of the 40% of households in the fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh deciles in terms of urban income distribution. For purposes of comparison, however, the definition of the level was retained.

⁸ The middle-income urban groups, defined in accordance with the income-classification method, are broader than the definition used for analytical purposes. Also included in these groups are the 20% (the eighth and ninth income distribution deciles), or even 25% of households with above-average incomes. These households constitute the middle and upper-middle urban groups.

would hypothetically receive if income was equitably distributed. In the Latin American countries with a relatively less concentrated pattern of income distribution (Argentina, Costa Rica, Uruguay and Venezuela), this group's share hovers around 26%, but it dwindles to 20% in countries with a more concentrated urban income distribution (Brazil and Chile, among the countries considered). In the other countries these households' share falls between those percentages (see table I-2). There is a significant contrast between this situation and that of the industrialized countries with higher per capita incomes, in which the share received by the 30% of households in the lower-middle group approaches 32% of national income.⁹

An analysis of trends in the lower-middle group's share of urban income distribution after 1980 shows that, in seven of the eight countries for which information is available, this share decreased or held steady, between the early 1980s and the early 1990s. The exception is Uruguay, where income distribution did not worsen significantly during the 1980s and even showed a less concentrated pattern at the beginning of the 1990s than a decade earlier. In the other countries, the percentage of total income received by this group declined sharply, particularly by the mid-1980s; thereafter, it stagnated or recovered slightly up to 1992. Nevertheless, this recovery was not sufficient to restore income shares to the

levels achieved at the end of the 1970s (see table I-3).

Consequently, in five countries (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, Panama and Venezuela), the average real incomes of lower-middle income households declined sharply between 1980 and 1992 —by between 7% and 27%. In Mexico, however, they increased by nearly 2%, although there was no improvement in these households' share of total income. In all the countries referred to, with the exception of Argentina, the gap between the average income for the group and total household income widened still further. In addition, a number of lower-middle-income households are currently approaching the poverty line. Accordingly, this group is now more vulnerable than in the past two recessions and declining economic growth rates, with the resulting increases in unemployment.

It is particularly interesting to examine the experience of lower-middle-income groups in Argentina, Chile, Mexico and Uruguay, countries which in recent years have mostly exhibited high growth rates and have made substantial progress in reforms. In Argentina, the economic growth achieved during 1990-1992 allowed households in this group to recover a major portion of the real income¹⁰ which they had lost during the past decade. In Mexico, the improvement resulting from growth in the early 1990s was not sufficient to enable these households to regain their earlier

⁹ This figure is an average of the lower-middle group's percentage shares of national income distribution in the following eight countries around 1985: Australia, Canada, France, Italy, Japan, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States. The share received by the next 30% of households after the poorest 40% was estimated on the basis of income distribution data published by the World Bank in *The Challenge of Development. World Development Report, 1991*, New York, Oxford University Press, 1991.

¹⁰ Deflated by the nominal per capita value of the poverty line.



Table I-2
LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): URBAN INCOME DISTRIBUTION
(Around 1992)

	Argentina (1992) a/	Bolivia (1992) b/	Brazil (1990) c/	Chile (1994) c/	Costa Rica (1992) c/	Honduras (1992) c/	Mexico (1992) c/	Panama (1991) c/	Paraguay (1992) d/	Uruguay (1992) e/	Venezuela (1992) c/
	Percentages f/										
Poorest 40 %	15.2	13.0	9.6	13.1	17.0	13.2	16.6	12.9	16.2	21.9	16.4
Next 30%	25.0	21.3	19.3	20.2	27.8	22.2	22.1	24.3	24.8	26.2	26.2
20% below richest 10%	28.2	25.7	29.4	25.7	28.3	29.2	26.5	28.6	29.8	26.0	29.3
Richest 10%	31.6	40.0	41.7	41.0	26.9	35.4	34.8	34.2	29.2	25.9	28.1

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from ongoing household surveys in the countries. For Mexico, the data are taken from the national household income and expenditure survey.

a/ Greater Buenos Aires metropolitan area.

b/ Eight departmental capitals and El Alto. The city of Cobija was not included.

c/ Urban total.

d/ Asunción metropolitan area.

e/ Montevideo and urban interior.

f/ Refers to the income distribution share of urban households classified by per capita income.

Table I-3

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): URBAN INCOME DISTRIBUTION a/

Country	Year	Poorest 40%	Next 30%	20 % below richest 10 %	Richest 10%
Argentina b/	1980	18.0	25.6	26.6	29.8
	1986	16.2	24.1	25.2	34.5
	1992	15.2	25.0	28.2	31.6
Brazil	1979	11.7	20.7	28.5	39.1
	1987	9.7	18.1	27.9	44.3
	1990	9.6	19.3	29.4	41.7
Chile c/	1987	12.6	20.6	27.3	39.6
	1990	13.4	21.2	26.2	39.2
	1992	13.6	20.7	25.2	40.5
	1994	13.3	20.5	25.9	40.3
Costa Rica	1981	18.9	28.1	29.8	23.2
	1988	17.2	26.7	28.5	27.6
	1992	17.0	27.8	28.3	26.9
Mexico d/	1984	20.1	27.1	27.0	25.8
	1989	16.2	22.0	24.8	36.9
	1992	16.6	22.1	26.5	34.8
Panama	1979	15.5	25.4	30.0	29.1
	1986	14.2	25.2	27.6	33.0
	1991	13.3	24.3	28.2	34.2
Uruguay	1981	17.7	24.5	26.6	31.2
	1986	17.3	23.1	27.2	32.4
	1992	21.9	26.2	26.0	25.9
Venezuela	1981	20.2	28.5	29.5	21.8
	1986	16.3	26.0	28.8	28.9
	1992	16.4	26.2	29.3	28.1

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

a/ Refers to the income distribution share of urban households classified by per capita income.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires metropolitan area.

c/ Special tabulations of data from national socio-economic surveys conducted in 1987, 1990, 1992 and 1994.

d/ Special tabulations of data from national household income and expenditure surveys.



share of urban income, although their purchasing power increased relative to 1984. In Uruguay, on the other hand, growth was of relatively greater benefit to middle-income groups, including those at the lower-middle-income level; these groups not only managed to regain their 1980 income share, but to exceed it, as their income improved significantly (26%) between 1986 and 1992.

It is also instructive to review what has happened to the well-being and urban income share of lower-middle-income households in Chile, which has exhibited very high growth rates since the mid-1980s. There, average incomes in this group grew by around the same proportion as overall household income (approximately 20%), so that between 1987 and 1992, the lower-middle-income share of urban income did not improve, but remained at around one fifth of total income (except in 1990, when it showed a slight, temporary increase). Nevertheless, these households made significant gains in well-being, as measured in terms of the poverty line. The most recent figures indicate that the income share of lower-middle-income urban households remained virtually static between 1992 and 1994, but that their incomes continued to improve in real terms, with an average increase of 15% over the period. Nevertheless, for the period 1990-1994, the income percentage received by this group appears to have decreased slightly (see table I-4).

In short, in some of the region's countries, the lower-middle-income urban group had developed protective mechanisms enabling it to survive adverse economic conditions, and had partially begun to share in the benefits of growth. In

most cases, however, this group suffered a notable setback in its share of income distribution from 1980 onward, so that, in six of the eight countries considered, it experienced significant real income losses. Thus, not only did the households in this group have to defer their expectations of increased consumption levels, but in some cases, their incomes have tended to approach the poverty line.

If the dominant type of employment among the lower-middle-income labour force is looked at, it can be seen that there are a number of policies that are closely linked to income trends at this level. Of the total lower-middle-income population employed in the urban areas of Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico, Uruguay and Venezuela, 70%-75% are wage-earners, and 55%-65%, including public-sector wage-earners, are employed in the formal sector of the economy, the traditional base of trade-union movements. Therefore, this group's opportunities for improving its income and income distribution share depend largely on the dissemination of technological progress among the sectors and enterprises in which it is employed, and on its capacity for turning productivity increases into income.

Currently, the most important policies, whether proposed or implemented, that are directed towards this group's income and productivity are aimed at promoting flexibility in labour-force participation, so that employment and household income can be increased, although it is recognized that such measures could lead initially to a drop in wages. Mention should also be made of new regulations which, in a different context, are designed to give trade-union organizations more power in wage agreements in order to restore

Table I-4

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): SHARE OF TOTAL INCOME ^{a/} AND AVERAGE INCOME OF LOWER-MIDDLE-INCOME URBAN HOUSEHOLDS (41ST TO 70TH PERCENTILES)

Country	Year	Share of total income (percentages)	Minimum income level	Maximum income level	Average income level	Ratio between the average income level and total average income	Total average income
			In terms of the per capita value of the poverty line (PL)			(percentages)	In terms of PL
ARGENTINA b/	1980	25.6	2.59	4.58	3.49	76.5	4.56
	1986	24.1	2.21	3.94	3.02	70.2	4.30
	1992	25.0	2.27	4.46	3.25	70.3	4.62
BRAZIL c/	1979	20.7	1.28	2.83	1.99	59.8	3.21
	1987	18.1	1.10	2.62	1.72	50.1	3.43
	1990	19.3	1.05	2.63	1.70	53.8	3.16
CHILE c/	1987	20.6	1.05	2.22	1.54	62.9	2.45
	1990	21.2	1.14	2.29	1.63	66.4	2.46
	1992	20.7	1.33	2.62	1.88	64.4	2.92
	1994	20.5	1.51	3.07	2.16	62.4	3.46
COSTA RICA c/	1981	28.1	1.81	3.31	2.45	83.1	2.95
	1988	26.7	1.48	2.71	2.00	77.8	2.57
	1992	27.8	1.42	2.69	1.99	79.9	2.49
MEXICO c/	1984	27.1	1.29	2.35	1.78	76.4	2.33
	1989	22.0	1.12	2.16	1.56	61.4	2.54
	1992	22.1	1.27	2.54	1.81	66.1	2.74
PANAMA c/	1979	25.4	1.30	2.83	1.99	75.1	2.65
	1986	25.2	1.34	2.91	2.02	69.9	2.89
	1991	24.3	1.18	2.70	1.83	67.3	2.72
URUGUAY d/	1981	24.5	2.26	4.03	3.03	77.5	3.91
	1986	23.1	1.85	3.24	2.46	70.3	3.50
	1992	26.2	2.38	3.98	3.10	83.1	3.73
VENEZUELA c/	1981	28.5	1.72	3.18	2.33	80.3	2.90
	1986	26.0	1.29	2.57	1.82	72.1	2.53
	1992	26.2	1.21	2.33	1.69	73.3	2.30

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from ongoing household surveys in the countries. For Mexico, the data are taken from the national households income and expenditure survey.

a/ Refers to the income distribution share of urban households classified by per capita income.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires metropolitan area.

c/ Urban total.

d/ Montevideo and urban interior.



wage-earners' negotiating position. As regards productivity, it is worthwhile to note the policies designed to bring small and medium-sized enterprises and

micro-enterprises into the more dynamic sectors of the economy, and those that link public sector-wage increases to heightened efficiency and macroeconomic policies.

ADVANTAGES OF EARLY INVESTMENT IN EDUCATION AND SOCIO- ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS OF CHILD LABOUR

Introduction

- A. Advantages of early investment
in education***
- B. Educational and socio-economic
implications of child and
adolescent labour***



Introduction

This chapter examines the potential benefits of timely investment in more and better education to the students themselves, to companies and to society at large. It also presents data on some of the high social, economic and opportunity costs of child and adolescent labour, beginning with the lower educational attainment of working children and young people.

Both sets of evidence offer convincing conclusions on which to base policies and programmes. Investment in education for children, adolescents and young people is shown to be so profitable for themselves, their families, society and the economy that it offers a compelling reason for allowing them to devote full time to their studies for at least 10 years of schooling and preferably until they complete their full secondary education (12 years).¹¹

Particularly noteworthy is the high economic return on the extra investment required to put children or adolescents through three additional years of primary or secondary school. At current pay levels, without discounting for the possibility that a lower premium might be put on education as it becomes more widespread, greater

productivity will enable these individuals to earn over six times the cost of giving them the additional education.

Moreover, giving adolescents four years of secondary education is a much better investment than attempting to provide the equivalent through compensatory programmes for adults at a cost 1.5 to 5 times higher.

Companies also benefit from substantially lower training costs when the workers they must train have three more years of basic education. Excluding countries in which nearly 100% of the population has a primary school education and the saving in training costs would thus be zero, for the remaining countries the saving varies from 25% to 50% of the costs of initial training.

Furthermore, while a sizeable proportion of children and adolescents in the region are currently neither studying nor working, so that early entrance into the labour force is not the only or even the chief reason for dropping out of school, it is none the less a significant factor limiting the acquisition of educational capital. In most urban areas, three out of every four working individuals aged 13 to 17 are not

¹¹ Arguments to this effect were developed in the 1994 edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* (pp. 101-105), which states that "in the region's urban areas, 10 or more years of schooling —and, in most cases, completion of secondary school— are a prerequisite for opening up major opportunities for achieving well-being, which translate into a probability of avoiding poverty that exceeds 80%".



studying. In rural areas, where the proportion of adolescents working is much higher, only 15% or fewer are still studying.

The proportion of children and adolescents¹² who are working is substantial in many of the countries, varying between 6% and 32% in urban areas and between 15% and 55% in rural areas (see annex, table 15).

The most direct consequences on the well-being of children and adolescents and their households support the conclusion that on balance the impact of child labour is clearly negative. It turns out to be unprofitable not only for the individuals themselves and the families they form in the future, but also for companies and for society at large, as previously mentioned.

Those who work between 13 and 17 years of age:

- **accumulate a significant deficit in terms of years of education compared to those who do not work**; specifically, they lose 2 or more years of schooling compared to those who enter the work force at age 18 or older;
- and as a result **earn roughly 20% less income** during their adult working life;
- **expend an enormous amount of energy**; those who only work, put in an average work week of 46 hours;

those who also study still put in an average of 35 hours of work per week. This effort considerably increases their nutritional needs and when those needs are not satisfied jeopardizes their health;

- **earn extremely low wages**, generally only half of the monthly pay of a wage-earning adult with 7 years of education; and
- although the income they contribute from their adolescent labour **raises many of their households above the line of poverty or indigence, the impact on total poor or indigent households is insignificant**, reducing overall levels by only 0.5 to 1.5 percentage points.

There are other negative effects, including the intergenerational impact. As a result of the low level of education attained by working adolescents, they tend as adults to have larger families despite their reduced earning capacity, and this combination significantly increases the probability that they will fall below the poverty line and that the households they form will have a low educational environment, so that the educational level attained by the next generation will also be low.¹³

Furthermore, qualitative analyses of child and adolescent labour reveal that it

¹² While it would be of interest to study child and adolescent labour among those aged 10 to 12 in addition to those aged 13 to 17, for reasons of availability and reliability of data it seemed advisable to consider only the latter age group. The data provides in any event a good approximation of the situation of working children (aged 13 and 14) and adolescents (aged 15 to 17); the two groups have been considered together in order to obtain a sufficient sample to break down for analysis.

¹³ The percentage of children from 7 to 14 years of age who are behind in their studies is 23% in urban households in the top income quartile and a medium educational climate (an average of 6 to 9.99 years of schooling among the adults in the household) and nearly doubles (42%) for households in the same income quartile but with a low educational climate (average of less than 6 years of schooling among the adults) (**Social Panorama of Latin America**, 1994 edition).

ADVANTAGE OF EARLY INVESTMENT ...

involves primarily non-formative activities, generally carried out under exploitive conditions that are often aggravated by the illicit nature of the activities.

The gravity of this situation has motivated a search for solutions to the child

and adolescent labour problem, as expressed, for example, in the following minimum proposal by age groups developed by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)¹⁴ in connection with the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

AGE GROUP	PROPOSAL	STRATEGY
0-12 years	Eradication of child labour	Education policy Restore the central role of the school as the primary place for building citizenship Family support programmes for income generation
13-14 years	Occupational training and work as an apprentice The learning aspect should predominate over the work aspect	Occupational training policies Adaptation and understanding of the labour market
15-17 years	Transition to full working status, with an emphasis on legal protection	Policies involving coordination with labour unions, employers and labour ministries

This is merely a minimum proposal, for as we have seen, it is appropriate and highly beneficial for children and adolescents to devote themselves exclusively to study at least up to the age of 15 and preferably to and including the age of 17.

With reference to policy feasibility, finally, it is not only useful and necessary, given the high opportunity costs, but also

possible to reduce and even eliminate child and adolescent labour through programmes that target disadvantaged groups. The challenge requires manageable amounts of resources; while it would be necessary to compensate for the income they contribute to their households, the impact on current overall levels of poverty and indigence that would result from the loss of that contribution is insignificant.

¹⁴ United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), "Informe final. Reunión de Puntos Focales. Área Derechos del Niño", Paipa, Colombia, 6-9 December 1993.



A. ADVANTAGES OF EARLY INVESTMENT IN EDUCATION

1. The high return on investment in more and better education

The pay increment received by wage-earning adults as a result of three additional years of primary or secondary education is six to eight times the monthly amount that would be required to repay in 10 years the cost of obtaining that additional education.

If the investment required to provide each student with three additional years of primary or secondary education were treated as a loan to be repaid over the course of 10 years, the monthly repayment amount would range from US\$ 3 to US\$ 19 per month.

At current pay levels, urban wage-earners aged 35 to 54 earn between US\$ 24 and US\$ 72 more per month for having three additional years of primary education, and between US\$ 42 and US\$ 132 more per month for having three additional years of secondary education.¹⁵

These pay increments reflect to a great extent the increased productivity resulting from a higher level of education, and on average they equal from six to eight times the monthly amount it would take to repay in 10 years the cost of the extra education. Assuming a five-year payback period, the monthly amount would vary from US\$ 5 to US\$ 28. Even so, the pay increments are still high enough to equal from four to six times the monthly repayment.

In the case of primary education, the monthly amounts required to recoup the educational investment within a period of 10 years range from US\$ 3 to US\$ 13, depending on the country. In contrast, the monthly pay of urban adults increases by US\$ 24 to US\$ 72 if they have 6 years of schooling rather than 3, or 8 rather than 5.

In the case of secondary education, the monthly repayment ranges from US\$ 3 to US\$ 19, while actual monthly pay increases by US\$ 42 to US\$ 78 for those with 9 years of education rather than 6.

¹⁵ These calculations do not take into account the potential devaluation of education resulting from a significant increase in the general educational level of the work force.



A full secondary education (12 years of schooling) brings even greater rewards, as is evident from a comparison of the pay of urban adults who have completed their secondary education with the pay of those who have only nine years of schooling. The increments generally range from US\$ 78 to US\$ 132 per month, in other words, nine to ten times the amount it would take to pay back in 10 years the educational investment entailed.

The following chart shows the estimated cost per student for three additional years of primary education and for three additional years of secondary education and compares them with the monthly amounts, expressed in dollars, that would be needed to pay back that additional cost over 10 years.

The cost per student for three years of primary or secondary education is equal to three times the amount of public expenditure per student at each level, plus interest at a real rate of 10% per annum on the outstanding balance in order to allow for the time value of money.

On the other hand, while these amounts give a rough idea of what would be required to provide three more years of education per student, they could also be used to improve the quality of the education or to carry out programmes aimed at both aspects.

Moreover, the fact that the actual increments in income resulting from a higher level of education are so many times higher than the amounts required to pay back the extra cost over 10 years suggests the following conclusions:

- @INDENTADO = a) It is so profitable to invest in more and better education that in most countries it should be possible to recoup the investment rapidly; and
- b) Even if improving the quality of education were to entail spending, let us say, twice the amounts assumed for purposes of the above analysis, the expenditure would still constitute a good investment in economic terms.

Furthermore, the return on this investment would not be limited to increased productivity as expressed in pay increments, but would also provide important benefits deriving from improvement in the nutritional, sanitary and reproductive conditions of individuals. Even those who do not enter the work force, those who devote themselves to household duties, for example, would benefit by acquiring a greater capacity to manage the finances of their household more efficiently, handle nutrition and health problems more effectively and encourage the development of their small children, to name just a few important considerations.

**COST OF THREE ADDITIONAL YEARS OF EDUCATION
AND MONTHLY PAYBACK REQUIRED**

(In dollars)

Country	Additional cost of primary education per student ^a (A)	Additional cost of secondary education per student ^a (B)	Monthly payback over 10 years (A) ^b	Monthly payback over 10 years (B) ^b
Argentina	470	1,270	6	17
Bolivia	400	230	5	3
Brazil	775	900	10	12
Chile	580	890	8	12
Colombia	300	470	4	6
Costa Rica	600	1,560	8	19
Ecuador	...	360	...	5
Guatemala	220	...	3	...
Honduras	370	...	5	...
Mexico	540	950	7	14
Panama	1,000	1,100	13	15
Peru	330	690	5	9

Source: ECLAC/UNICEF, "Inversión en infancia: evidencias y argumentos para el aumento del gasto en ese sector", Santiago, Chile (to be published).

^a Based on public expenditure on education per student in 1990. Additional cost equal to three times annual expenditure per student plus compound interest at a real rate of 10% per annum.

^b Computed by applying a compound interest rate of 10% per annum to the outstanding balance.



2. The advantages of investing early

Compensatory adult education programmes cost from 1.5 to 5 times the cost of providing four years of secondary education; this difference underlines the advantages of early investment in education.

One means of making up for inadequate basic schooling is through compensatory adult education programmes. Some of these programmes are designed to allow individuals over 18 years of age to overcome their educational deficiencies by attaining a level approximately equal to that of a secondary school graduate. They emphasize the knowledge and skills needed for the more common jobs and do not generally include subjects and activities oriented towards personal development. Individuals who have not completed their secondary education thus have an opportunity to acquire the skills and knowledge ordinary jobs require. The problem is that the cost entailed in providing compensatory programmes is considerably higher than the cost of providing the regular courses that constitute four years of secondary education.

As the following table shows, compensatory programmes for adults cost from 1.5 to 5 times, and in most cases 2 or 3 times, the cost of four years of regular secondary education.

Early investment in education, that is, investment at the normal age, is more beneficial from the economic standpoint and offers greater side benefits. Among the most important of these side benefits are the following: it aids the cultural and social development of the young people; it complements initiatives taken in other spheres, such as health and sex education; it improves the educational environment and socialization capacity of the household; and it provides better intellectual preparation for those who may wish to go on to higher education.

The above analysis, while it points up the advantages of investing in education at the normal age, does not support the conclusion that compensatory programmes should be abandoned altogether. These are not interchangeable strategies; they are directed at contemporary populations of different ages and seek to fulfil different needs and demands. The need to educate those already in the work force cannot be resolved by improving formal education.

In any event, what these figures suggest is that it is advisable to implement policies

**PRESENT VALUE OF COMPENSATORY PROGRAMMES FOR ADULTS
EQUIVALENT TO A SECONDARY EDUCATION COMPARED WITH
PRESENT VALUE OF FOUR YEARS OF REGULAR
SECONDARY EDUCATION**

(In dollars)

Country	Compensatory programme (20 months) (A)	Four years of secondary education (B)	A divided by B
Argentina	2,300	1,100	2.1
Brazil	1,200	790	1.5
Chile	1,700	770	2.2
Colombia	1,400	400	3.5
Ecuador	1,400	320	4.4
Guatemala	650	190	3.4
Honduras	900	320	2.8
Jamaica	1,100	750	1.5
Dominican Republic	1,000	190	5.3

Source: ECLAC/UNICEF, "Inversión en infancia: evidencias y argumentos para el aumento del gasto en ese sector", Santiago, Chile (to be published).

Note: Present value in the case of regular education was estimated by applying a discount rate of 10% per annum to expenditure in 1990. Present value in the case of adult compensatory programmes was estimated on the basis of minimum wages in 1994 using a discount rate of 0.8% per month.

that will stimulate and improve investment in the education of young people at the appropriate ages, since this will reduce the

need at a later stage to resort to corrective measures that are more costly and less effective.



3. Reduction in the cost of initial job training

The costs to companies in a number of industrial sectors of initial worker training would in most cases be reduced by 25% to 50% if basic education were improved quantitatively and/or qualitatively by increasing expenditure by an amount equivalent to the cost of three additional years of primary education. This observation is valid for most countries in the region, with the exception of those in which completion of primary education is already nearly 100%.

The cost of initial job training, calculated for some industrial sectors of a number of countries in the region, would be considerably reduced if primary education were improved in quality and quantity. The following chart shows the estimated cost of

the initial training required in three sectors of activity to enable the worker to reach a productivity level that is average for the company; it also shows the percentage savings on the cost of such training that would result from increasing the allocation of resources for primary school education by enough to pay for three additional years of schooling.¹⁶

The A columns (a, b and c) on the chart show the average cost of initial worker training in three different industries. The B columns (a, b and c) show the percentage companies can save when workers have a higher level of education (approximately three more years).¹⁷

In countries where primary school completion is nearly 100%, savings for companies approach zero. Where the basic educational attainment is lower, however, the savings can be considerable and in many cases equal or exceed half of the initial training costs.

¹⁶ The estimates of the costs of initial training were based on the assumption that during the training period the worker's productivity level is 50% of the average for the company; the estimates do not take into account the costs of wasted raw materials, additional supervision requirements and the like.

¹⁷ Based on domestic and international intercompany comparisons.

ESTIMATED COST OF INITIAL TRAINING NEEDED TO RAISE WORKER
PRODUCTIVITY FROM 80% TO 100% OF THE COMPANY AVERAGE
AND ESTIMATED PERCENTAGE OF SAVINGS DUE TO A HIGHER
LEVEL OF EDUCATION*

Country	Costs of initial training to raise productivity to close to the company average (in dollars) (A)			Estimated percentage of savings on the cost of initial training due to a higher level of education** (B)		
	Sectors			Sectors		
	a	b	c	a	b	c
Argentina	200	600	300	0	0	0
Brazil	188	450	225	48	37	41
Chile	130	390	260	0	0	0
Colombia	120	320	160	31	25	25
Costa Rica	192	516	256	27	26	24
Guatemala	103	246	123	49	40	87
Honduras	136	318	159	50	42	39
Jamaica	100	500	250	50	40	40
Panama	392	980	490	52	37	53
Peru	110	290	160	32	21	80
Dominican Republic	152	363	182	47	27	42

Source: ECLAC/UNICEF, "Inversión en infancia: evidencias y argumentos para el aumento del gasto en ese sector", Santiago, Chile (to be published).

* Elaborated on the basis of 1994 minimum wages, data obtained from surveys of firms (ECLAC/UNDP project RLA/88/039) and projections.

** The higher level of education in question involves three more years per individual, and the cost is based on public expenditure per primary school student in 1990. Mean productivity is estimated at 50% of the company average during the period. Includes only wage costs and does not include costs of equipment, waste of raw materials, supervision and the like.

Note: a Food products, beverages and tobacco.
b Footwear, lumber and wood products, furniture and non-metallic fixtures.
c Pottery, stoneware and porcelain and non-metallic mineral products excluding glass.



The initial training costs per individual are significantly higher in the footwear, lumber, wood products excluding cellulose, furniture and non-metallic fixtures industries (the **b** columns), so that the savings realizable in these sectors are particularly great.

They are industries in which labour-intensive craft techniques predominate, generally requiring a high level of skill and on-the-job training. For this reason, the level of education that workers bring with them to the job makes a considerable difference.

In contrast, in firms that process food products, beverages and tobacco (the **a** columns) or manufacture pottery, china and porcelain and non-metallic mineral products excluding glass (the **c** columns), total initial training costs are half or a third of the costs for the firms in the **b** columns, but the percentage savings on total cost are roughly similar.

While the sectors included in the foregoing chart have low productivity levels compared, for example, to similar industries in the United States, attaining only 10% to 40% of the productivity of the latter,¹⁸ they are highly important because they employ between 40% and 70%, depending on the country, of the industrial work force.

Their low productivity is due primarily to the level of technology they employ. In order to achieve substantial increases in productivity, they need major investments in machinery, tools and organization. When they make such investments, however, workers with little education tend to be excluded because they lack the basic skills required, and as previously observed, programmes designed to provide adults with the skills required to handle new technologies are expensive.

Analysis of the experiences of some industries in Europe and Southeast Asia show that many increases in productivity are due to organizational and process improvements that are generated from within the units of production (endogenous innovations). The development model in these countries fosters innovation, made possible, among other factors, by the high educational level of the work force, which enables workers to function well under a management system that stimulates the creativity of each worker. In firms in the Latin American and Caribbean region, on the other hand, it is often found that the factors that inhibit the generation and implementation of endogenous innovations are rooted in the educational deficiencies of the human resources and the prevailing management style.

¹⁸ ECLAC/UNICEF, "Inversión en infancia: evidencias y argumentos para el aumento del gasto en ese sector", Santiago, Chile (to be published), Annex 1, on the basis of information from UNIDO.

B. EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS OF CHILD AND ADOLESCENT LABOUR

1. Educational opportunity costs associated with working at an early age

Between 13 to 17 years of age, males who work complete 1 to 2 fewer years of education than those who do not work; among females the difference is generally from 0.5 to 1.5 years of schooling.

The lag in educational attainment among those who work between 13 to 17 years of age ranges, with some exceptions, from 1 to 2 years for urban males and from 0.5 to 1.5 years for urban females. Years of schooling completed by those working and those not working were broken down for three socio-economic levels: indigent, non-indigent poor and non-poor (see figures 1 and 2 and annex, table 16).

Years lost represent from 10% to 25% of total years of schooling completed at those ages.

Furthermore, those who suffer these losses between 13 and 17 years of age

end up accumulating an educational deficit of more than 2 years of schooling compared with those who will enter the work force between 18 and 24 years of age.

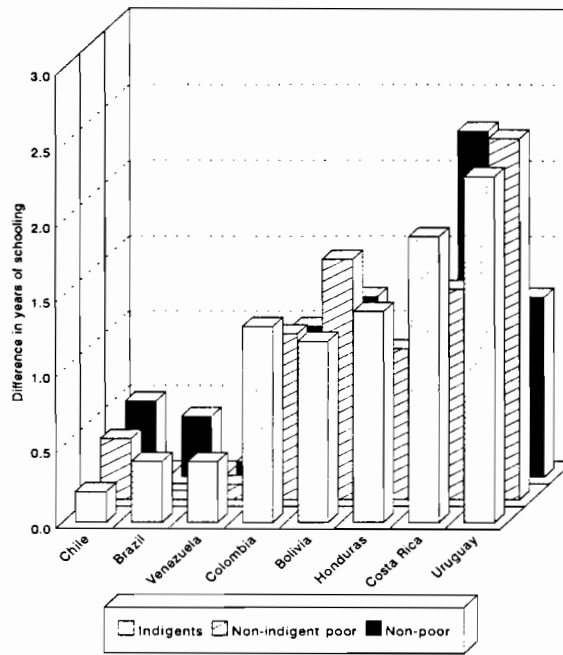
The widest differentials among males are found in Costa Rica (8.1 years of schooling for those who do not work compared to 6.1 years for those who work), Uruguay (where the figures are 9.6 and 7.7, respectively), Bolivia (8.1 and 7.0) and Colombia (7.1 and 6.0).

Among females, the most serious differentials are observable in Uruguay (9.7 and 8.2), Honduras (6.3 and 5.2), Bolivia (8.4 and 7.5) and Costa Rica (7.2 and 6.5).

Overall, it continues to be true that female children and adolescents in general complete a higher level of education than the males, and this is observable both among those who work and among those who do not.

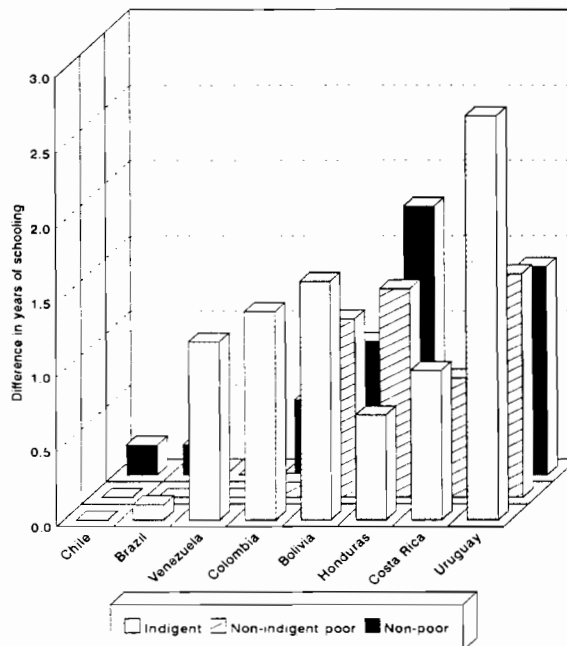


Figure 1
DIFFERENCE IN YEARS OF SCHOOLING BETWEEN WORKING
AND NON-WORKING MALES AGED 13 TO 17
(Urban areas)



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

Figure 2
DIFFERENCE IN YEARS OF SCHOOLING BETWEEN WORKING
AND NON-WORKING FEMALES AGED 13 TO 17
(Urban areas)



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

2. Economic assessment of educational opportunity costs

Two years less education translates into approximately 20% less monthly income for the duration of the working life. Hence, the loss of income that children and adolescents who begin working early will experience during their adult life is from four to six times the income they would forfeit by devoting their entire time to acquiring two additional years of education.

It is possible to estimate the average loss of income that adolescents who work will experience throughout the course of their working life due to their lower educational capital. The procedure is to calculate the differences in the average income of wage-earners¹⁹ from 35 and 54 years of age depending on whether they have 9 years, 7 years or only 5 years of schooling. On the average, the monthly loss of income during the working life can be estimated at around 20% for two fewer years of schooling, based on current pay levels and without correcting for a potential devaluation as

higher levels of schooling become more common (see annex, table 17).

Moreover, since adolescents that enter the work force at an early age on average have a working life of 45 years, it can be predicted that for at least 30 of those working years they will suffer the loss of income calculated above.

Thus, 20% less monthly income for 30 years equals a loss of six years of income. Moreover, the pay received by adolescents who work is generally half of that paid to wage-earning adults (see figure 3 and annex, table 17).

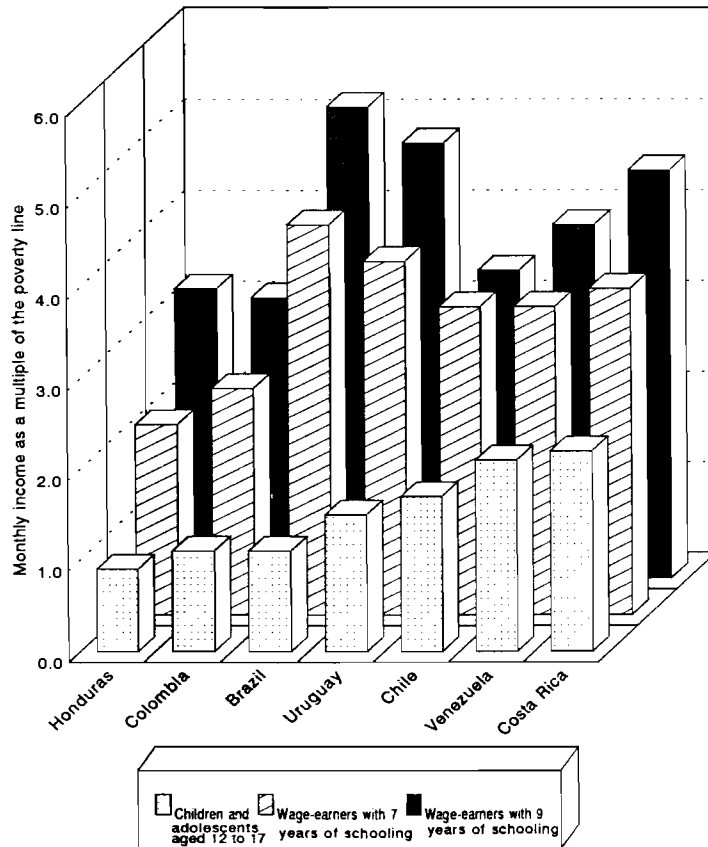
Therefore, the cumulative loss over a working life due to lower educational capital formation during childhood and adolescence is equal to six times the income that would be forfeited by devoting two more years entirely to studying, thereby postponing entry into the labour market.

Or, assuming more conservatively that completing two additional years of education would require three years of exclusive devotion to study and hence three years of delay in entering the labour market, the cumulative loss over the length of a working life would still be four times

¹⁹ Wage-earners, as distinguished from salaried employees, constitute between 70% and 75% of the urban work force in most of the countries of Latin America.



Figure 3
MONTHLY EARNINGS
 (Expressed as a multiple of the per capita poverty line)
 (Urban areas)



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

the amount in income forfeited during those three years.

Of course, even though the families of working children and adolescents might understand what the potential losses are in economic terms, they are often in urgent need of income that they are forced to have their children go to work at an early age.

However, these calculations do not take into account the multiple negative impact an educational deficit can have on the well-being of the future families working adolescents may form. A poor educational

environment in their future households could result, among other things, in larger families, lower earning capacity and lower educational attainment on the part of their children (see **Social Panorama of Latin America**, 1994 Edition, Chapter V).

A fact to bear in mind is that in the urban areas of the region, working children and adolescents currently complete a total of 5 to 7 years of education in the case of males and 5 to 8 years in the case of females, whereas, as earlier stated, in the region it is increasingly necessary to complete 10 or more years of education

ADVANTAGE OF EARLY INVESTMENT ...

and if at all possible the full secondary cycle.

The above-mentioned consequences, together with the impact on the general productivity of each economy, are sufficient reasons to justify programmes targeted at the most disadvantaged groups and designed to compensate households that need to have their adolescent children

enter the work force early for the income they forfeit in allowing these adolescents to remain in the educational system and acquire two or more years of additional education. Such programmes should include careful monitoring to encourage the investment in education and to record the results achieved.



3. Impact on households of the income contributed by working children and adolescents

While working at an early age reduces the level of education they attain, the income contributed by working children and adolescents is none the less of great significance to the households in which they live. Without their earnings, the incidence of poverty in these households would rise 10% to 20% and the incidence of indigence 5% to 15%. The impact on the total number of households classified as poor and indigent, however, would be minor.

If urban households with working children and adolescents had to manage without their earnings, the incidence of poverty would rise by between 10% and 20%, a jump of 25% to 100%, within the subgroup formed by the households with children and adolescents already in the work force. Similarly, indigence would be 5% to 15% more prevalent, a relative

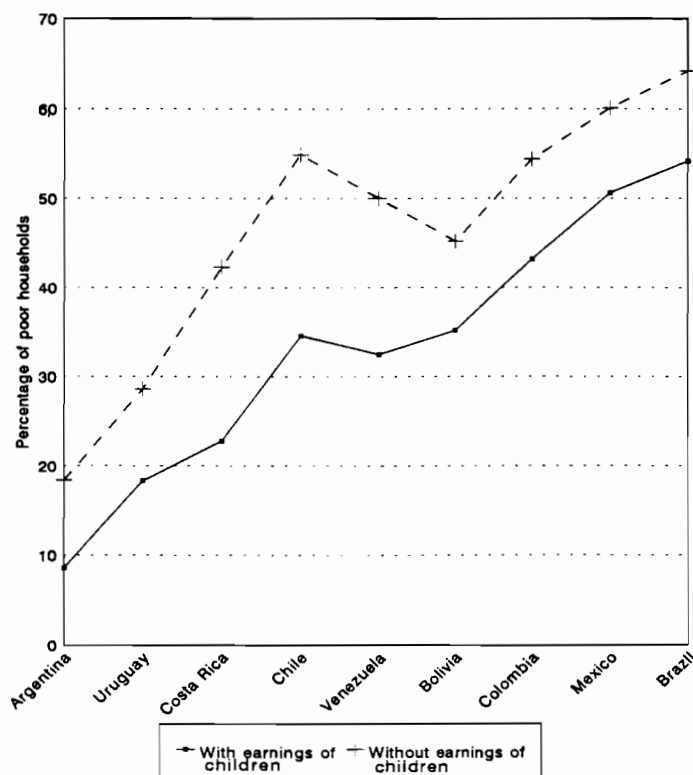
increase of 50% to 200%, within the same subgroup (see annex, table 18 and figures 4 and 5).

The impact on overall levels of urban poverty and indigence, however, would be less spectacular. If the income earned by children and adolescents were subtracted for all households, overall percentages of urban poverty and indigence would rise by only 0.5% to 1.5%, a relative increase of 3% to 10% (see annex, table 20).

This outcome is due to the fact that out of total poor households there are a significant number with children too young to be included in this analysis of child labour and others where there are no children. Moreover, among the households with children that fall within the age group studied, child and adolescent labour, while widespread enough to cause concern in many countries of the region, is not a generalized phenomenon.

Bear in mind that in urban areas households with working children and adolescents 13 to 17 years of age account for between 3% and 17% of total households, depending on the country, and

Figure 4
**HOUSEHOLDS WITH WORKING CHILDREN AND
ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17: INCIDENCE OF
POVERTY WITH AND WITHOUT THEIR EARNINGS**
(Urban areas)



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

that between 6% and 32% of children and adolescents 13 to 17 years of age work.²⁰

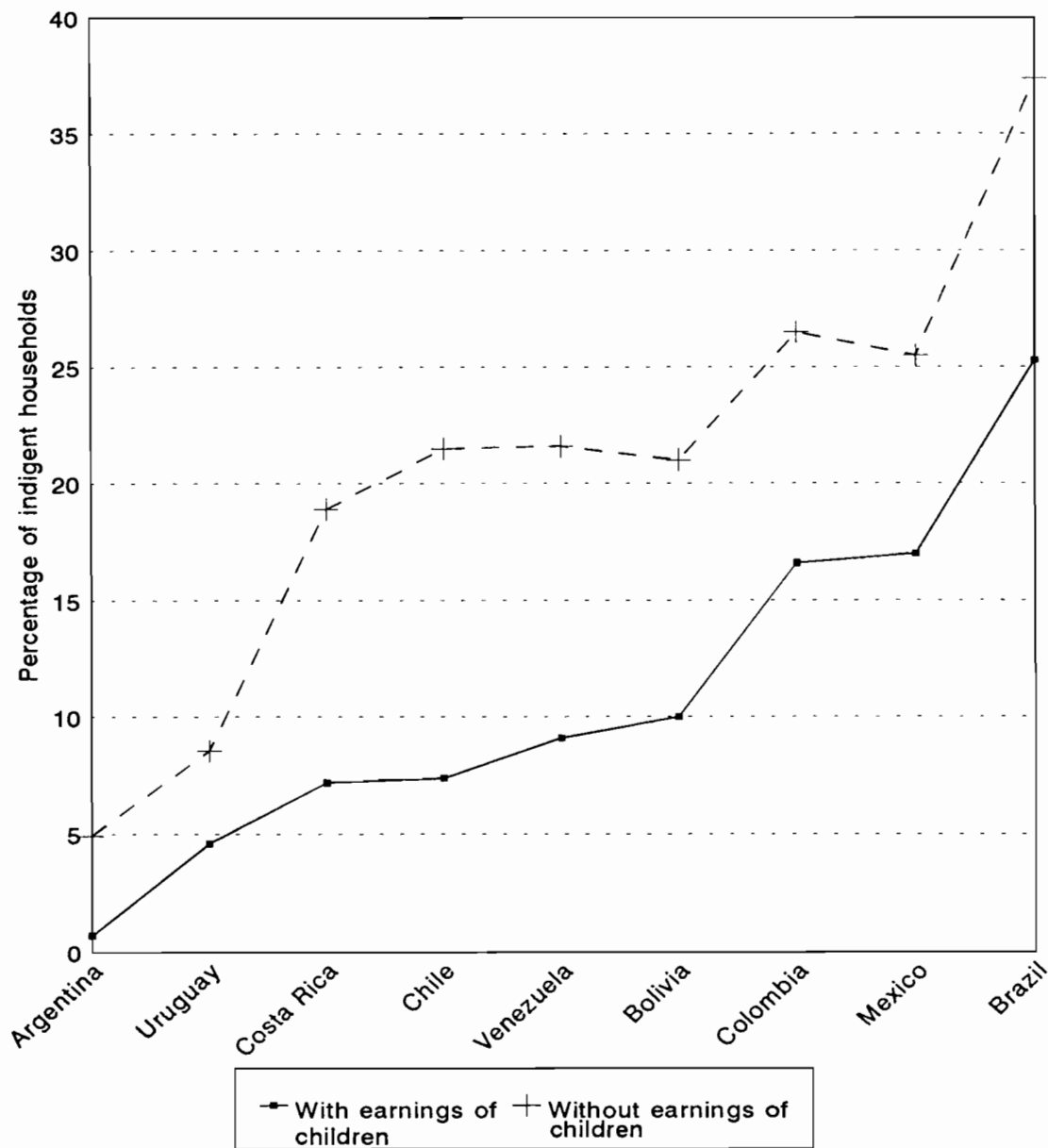
Therefore, the low impact of child and adolescent labour on overall levels of indigence and poverty on the one hand and its heavy impact on the specific category of households with working children and

adolescents on the other constitute a dual justification for setting in motion programmes to alleviate the immediate needs of such households in order to postpone the entry of the young people into the work force, thereby allowing them the time to accumulate more educational capital.

²⁰ Households with children and adolescents 13 to 17 years of age, working or otherwise, represent between 25% and 50% of total households. If such households had to manage without the earnings of their adolescent children, the incidence of poverty among them would increase by 2% to 5%, indigence by 1% to 4% (see annex, table 19).



Figure 5
HOUSEHOLDS WITH WORKING CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17: INCIDENCE OF INDIGENCE WITH AND WITHOUT THEIR EARNINGS
(Urban areas)



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

4. The energy expended by those who work

Children and adolescents who work and study at the same time expend an enormous amount of energy, since on average they work 35 hours a week in addition to keeping up with their studies. The energy expended by those who only work is also great, since they generally work around 46 hours a week.

The region's working children and adolescents, both urban and rural, are expending enormous amounts of energy, as evidenced by the long hours they work.

Those who drop out of school, three quarters of the group in urban areas, work around 46 hours a week in the case of males and nearly 48 hours in the case of females, calculating a simple average of the figures for 10 countries of the region (see annex, table 22).

Those that stay in school, in addition to the time they spend attending class and doing school homework, work on average

35 hours a week, with extremes of 24 and 44 hours, according to data from the 10 countries that record such information.

Argentina, Colombia and Uruguay are the countries in which those who study work the least: between 24 and 32 hours. The countries in which students work the longest hours are Bolivia, Brazil, Honduras and Venezuela: between 38 and 44 hours a week.

The average work week for urban adolescents who only work and do not study varies from 41 to 56 hours. The countries in which they work the fewest hours, from 41 to 44 hours per week, are Argentina, Uruguay and Venezuela; in Bolivia, Chile and Honduras their work week is from 48 to 56 hours.

There is some gender differential in the number of hours worked by adolescents, but the difference is no more than two hours a week in half of the urban comparisons and in two thirds of the rural comparisons. In the remaining instances, females worked somewhat longer than males in urban areas and somewhat shorter hours in rural areas (see annex, table 22).



5. Pay received and value assigned to the work of children and adolescents

The pay earned by children and adolescents for their work is so low that in most countries it is only half that earned by wage-earners aged 35 to 54 of little education (7 years of schooling).

The monthly pay received by children and adolescents in urban areas is roughly one half the wages of adults aged 35 to 54 with 7 years of schooling (see annex, table 17, column b, and figure 3) and is generally from 1 to 2 times the per capita poverty line, the simple average for 10 countries being 1.7 times the poverty line (PL)²¹ (see annex, table 23).

Breaking down the data by the per capita income quartile of the households in which working children and adolescents live, one finds that their monthly earnings equal 1.2 times, 1.6 times, 2.0 times and 2.5 times the poverty line for quartiles 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively (see annex, table 23).

This means that children and adolescents from households in the first quartile on

average earn enough from their work only to cover the cost of their own needs, while those in the second quartile cover roughly their own needs and half of those of another member of the household. Working children and adolescents in the third and fourth quartiles, on the other hand, contribute enough income to cover not only their own needs, but those of at least one other member of the household as well.

This positive correlation between the level of pay received and the income quartile in which the household falls is the result of at least two types of interactions:

- i) Households in the higher quartiles generally offer their children and adolescents a higher level of education and more and better social contacts, factors which enable them to find better-paying jobs; and
- ii) The higher income contributed by such adolescents can push their households into a higher quartile.

In any case, it can be demonstrated that differences in earnings between adolescents from households in different

²¹ By way of reference, bear in mind that in the countries of the region the per capita poverty line is generally US\$ 60 to US\$ 80 for urban areas and US\$ 40 to US\$ 53 for rural areas.

quartiles are due primarily to differences in the socio-economic valuation of their work.

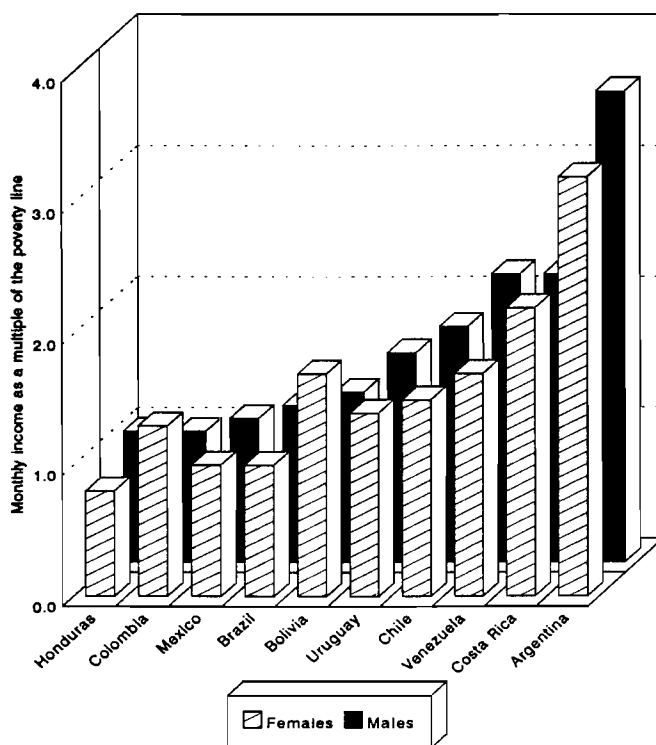
It should be noted that while the average number of hours worked varies somewhat between quartiles, the hour differentials are not a determining factor in the total amount of monthly income earned, even after a distinction is made between those who are studying in addition to working and those who are not (see annex, table 21).

The socio-economic valuation of work as measured by the Monthly Labour Income Capacity Equivalent,²² on the other

hand, is clearly determinant and coincides to a great extent with levels of real income earned (see annex, table 25).

In addition, a breakdown by gender shows that in six of the 10 countries for which information is available for the urban sector, males generally earn 20% more than females. In rural areas, the earnings differential in favour of males is even greater; in five of the six countries for which such data is available, their pay is between 20% and 60% higher (see annex, table 24 and figure 6).

Figure 6
AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOME EARNED BY WORKING
CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17
(Urban areas)



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

²² The Monthly Labour Income Capacity Equivalent ("CEMIT") is an indicator of the socio-economic valuation of labour; it expresses the income earned for 44 hours of work per week as a multiple of the per capita poverty line.



GENDER, POVERTY AND PARTICIPATION: RECENT TRENDS

Introduction

- A. Women's labour force participation and contribution to family income***
- B. Female-headed households and poverty***
- C. Gender and poverty***
- D. Women's participation in economic activity***
- E. Recent trends in male and female employment in urban areas***
- F. Changes in income disparities***



Introduction

The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) have joined forces in preparing an analysis of some of the most important economic and social dimensions of the situation of Latin American women for inclusion in the 1995 edition of the **Social Panorama of Latin America**.

The new patterns formed by the increasing participation of Latin American women in the labour force and in decision-making processes constitute a phenomenon with profound social, economic and cultural significance, which is gaining increasing attention in the sphere of national and international policy. The Fourth World Conference on Women recently held in Beijing demonstrated, however, that the topic is a complex one, revealing both similarities and profound differences between regions and countries.

The purpose of examining key aspects of the dimension of gender in this edition of the **Social Panorama** is to provide information of potential use in formulating and implementing policy in this area. In gathering quantitative data and developing indicators, priority was given to demographics, employment and household well-being, areas that reflect the new roles that Latin American women are assuming in changing economic and social patterns and the consequences of these

developments. Specifically, data has been assembled that reveal changes in the make-up and status of families and the functions that women at different socio-economic levels perform within their families, with special attention to their increasing labour force participation and the contribution this makes to the well-being of their households.

In so far as possible, an effort has been made to use indicators that present a broad picture showing how women's economic activities are linked with changes in the economy as a whole, the poverty in which many households live and their demographic characteristics, with special emphasis on households headed by women. Particular attention has been paid to the aspect of equity, and data has been compiled to point up the progress already achieved and the challenges that lie ahead in meeting women's demands in this area.

The present chapter takes up the topics identified as high-priority by the World Summit for Social Development: poverty, employment and social integration. It also gives consideration to the themes stressed in the Regional Programme of Action for the Women of Latin America and the Caribbean, 1995-2001, the core objective of which is to expedite the achievement of gender equity and the complete integration of women into the development process, together with the full exercise of



citizenship in the framework of sustainable development with social justice and democracy.

The first three sections of the chapter analyze the economic contribution that women make to the household and some of the main findings of recent studies on female-headed households, namely, the predominance of households headed by women among poor households and the existence of a gender bias in the causation and perpetuation of poverty.

The next sections examine women's participation in the labour force, focussing on the impact of two of the chief determining factors: the number and age of a woman's children, her own stage of life, and her level of education.

Finally, data is presented on the trends in income disparities between men and women in urban areas of the countries of the region.

A. WOMEN'S LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AND CONTRIBUTION TO FAMILY INCOME

In households in which both spouses are gainfully employed, the woman brings in approximately 30% of household income. This significant and increasing contribution is critical in raising many households above the poverty line and in alleviating want in some of the poorest households. The percentage is, of course, much higher for households headed by a woman.

Thanks to their increasing participation in the labour force, women's contribution to household income has reached significant levels and continues to grow in nearly all the countries of the region. The tendency is particularly striking in the case of women who are spouses,²³ notwithstanding the greater difficulties they face in managing both their domestic responsibilities and income-generating

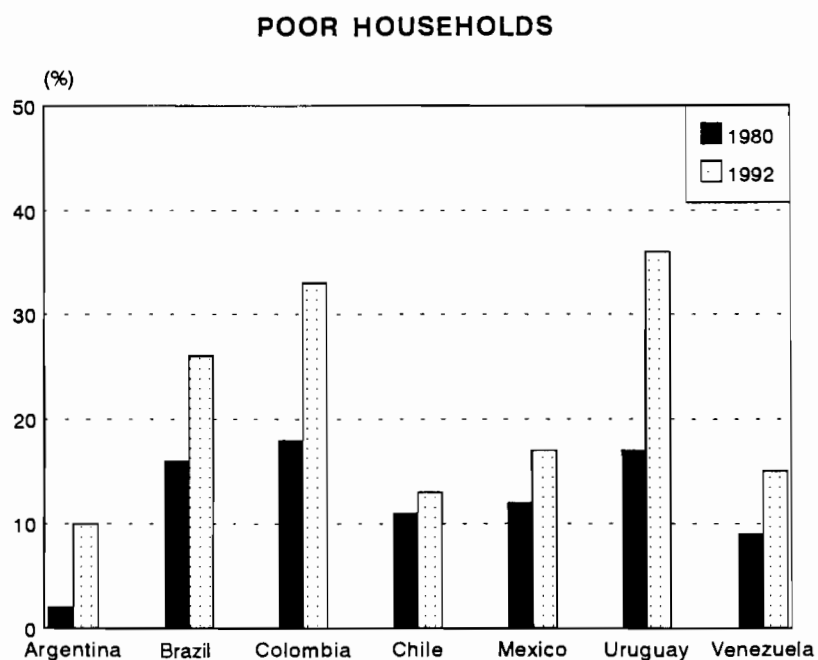
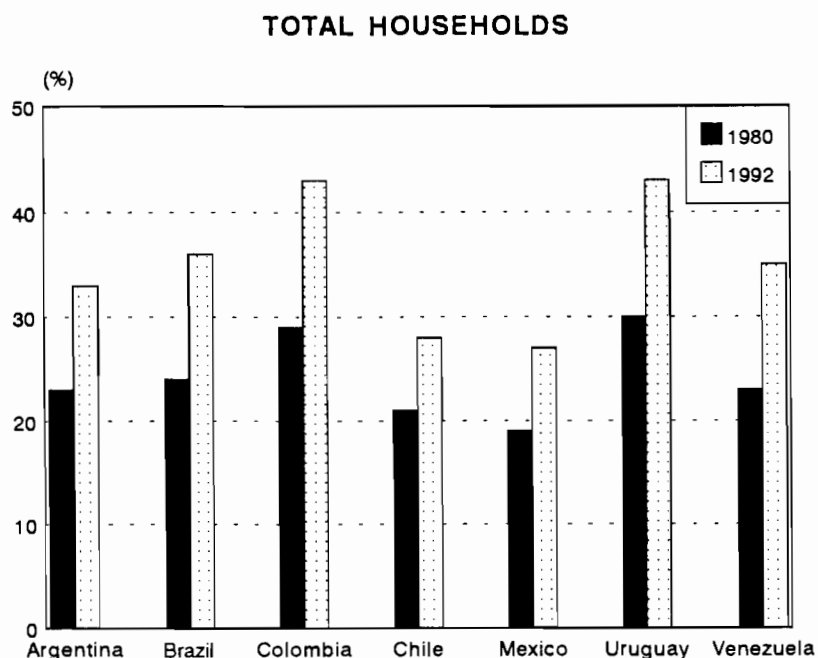
activities, performed inside or outside the home. Because of their earnings, poverty indexes in urban areas are much lower than they would otherwise be if these women were not gainfully employed.

In most of the countries, the proportion of households in which both spouses were gainfully employed increased between the end of the 1970s and the start of the 1990s (see annex, table 26). It is significant that this increase is observable among all households, even among poor households, where the educational levels of women are lower and their opportunities of finding gainful employment are fewer. The percentage of households in which both spouses are economically active ranges from 27% to 43% of total two-parent households in urban areas. The proportion is lower in poor households (from 10% to 36%), which may be attributable to the fact that women in poor households typically have greater domestic responsibilities, particularly in the area of child care, and fewer facilities on which they can draw to

²³ For purposes of this chapter the term "spouse" refers not only to married women, but also to women living in a consensual union of any kind.



Figure 7
**PERCENTAGE OF URBAN HOUSEHOLDS WITH
 BOTH SPOUSES ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE**



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

assist them in domestic tasks. Other contributing factors are their more limited opportunities for finding gainful employment and the lower wages they can earn.

Although women who are part of a couple are relatively less apt to be gainfully employed than women who are single or heads of household, their economic contribution as a group is very important. Within the past decade, women's contribution to family income has tended upwards, and the figures for the last few years show that the trend is continuing. **In the countries of the region, approximately 30% of household income in urban households in which both spouses are employed now comes from the woman's earnings.** It is highly significant that on average in one out of three urban households with a male head of household in which both spouses are employed, the woman's contribution is similar to the man's and represents from 40% to 60% of combined household income (see annex, table 27).

To reiterate, the spouse's contribution to family income has made poverty indexes much lower than they would have been without those earnings. If the income contributed to the household by spouses

were eliminated, urban poverty levels would rise by 2% to 7%, representing a 10% to 20% increase in the incidence of poverty. It has also been found that if the income contributed by all the economically active women living in the household (spouses or otherwise) were eliminated, poverty indexes would rise in most of the countries by 10% to 19%. **Thus, one can conclude that in Latin America the economic contribution of women to family income enables a large percentage of households to maintain themselves above the poverty line** (see annex, table 28).

In order to assess the impact of women's increasing labour force participation on income levels, the family income of poor households was recalculated on the hypothesis that spouses now economically inactive would obtain gainful employment bringing them an income similar to that currently earned by economically active spouses in poor income strata. The calculation showed that the increase in family income would result in a reduction in the incidence of urban poverty of 2% to 8%, depending on the country. In the case of Mexico, for example, the percentage of poor households would drop from 29.4% to 22.9%, raising some four million persons above the poverty line.²⁴

²⁴ It should be borne in mind that these estimates give only a rough idea of the potential impact of an increase in the number of spouses gainfully employed, since it is probable that the average income of women would change as a result of their entry into the labour force in large numbers.



Figure 8
CONTRIBUTION OF SPOUSE TO FAMILY INCOME, 1992
(Urban areas)

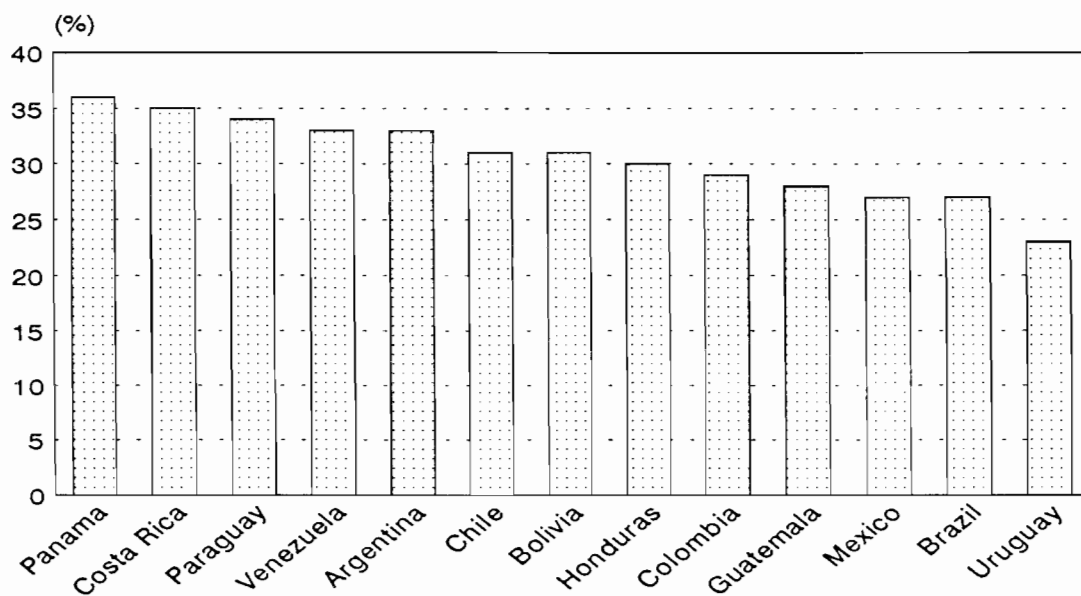
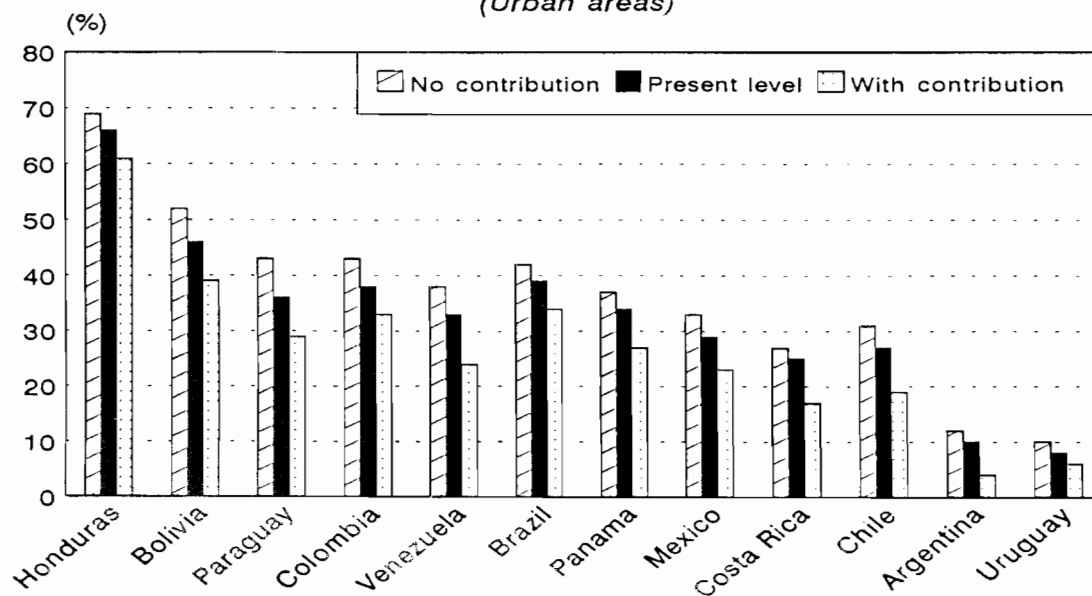


Figure 9
EXTENT OF POVERTY WITH AND WITHOUT CONTRIBUTION OF SPOUSE, 1992
(Urban areas)



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

B. FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS AND POVERTY

The number of households headed by women continues to grow, a phenomenon that is occurring in a context of other significant demographic changes, including a decline in fertility rates and a reduction in average household size. Female-headed households are particularly common among the poorer economic strata, and this situation places multiple responsibilities and pressures upon women heads of household to the detriment of the members of the household.

Among the far-reaching changes influencing the well-being of the population and the situation of women are two trends associated with demographic changes that are modifying the structure of households in the region. The first is a steady reduction in household size, particularly in urban areas, as a result of

several factors: a reduction in the number of children, reflecting lower fertility rates; a decline in the proportion of multi-generational households; and a corresponding increase in single-parent families and single-person households. In terms of family structure, nuclear family households consisting of a couple with or without children now predominate. In most of the countries of the region, this category of household now accounts for 70% or more of the total.

The second notable trend is the increased proportion of female-headed households, although censuses and household surveys tend to obscure the true extent of the phenomenon by not recognizing female headship when the male member of the couple lives in the household.²⁵ In most of the countries of the region, at least one out of every five urban households is headed by a woman. Part of the phenomenon of female headship is an increase in the number of single-parent households, which are predominantly headed by very young or by elderly women, and of single-person households, resulting in part from the ageing of the

²⁵ In all countries of the region, less than 5% of the women who identify themselves as the head of the household have a spouse living with them, whereas the figure is over 90% for men in this situation.



population and the greater longevity of women, who tend to form new unions less frequently than men. With some exceptions, women heads of household are generally divorced, widowed or single.²⁶

The tendency towards an increase in female-headed households was very marked in Latin America in the past decade, and it is highly probable that the trend will be maintained throughout the 1990s. Between 1980 and 1992, of total urban households the percentage headed by women increased in 10 out of 12 countries. The countries that recorded the largest increases, ranging from 2% to 5%, were Argentina, Costa Rica, Paraguay and Uruguay (see annex, table 29).

The marked increase in poverty in the region during the 1980s was reflected in a larger number of indigent households headed by women, which have now become one of the chief recipient groups for social programmes.

A breakdown by sex supports the conclusion that in 7 of 11 countries poverty is more common among households headed by women than those headed by men. The exceptions are two countries with low poverty levels (Argentina and Uruguay) and two countries with intermediate poverty levels (Chile and Mexico) (see annex, table 29). The differential is even greater among extremely poor or indigent households, an income level at which family units headed by women are more common. **Extreme poverty, particularly in urban areas, is most apt to be a problem among**

households where there is no male partner and where the female head must earn income to support the household in addition to handling domestic tasks. In 8 out of 13 countries, indigent households headed by women represent from 15% to 25% of female-headed households. In Honduras the percentage rises to 46%, while in Argentina and Uruguay the percentage is close to 1%. To give an idea of the extent of the problem, the number of people living in such households in urban areas in Brazil is some two and a half million, and another six hundred thousand are in the same situation in the major cities of Colombia.

Beyond the fact that there has been a marked increase in the number of female-headed households, an analysis of the data compiled by household surveys shows that such households are more vulnerable. Households headed by women continue to have lower per capita household income than those headed by men, so that the extent to which their income falls below the poverty line is even greater.

Female-headed households constitute a top-priority target group for social policies aimed at reducing extreme poverty in the region, but because of their special characteristics they require policies that consider more than the merely quantitative aspects of the problem. A good example is the question of how tasks are organized and shared within the household, including the issue of the excessive work load of women who must handle paid employment and

²⁶ Another factor that may have contributed to the increase in the percentage of female-headed households and that merits closer examination is the greater instability of unions.

household duties at the same time, and of the physical and mental toll this effort takes. Policy proposals must also take into account that households in this category are

quite heterogeneous; the head of household may be an elderly widow, an adolescent mother or simply a woman of reproductive age with children.

Figure 10
TREND IN FERTILITY RATES, 1970-1975 AND 1990-1995

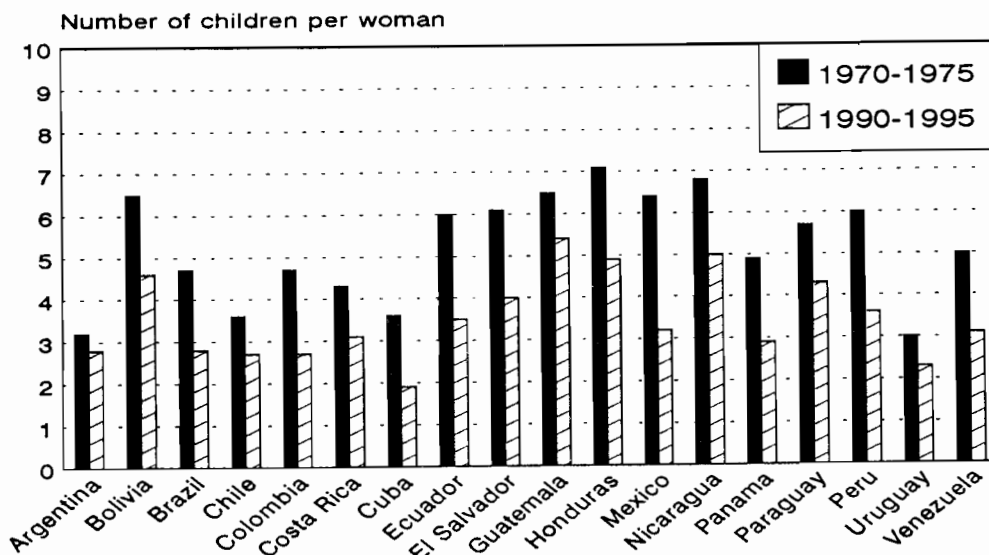
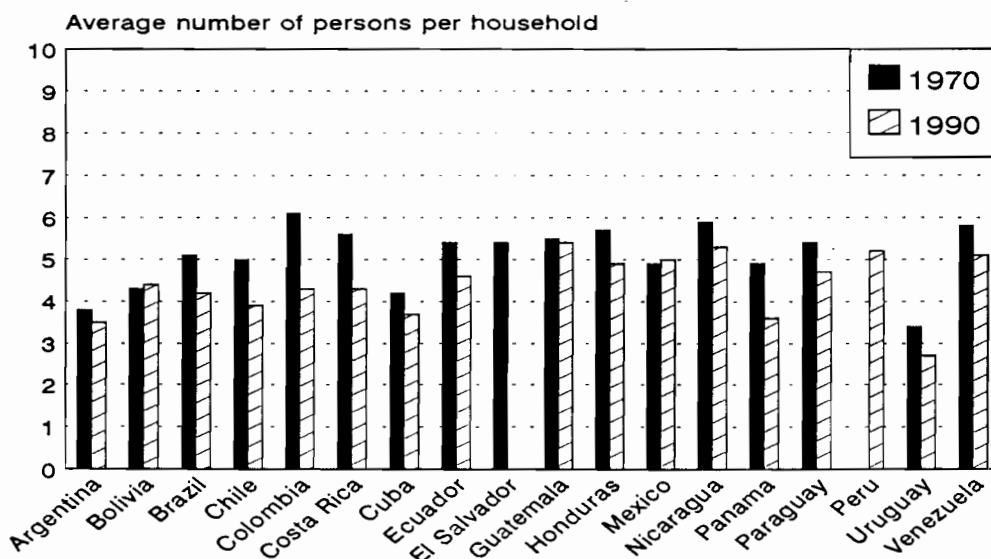


Figure 11
TREND IN AVERAGE SIZE OF HOUSEHOLD, 1970 AND 1990



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



Figure 12
FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS, 1980 AND 1992
(Urban areas)

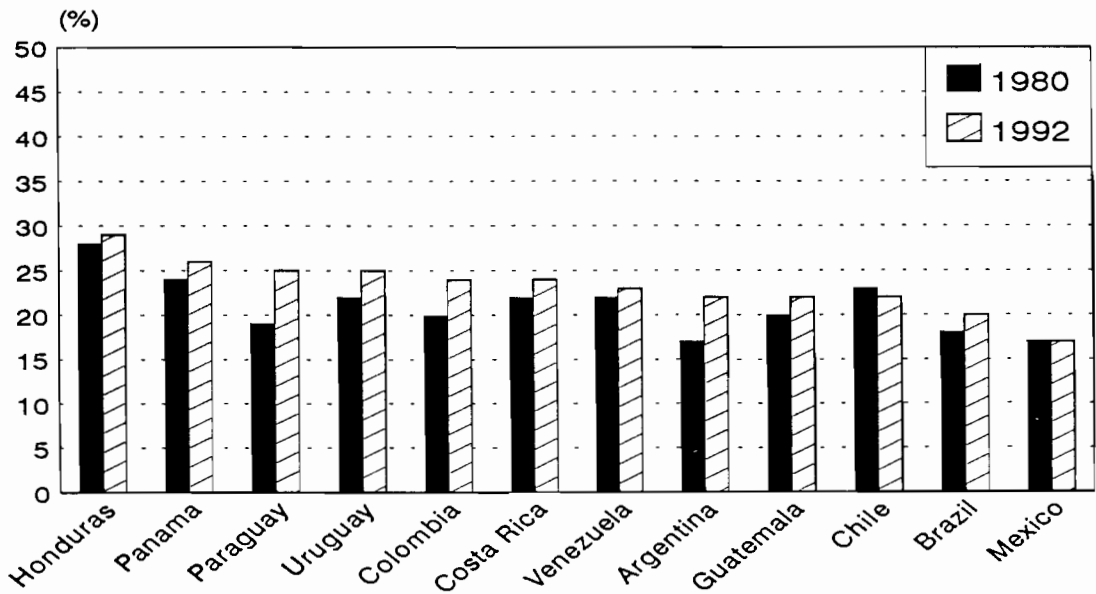
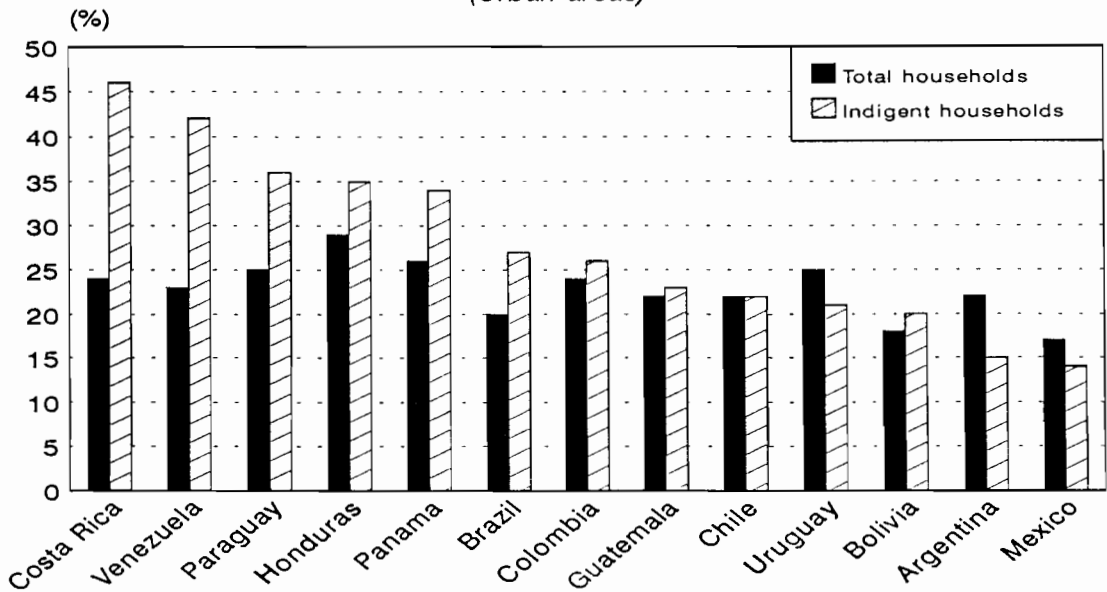


Figure 13
**FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS IN
 EXTREME POVERTY, 1992**
(Urban areas)



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

C. GENDER AND POVERTY

Female heads of household experience higher rates of unemployment, lower numbers of hours worked, lower salaries and greater difficulties in entering the labour market than do male heads of household. The low income and high degree of vulnerability of poor households headed by women suggest that they should continue to be a priority target of social policy.

One of the chief factors contributing to household poverty is that female heads of household generally face greater difficulties than male heads of household. This explains why a larger proportion of households headed by women than by men fall into the lower income strata.

An examination of the data from urban areas reveals marked differences between the sexes in the following variables that determine the resources of the household: i) the level of education of the head of household; ii) the degree of labour force participation; iii) the number of hours

worked and the income earned (see annex, table 30).

The factor that most heavily influences income differences is the level of education; on average, female heads of household have two fewer years of schooling than male. In the case of the women who are economically active, this gap translates into earnings 20% to 40% lower than they could obtain if they had the same level of education as male heads of household, apart from the fact that women in general earn less than men even with the same level of education. This increases the chances that households headed by women will fall below the poverty line.²⁷

The above factors, together with the problems women without a spouse encounter in combining domestic responsibilities with paid employment, explain the lower level of economic activity of women in that situation in comparison with male heads of household. While the labour force participation rate of men who are heads of household ranges from 80% to 90% in urban areas, the comparable figures for women are 40% to 60%. On the other hand, the percentage of female heads of household who are economically active is much higher than

²⁷ See *Social Panorama of Latin America*, 1994 edition, chapter VI.



that of women who are spouses, daughters or other female relations of male heads of household.

In contrast to the figure for males, the labour force participation rate of female heads of household is much lower among indigent and non-indigent poor households than among non-poor households, and this confirms the importance of women's earnings.²⁸ In this regard, policies designed

to help female heads of household with children to enter the labour force and in general to engage in income-producing activities inside or outside the home can be of great value in reducing poverty indexes. Such policies may include increasing preschool enrolment, extending the length of the school day and increasing the availability of day-care centres (see box below).

INCREASING PRESCHOOL ENROLMENT

Preschool enrolment grew significantly over the past two decades. In 1970, the number of children of both sexes attending preschool was under two million, representing less than 5% of the population aged three to five years. In 1990, there were around ten million children enrolled, close to 20% of children in that age group. One of the factors contributing to this growth was the concern for preparing young children for primary school in order to reduce scholastic failure in the primary grades.

Although preschool enrolment has increased in all cases, current levels of enrolment and the pace at which they have grown vary widely from one country to the next. Despite overall growth, percentage enrolment is still very low; it does not exceed 30% of children of the relevant age group in any of the countries and is below 10% in a number of cases.

With respect to the above figures, it should be noted that the information available is uneven; in some cases the figures refer only to children five years of age who are not yet old enough to enter the first grade of primary school, while in others they refer to children aged two to six. In the first instance, percentage enrolment is reported at a little under 60% in urban areas, while in the second the figures hover around 10%, indicating that the growth in preschool enrolment has been chiefly at the level preparatory to primary school. Clearly, the higher percentage of enrolment has been motivated by concern for preparing children for school, rather than for enabling women to enter the labour force.

²⁸ The only exceptions are in Argentina and Uruguay, where the figures reveal the opposite picture; the explanation may lie in measurement problems attributable to the small size of the sample. In 1992, only 1.4% of urban households in both countries were classified as indigent.

Data on urban areas reveal that in most countries the rate of open unemployment is higher for women than for men and hence affects female relatively more than male heads of household (see annex, tables 30 and 43). The differential is even more marked among the economically active population below the poverty line, reflecting the greater difficulties women who have recently entered the labour market encounter in obtaining employment and their greater likelihood of being laid off during a period of general unemployment. This situation contributes significantly to the higher incidence of poverty among households headed by women.

The shorter working hours of women who are heads of household is one of the more obvious consequences of the problems members of this group have in entering the labour force when they have

no social and family support systems to help them care for the younger children. In all the countries studied, female heads of household work an average of five to ten fewer hours per week than male heads of household. In this regard, it is significant that the differential is even more marked among the poor and that the gap is widest among the indigent, where women face the greatest difficulties in juggling the roles of mother and worker.

Moreover, the problems already described are further aggravated by the fact that women earn lower pay per hour worked. Income differentials among heads of household are similar to those observable for the economically active population as a whole, although they are lower among the poor and even lower among the indigent. The differential in urban areas is between 20% and 30% in most of the countries.



D. WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY

The rate of women's participation in economic activity continues to accelerate rapidly. Their entry into the labour force on a broad scale has been a significant development, particularly striking in the case of women at the ages when the care of small children normally requires the most attention. This suggests that the demand for domestic services will continue to increase and points up the need for incorporating gender considerations into labour policy.

The widescale entry of women into the labour force is undoubtedly one of the most significant changes that have occurred in Latin American countries in recent decades. Increased female participation in income-producing activities has been particularly noticeable since the early

1970s and has been one of the most outstanding features of urbanization in the region.

Since the 1980s women have been entering business and service occupations at an even faster pace. The trend has been observable in both urban and rural areas, but more marked in the former, especially in the large metropolitan areas. Data for 19 countries show that in just three decades, from 1960 to 1990, the number of women employed more than tripled, as evidenced by a percentage increase of 211%, while the number of men employed increased by only 84%, i.e., less than doubled.

During the period 1980-1992, in 12 Latin American countries comprising over 85% of the region's population, the labour force participation rate for women, i.e., the percentage of women aged 15 and over identified as economically active, increased by 7% to 10%²⁹ in urban areas. By the start of the present decade, in 10 of these 12 countries, the percentage of women who were economically active was between

²⁹ The only exception to this trend was Panama, where the activity ratio declined by approximately 2%. The decline may have been due to persistently high levels of open unemployment among women in urban areas. It is a common that under such situations the unemployed, and particularly women, tend eventually to withdraw from the labour market, thereby increasing the economically inactive population.



40% and 50%. In contrast, activity rates for men remained unchanged or in some cases declined slightly; hence, the gap in labour force participation between men and women narrowed (see annex, table 31).

Currently, in the urban areas of most Latin American countries **over half of the women aged 25 to 34 years are economically active**, although the participation rates of younger and older women are considerably lower. Participation rates for very young women, particularly the group aged 15 to 19 years, rose more slowly than the average over the past decade and even declined in a number of countries. This was due in part to higher school retention rates due to fuller enrolment in secondary and higher education, which in some cases particularly benefited young women. Women 50 years of age and older, on the other hand, have continued to show very low labour force participation rates (of around 20%), reflecting, among other things, the fact that they did not enter the labour market when they were younger.

The data available suggests a similar tendency in the rural areas of a number of countries of the region.³⁰ In Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Honduras, Mexico, Panama and Venezuela, there was an increase in women's labour force participation (see annex, table 32), reflecting the changes in production patterns in these areas. The

declining importance of agriculture and subsistence production, the growth of the business and service sectors and the expansion of employment for pay in rural areas has facilitated the entry of women into the labour market and made their work contribution more "visible". The figures must be interpreted with great caution, however, because of the conceptual and practical problems entailed in determining the work status of women in the rural environment³¹ (see box below).

The large-scale entry of women into the labour market in the last decade and early part of the present has largely involved those aged 25 to 34; the figures for the early 1990s show that in most cases the highest labour force participation levels in urban areas are for this age group. While the activity rate for all women aged 15 or more is around 40%, in the 25 to 34 age group the rates range from 50% to 60%.

The most significant finding, however, is that in general activity rates decline only moderately after 25 years of age, which indicates that an increasing proportion of women in the labour force do not leave it because of marriage or maternity and continue to be employed through their child-bearing years, despite their greater difficulties in combining child care and domestic tasks with work outside the home. A contributing factor has been the decline in the fertility rate, resulting in fewer years

³⁰ The percentage of the population residing in rural areas in the countries for which information was available was under 30%, except for Honduras.

³¹ This is not to suggest that the measurement of the economic activity of women presents no problems in an urban environment. Household surveys, while they are certainly better tools for the purpose than population censuses, none the less underestimate the activity rates of women in urban areas, although to a lesser degree than in rural areas. See United Nations, *Collecting Statistics on the Participation of Women in the Informal Sector: Methods Used in Latin America*, series F, No. 46, New York, 1990, United Nations publication, Sales No. S.90.XVII.16.

UNDERESTIMATION OF WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY

When interpreting data on women's rates of economic activity (labour force participation), it is important to bear in mind two basic facts. The first is that the figures refer to a limited concept of activity, defined according to international recommendations on the subject. The concept chiefly uses commercial activity as a criterion for identifying who qualifies as an economically active person and hence ignores a major portion of the activities that women perform, especially their domestic tasks. Statistics on labour force participation do not include domestic labours; they fail to measure the unpaid work women do outside the more readily visible public sphere and thereby underestimate their contribution to the material well-being of society.

Secondly, even within the limits of this narrow concept of activity, the data on labour force participation provided by household surveys, and even more so those provided by population censuses, underestimate the participation of women. This outcome is due to a series of interrelated factors: i) the inadequacy of the questionnaires in terms of the way the questions on activity are phrased and the order in which they are asked; ii) the use of a week as the reference period, a method that tends to underestimate seasonal employment and unemployment; iii) inadequately trained interviewers, who often apply their own subjective interpretation when gathering information; and iv) the tendency of many of the women interviewed to identify themselves as housewives engaged primarily in domestic tasks, so that they are classified as economically inactive, when they do in fact engage in income-producing activities. This may be the result of a cultural norm that identifies the role of women as that of homemaker, not considered an economic activity.

When the questions regarding activity status on census and employment surveys are phrased differently for the sake of determining what income-producing activities are actually performed by women who have been classified as inactive, but **without changing the definition of economic activity applied in the System of National Accounts**, it has been found that female labour force participation rates go up by 20% to 40% for urban areas and nearly double for rural areas. Thus, it can be said that women's labour force participation, often combining income-producing activities performed inside and outside the home, is underestimated by conventional methods of data-collection.

devoted to child-bearing and child care.³²
One of the consequences has been an increased demand for domestic services, particularly in urban areas, because of the

greater number of women working outside the home and the longer period of time that they remain in the labour force without interruption.

³² Information taken from the Demographic and Health Surveys shows marked differences in the number of years devoted to child care by women in countries with differing fertility rates. In Guatemala, which has an average of 5.5 live births per woman, mothers spend 18.1 years caring for children under six years of age. In contrast, in Colombia, where the average is 2.9 children, mothers spend 12.2 years on this task. (See *Women's Lives and Experiences. A Decade of Research Findings from the Demographic and Health Surveys*, Demography and Health Studies Program, United States Agency for International Development (USAID), Washington, D.C., August 1994.)



Figure 14
**LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN
 AGED 15 AND OVER, 1980-1992**
(Urban areas)

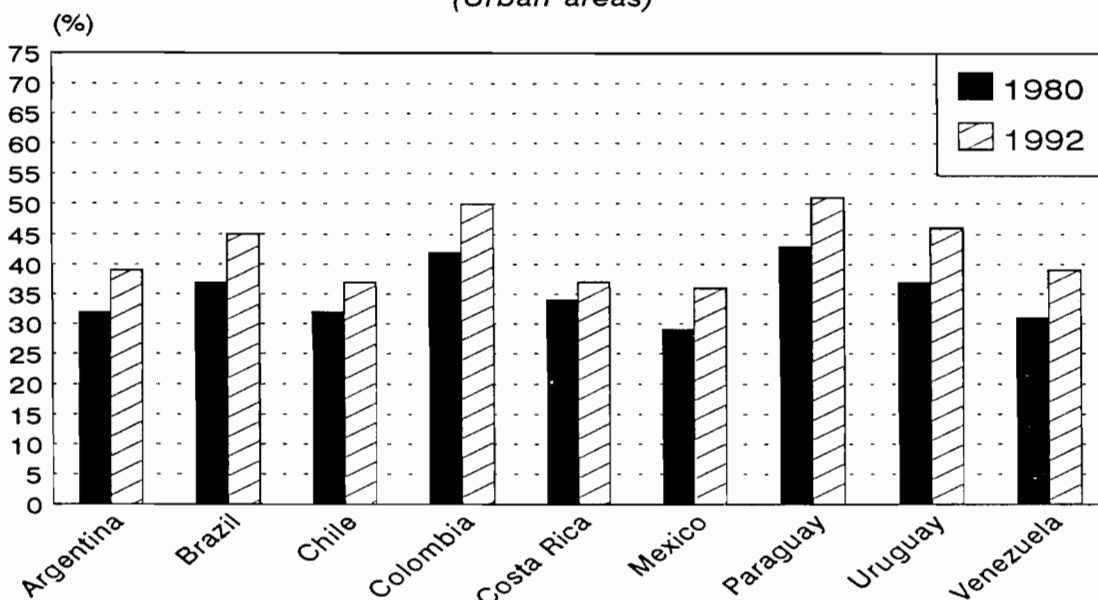
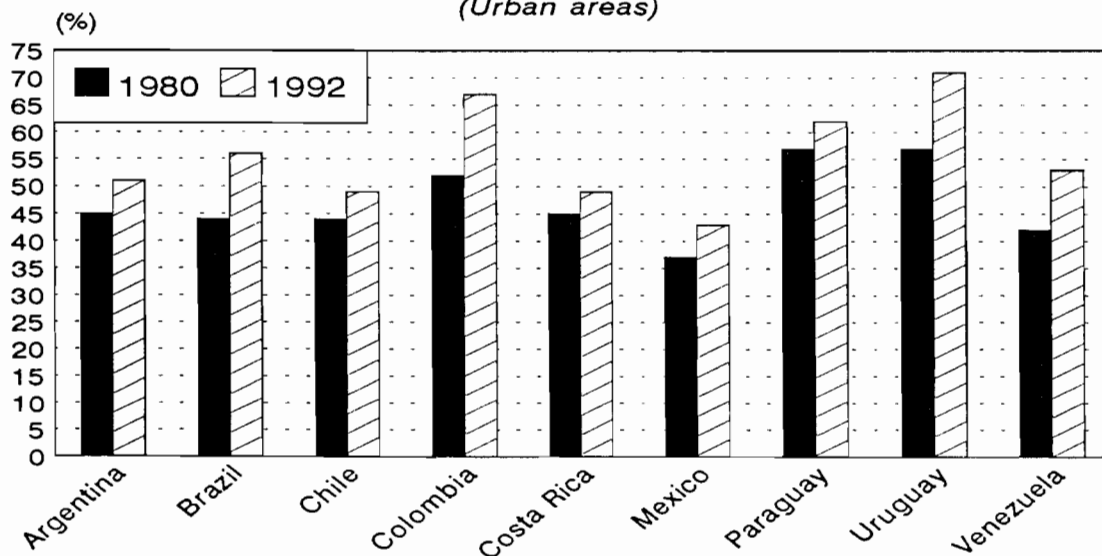


Figure 15
**LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN
 AGED 25 TO 34, 1980-1992**
(Urban areas)



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

In contrast to the figures for men, labour force participation rates for women differ markedly not only by age but also by level of education, socio-economic stratum and position in the household. These factors are related in part to their need to enter the workforce to support the family group or supplement the income of other members and in part to their opportunities to do so, which, in turn, are dependent on their level of education and the resources available to help them combine domestic responsibilities with work outside the household.

The differences in activity rates for women according to their position in the household and the poverty level of the household are a reflection of the diversity of the situations women face with respect to labour force participation (see annex, table 35). At all income levels, the participation rates for female heads of household and daughters greatly exceed those for women who are spouses, not surprisingly, since female heads of household must support the family, while daughters do not have the domestic responsibilities that limit the employment options of spouses.

Similarly, the marked differences in the labour force participation rates of poor and extremely poor women and of women in non-poor households are attributable to a

combination of circumstances that make it harder for the first group and easier for the second to pursue gainful employment inside or outside the home. Activity rates in urban areas for non-poor women (generally more educated and with fewer children) are on average 60% higher than for women in the indigent category. It should be borne in mind, however, that statistical data greatly underestimate the economic contribution of lower-income women, since many of these women perform economic activities within the household that are currently excluded from the concept of production (see box below).

Due to the prevalence of the division of labour that assigns women the responsibility for caring for the home and family, policies designed to facilitate their work inside and outside the home, together with policies to improve women's access to credit and productive resources in general, can be conducive to the efficient use of human resources and the well-being of the population. Some of the more effective policies that take into consideration the gender dimension in women's labour force participation include: flexible working hours, more nursery and child care facilities, a longer school day, more extensive preschool enrolment, and maternity and paternity leave.



WOMEN'S CONTRIBUTION TO PRODUCTION UNDER THE NEW SYSTEM OF NATIONAL ACCOUNTS

There are two major problems, as mentioned above, in measuring women's contribution to economic production and growth. The United Nations System of National Accounts (SNA) offers answers to both those questions by defining the concept of production (to be measured), setting the precise boundary of the concept and indicating what kind of activities are considered economic for purposes of national accounts.

Under the latest revision of the System of National Accounts (1993 SNA), the boundary of what is counted as production has been extended so that economic activities include, for the first time, production within the household of all goods and services except for services produced for the household's own final consumption. This extension of the production boundary now embraces some activities typically performed by women, such as processing agricultural products, preserving foods, making handicrafts, clothing and footwear, carrying water, and the like. These activities, constituting a high percentage of production in low-income countries with large rural populations, will be quantified and included in the valuation of the countries' gross domestic product, thereby making visible more of women's contribution to well-being.

Even the latest revision of SNA, however, excludes from the concept of production to be measured as economic output services provided within a household to its members, such as meal preparation, care of children and the aged, cleaning, and other domestic chores, many of which are performed largely or exclusively by women. Among the chief reasons given for this decision are the difficulties encountered in assigning a value to these activities, since they are services normally rendered to members of the same household without monetary compensation. The new revision of SNA points out the problems involved in a direct comparison of activities carried out within the household with services produced for the market, although it recognizes that in the more developed countries it is becoming increasingly common for households to hire individuals and firms to perform these activities, and some are even provided by the State.

Bearing this in mind, the 1993 SNA recommends the use of complementary or satellite accounts that can be linked to the central accounts without changing the basic framework of the System, an approach that would facilitate the valuation of domestic work. For this purpose, data from time-use surveys may be used and household production accounts created that can be linked to the national accounts, contributing, for example, to the measurement of labour inputs.

Figure 16
**LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN BY
POSITION IN THE HOUSEHOLD, 1992**
(Urban areas)

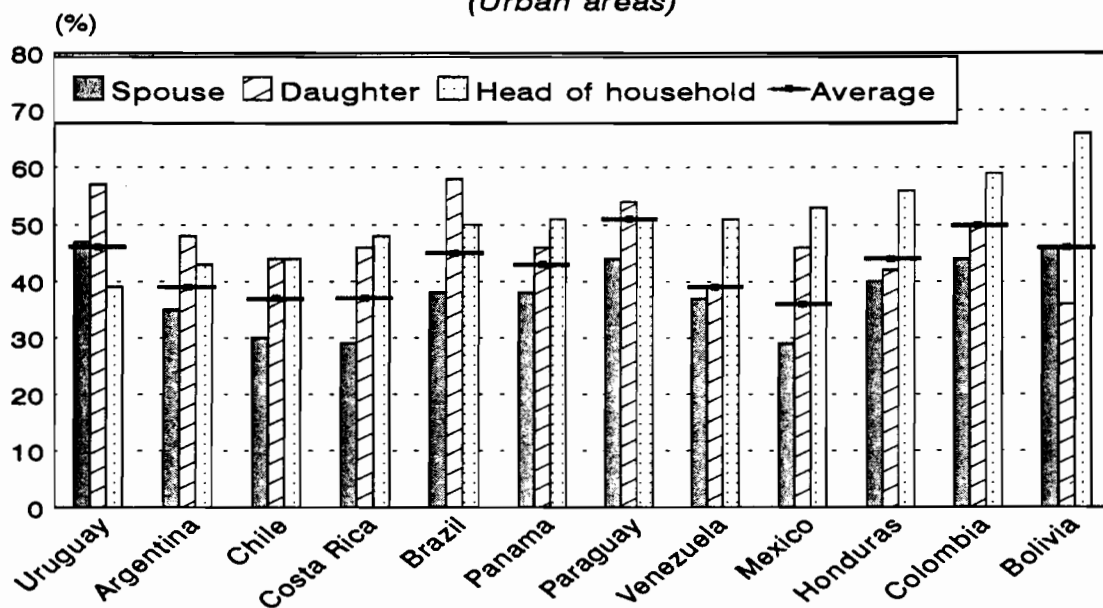
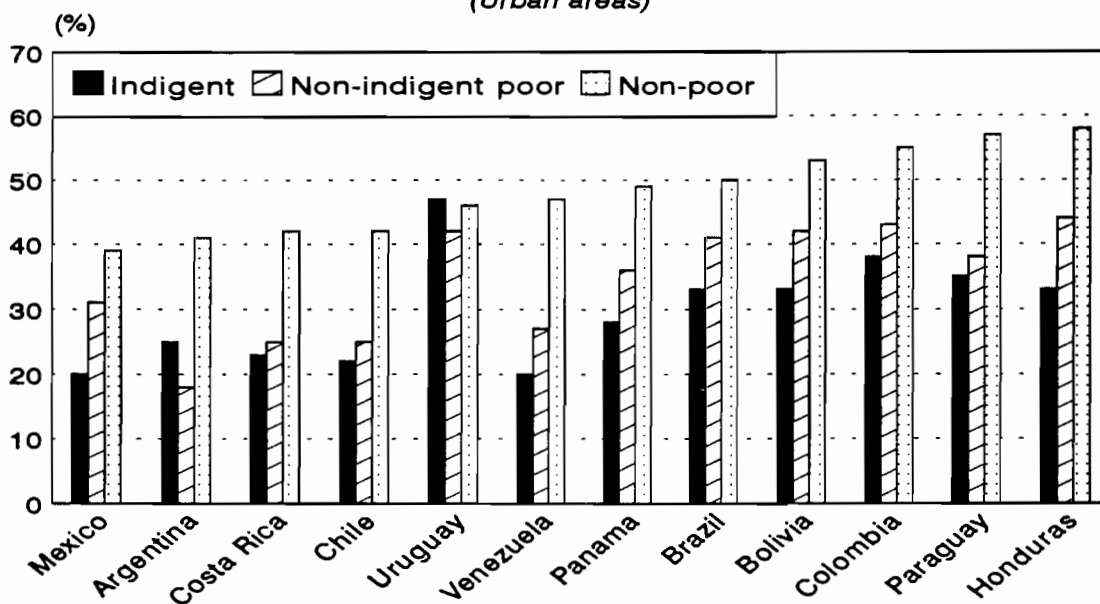


Figure 17
**LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF
WOMEN BY POVERTY LEVEL, 1992**
(Urban areas)



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



While a larger number of children and hence greater domestic responsibilities restrict women's labour force participation, the importance of this factor tends to decline as women's educational level increases.

Education is one of the most influential factors in determining a woman's likelihood of entering the labour force and opportunity of finding a job. The level of education entails the acquisition not only of certain capacities and skills that increase human capital, but also the internalization of norms and values that encourage the performance of activities outside the home. Among women in a stable union, a higher level of education tends to be associated with higher family income, enabling them to obtain domestic support services that make it easier to work outside the household.

The decisive influence of a woman's level of education is revealed by marked differences in labour force participation as the number of years of schooling increases. In most of the countries for which information is available, for example, the participation rates for women with 13 or more years of schooling are more than double those for women with only three years of schooling or less (see annex, tables 33 and 34).

It is significant that among women in a stable union, their level of education has a greater influence on their labour force

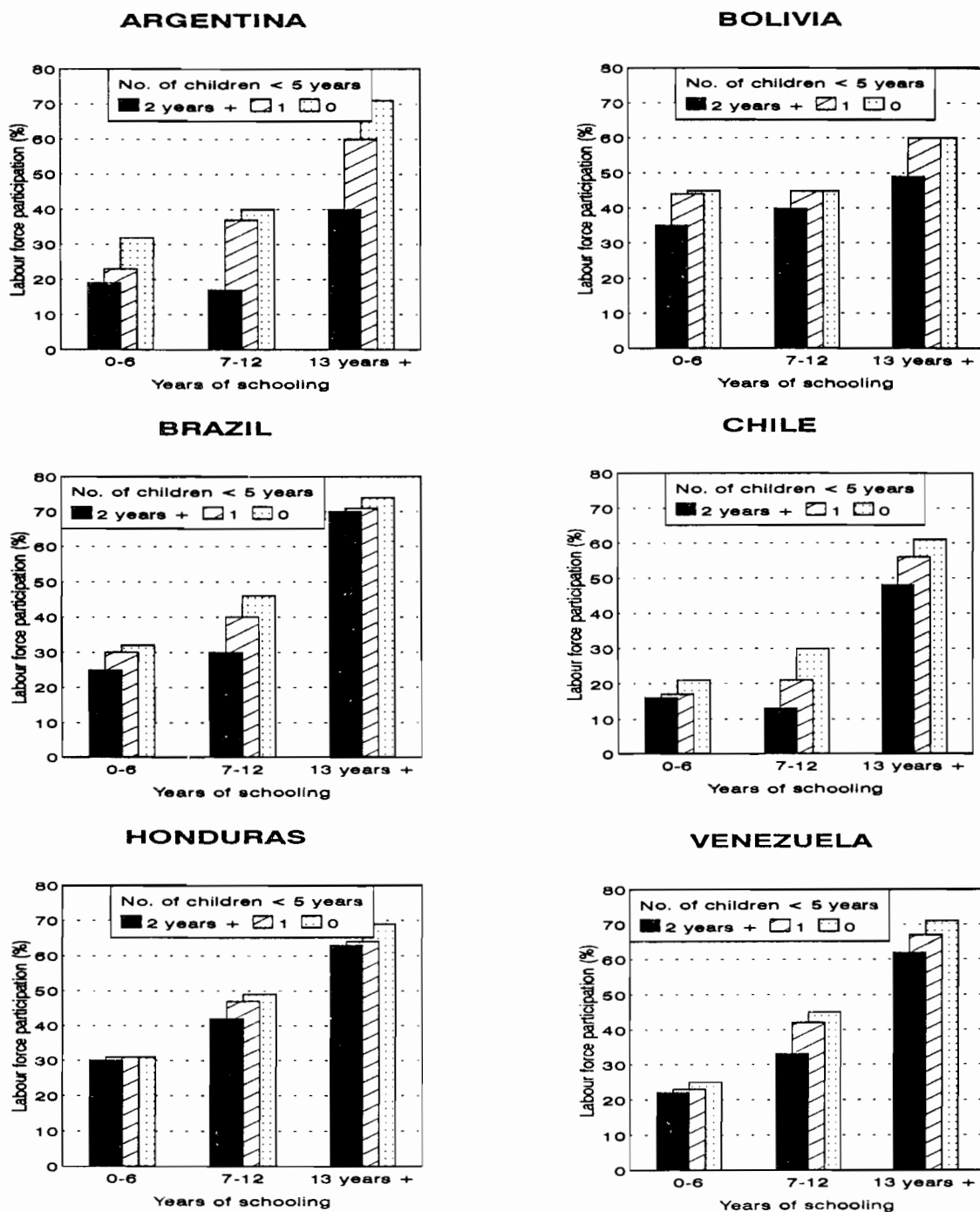
participation rate than their burden of domestic work or family responsibilities, which depends to a great extent on the number and the ages of their children. This pattern becomes clear on examining the differences in the activity rates of spouses according to their level of education and the number of children under five years of age in the household. In the urban areas of six countries for which information was available (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Honduras and Venezuela),³³ it was found that women's participation in economic activities increased as the number of children in the household decreased, regardless of the level of education, but that the increase was much less significant than the increase associated with a higher level of education.

The above findings demonstrate, among other things, the importance of giving training to young women who have less education in order to expand their opportunities of finding work and earning income. As the first section of this chapter shows, women's contribution to family income is becoming increasingly important in reducing poverty, and poverty is also related to the higher fertility rates observable among women with less of education. A further conclusion that can be drawn is that the increasing number of highly educated women seeking high-paying, specialized jobs is a fact to be taken into account in labour policy. To reiterate a point made earlier, efficient utilization of these human resources requires the formulation of policies that include measures aimed at facilitating the employment of women outside the home.

³³ This set of countries is representative of the different situations to be found in Latin America in terms demographic transition stage, educational level of the economically active population and women's labour force participation.

Figure 18

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF SPOUSES BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER FIVE YEARS OF AGE IN THE HOUSEHOLD



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



E. RECENT TRENDS IN MALE AND FEMALE EMPLOYMENT IN URBAN AREAS

The job market remains highly segregated, and women are still employed in a small number of occupations identified as typically female. While the number of female professionals and technicians has increased significantly, 4 out of every 10 women work in the informal sector, and only a small percentage are able to obtain better-paid jobs.

As a result of the rapid increase in women's participation in the labour force, changes have occurred in the structure of employment based on sex, especially in urban areas and among women with higher levels of education; thus, the number of employed men and women who have completed secondary and higher schooling has tended to approach parity. Nevertheless, there are still distinct differences in the employment situation of the two sexes on various rungs of the occupational ladder. These differences are reflected in the unequal distribution of men and women in various sectors of economic activity and in different occupational categories, professions and trades.

The sectoral distribution of economically active women still reveals a high concentration in the service sector (60%-80%), with a fairly low percentage in manufacturing (15%-25%) and an even lower number in the primary sector. Men are more evenly distributed than women: a higher percentage are employed in manufacturing and a significantly smaller proportion in services. Data from around 1980 and the early 1990s show that the upward trend in the number of women employed in the service sector has continued, despite the smaller number of women employed in the public sector and in domestic service in most of the countries. In addition, the proportion of both men and women employed in manufacturing decreased over the past decade, a trend that has been observed with increasing emphasis since the 1970s.

From a gender perspective, however, it is more appropriate to distinguish between wage-earners and non-wage-earners. These terms refer more clearly to the problems that employed women face as a result of the need to reconcile household duties with gainful employment; they also focus attention on the continuing problems of job segregation and pay disparities between men and women in all of the region's countries.



Data from household surveys indicate that in urban areas the majority of the economically active population of both sexes consists of wage-earners. Of the countries considered, the sole exception is Bolivia, where more than half (54%) of women work independently, either on their own account or as employers (see annex, table 38). In nearly all of the countries, women represent a higher proportion of wage-earners, if domestic employees are included in that category. Men, however, account for a much higher percentage of managers and employers. As indicated below, this is one of the factors that has the biggest influence on the income differentials between women and men.

In the early 1990s, major differences could still be seen between female and male labour-force participation, especially if the percentages of each sex employed in various trades and professions were compared. The available data indicate that **the labour market is highly segregated in all Latin American countries and that most women continue to be employed in certain occupations identified as typically female.**

The distribution of employment by occupational category shows that in urban areas women are concentrated in business, personal services and office work. These three categories account for between two thirds and three fourths of employed women. Men, however, are more commonly employed as manual workers (operatives and craftsmen) than women, and less commonly in offices, business and services.

The higher concentration of women in a small number of professions and trades becomes readily apparent if the percentages of men and women engaged in the five most common occupations are compared on the basis of data from around 1992. In 6 of 12 countries in which urban women were classified according to their employment in 72 to 113 professions and trades, nearly half were concentrated in five occupational groups. In the six other countries, in which women were classified according to a higher number of professions and trades (from 168 to 295), around 40% of employed women were concentrated in the five most common occupations. Furthermore, in nearly all of the countries, the most common female occupation continued to be that of domestic employee, which accounted for between a sixth and a fifth of the total. Employment is much less concentrated for men (see annex, table 38).

Although there is less information on rural areas, it too reveals a high degree of job segregation by sex, which is largely reflected in a low rate of female participation in agricultural activities.³⁴ The employment profile in these areas indicates that rural women are also concentrated in a small number of occupations linked to business and personal services.

Over the past decade the number of women in two occupational categories—professional and technical occupations, and business occupations—increased substantially. During that period two parallel trends occurred in urban areas. The first of these was the greater tendency for women with technical and higher levels of

³⁴ Their lesser participation by women in agriculture is partly due to the low “statistical visibility” of their agricultural activities. In general, the surveys reflect only a relatively small proportion of women’s economic activities, especially those of non-wage-earners.

Figure 19
GROWTH OF MALE AND FEMALE EMPLOYMENT
IN URBAN AREAS, 1980-1992
(Total employed population)

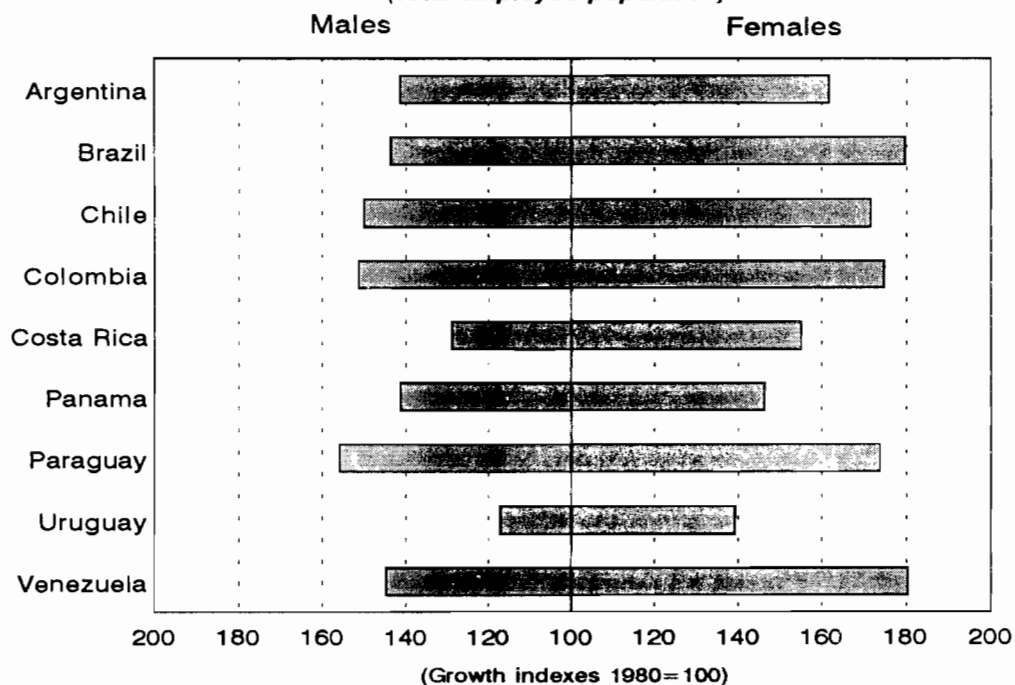
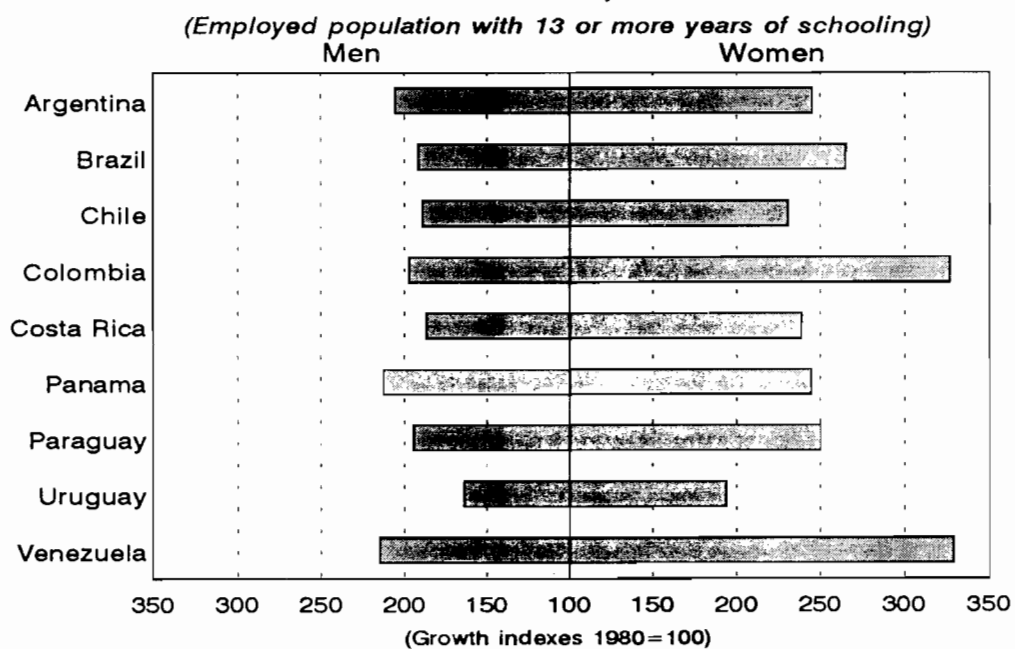


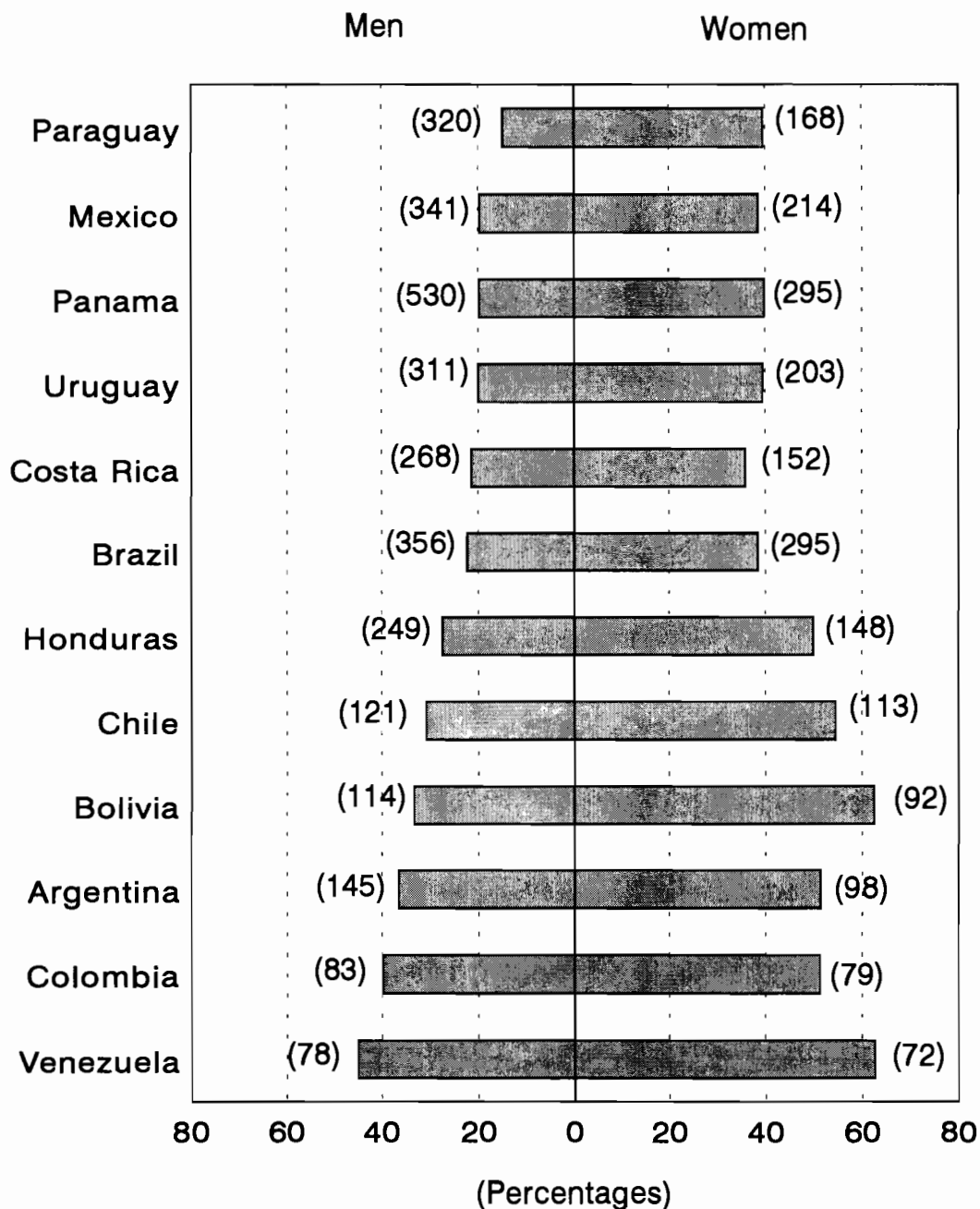
Figure 20
GROWTH OF MALE AND FEMALE EMPLOYMENT
IN URBAN AREAS, 1980-1992
(Employed population with 13 or more years of schooling)



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



Figure 21
**EMPLOYMENT CONCENTRATION IN THE FIVE
 MOST COMMON OCCUPATIONS**
(Urban areas)



Source: ECLAC, special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries.
Note: The figures in brackets refer to the number of occupations and trades listed in each country's standard classification.

education to enter the labour market, which increased their share of the professional and technical category. The data for urban areas indicate that in many countries more than half of those making up that category are women. Especially noteworthy in this regard are Chile, Costa Rica, Panama, Uruguay and Venezuela, countries in which around 20% of all female employees in urban areas are professionals or technicians. Among men, this percentage fluctuates around 10%. The second trend reflects the growing need of women with lower levels of education to enter the labour market in order to contribute to family incomes, which had declined significantly over the previous decade, especially among middle-income and low-income households. Most of these women became independent entrepreneurs in the informal sector, and, to a lesser extent, retail employees.

It is commonly believed that women participate in the informal sector in larger numbers than men. The data for the early 1990s confirm that the percentage of female own-account workers and domestic employees exceeds the percentage of males in those categories. This is attributable mainly to the fact that domestic employment is a typically female occupation in which a high proportion of all employed women are concentrated. According to these same data, relatively unskilled own-account work and the category of unpaid family workers (consisting mainly of women) account for a higher percentage of women in Bolivia, Brazil, Honduras, Mexico and Paraguay, countries in which the informal sector represents a very high proportion of total urban employment (see annex, table 39).

In the region's urban areas at present, around 40% of women work on their own account, as unpaid, relatively unskilled

family workers, or as domestic employees. Nevertheless, this average conceals vast differences among the countries. In those that are relatively less developed, the percentage climbs to 50% or more (Bolivia and Paraguay), while in Argentina, Chile, Uruguay and Venezuela, it dips to around 35% of the total. Costa Rica and Panama have the lowest figures, around 26% and 29%, respectively.

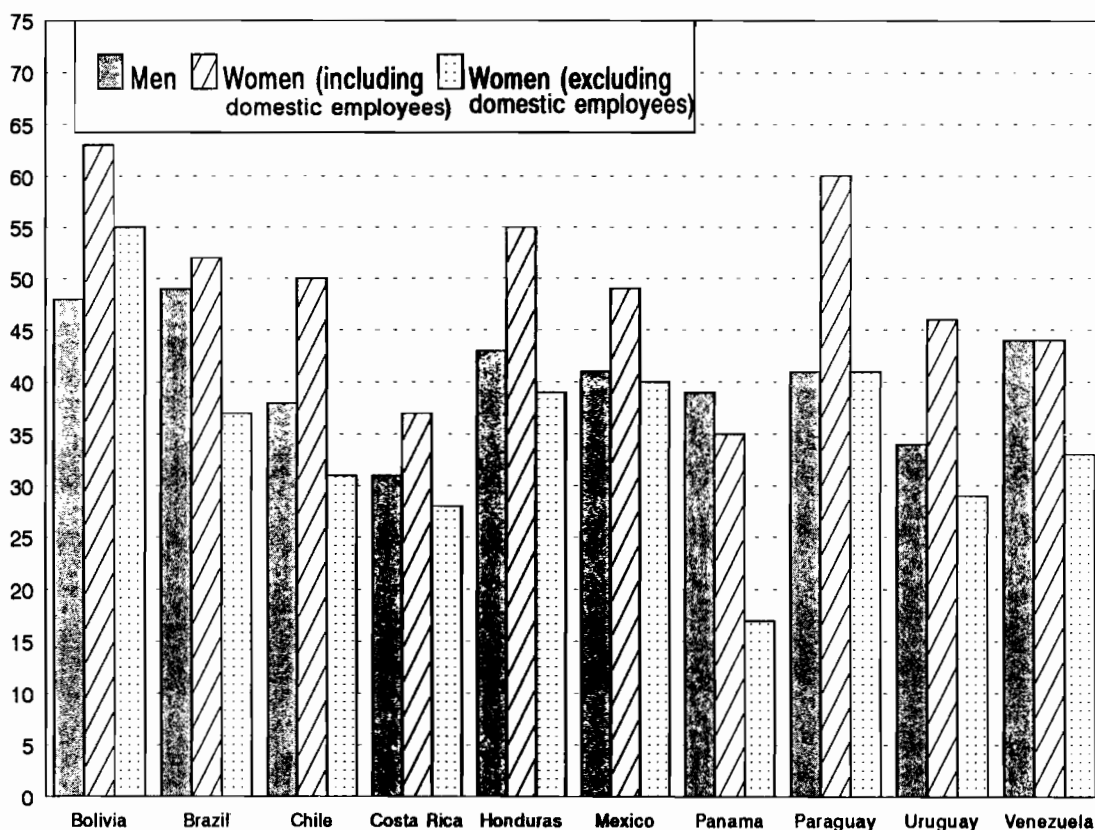
If the available information makes it possible to approach a more widely accepted definition of informal employment, i.e., if managers or employers and wage-earners employed in small-scale enterprises of low capital intensity are included in that category, the differences between the percentages of men and women employed in the informal sector diminish, and, in some cases, men outnumber women. Obviously, if domestic work is excluded from the sector, the percentage of men employed in it exceeds that of women, except in Bolivia and Mexico.

The above discussion makes it apparent that domestic work continues to account for a high proportion of female employment in urban areas, notwithstanding the fact that the percentage of female domestic employees fell in most of the region's countries between 1980 and 1992. Only Argentina, Mexico and Panama failed to show a relative decrease in female domestic employment over that period (see figure 22).

In addition, a change has been seen in the conditions of domestic employment. Data for the metropolitan areas of Buenos Aires, Santiago and São Paulo indicate that the percentage of live-in domestic employees has declined proportionally, which means less dependency for such workers.



Figure 22
**PERCENTAGE OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED
 IN THE INFORMAL SECTOR^a BY SEX, AROUND 1992**



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys in the countries.
^a Includes own-account workers, unpaid family workers and wage-earners employed in establishments with up to five workers other than professionals and technicians.

F. CHANGES IN INCOME DISPARITIES

The income differentials between men and women decreased slightly during the 1980s and the first half of the 1990s. Nevertheless, women's wages are still between 20% and 40% lower than those of men. In several countries, pay differentials based on sex narrowed significantly, reflecting increased access by women to higher education.

In Latin America, as in nearly all parts of the world, women earn much lower incomes than men. How have the income differentials between men and women in Latin America changed in recent years? What influence has women's higher level of education had on pay disparities? In order to answer these questions, estimates

were made of the income differentials between men and women among the total employed population, and of pay disparities around 1980 and 1992.

With regard to income differentials among the total employed population, the data for urban areas exhibit very stark inequalities: in 12 of the region's countries, women's average earned income³⁵ is less than two thirds of the income earned by men. The ratio varies significantly from one country to the next, reaching a low of 44% in Uruguay and a high of 80% in Panama.

In rural areas the earned income disparities based on sex are somewhat lower (69% on average).³⁶ This figure is based on a smaller number of countries and may overestimate gender inequalities, since employment surveys do not adequately account for a very significant component of the income generated by women—the

³⁵ Earned income refers to income from employment, i.e., wages and salaries in cash and in kind, and profits from own-account work. The estimates of such primary income were based on data from household surveys and were compared with the income entered in the household account in each country's national accounting system.

³⁶ Both the total income disparities and the pay disparities between men and women are measured in terms of the percentage of men's income which women's average income represents. A decrease in this ratio means a **relative** drop in women's income in relation to men's income and therefore an increased disparity.



value of goods produced for household consumption.

With regard to the changes that have taken place since the end of the 1970s, the data reflect a trend towards dwindling income differentials between men and women, notwithstanding the increased inequality of personal income distribution in most of the countries. **In the region's urban areas, there was a slight improvement in income disparities based on sex, which decreased in five countries (Brazil, Colombia, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay), remained constant in four (Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica and Venezuela) and increased in only one (Mexico).** The relative increase in women's earned income as compared with that of men was greater among the population with a lower level of education, most of whom are employed in the informal sector. This fact is consistent with the smaller drop seen in the income of less educated female own-account workers as compared with the income of female wage-earners.

In rural areas there also appears to have been a decrease in the income disparities based on sex in all countries, with the exception of Costa Rica, where a very distinct drop was seen in the income of women who are not heads of households.

It should be noted that these trends occurred over a period (1980-1992) in which the earned income of the Latin American population decreased in real terms.³⁷ This means that the decrease in income differentials between men and

women is not necessarily due to an increase in women's income, but to the fact that women's income decreased by a smaller percentage than did that of men.

It is noteworthy that during the period under review there were no major changes in the income disparities based on sex among employed persons with different levels of education. Both in 1980 and in the mid-1990s, the differentials can generally be seen to narrow as the number of years of schooling increases; they widen again, however, among the more educated population. This means that a higher level of education entails proportionally larger increases in income for women than for men, but only up to the end of secondary school. An increase in the number of years of schooling beyond the secondary level (12 years) benefits men more. This is attributable to the larger percentage of men exercising better-paid professions and trades who are able to obtain positions of greater responsibility in enterprises and institutions (see box below).

In the region's countries, pay disparities, i.e., the differences between the wages and salaries of male and female employees, are lower than for own-account workers.³⁸ During the 1980s, urban pay disparities also showed a moderate tendency to decline, but as indicated above, this does not necessarily mean that women's pay has increased in real terms.

In only 2 of the 10 countries for which comparable data were available for the period under review (Mexico and Venezuela) did women's average pay fall

³⁷ See ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America*, 1994 edition (LC/G.1844), Santiago, Chile, November 1994, annex, tables 18 and 19.

³⁸ The smaller disparities in pay as compared with the disparities in the total incomes of both sexes are due to the wider distribution of unearned income, especially business profits, and to the fact that men earn higher incomes as employers or managers.

HOW SHOULD THE PAY DIFFERENTIALS BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN BE INTERPRETED?

One of the universally accepted human rights, which was reaffirmed in the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action adopted by 171 countries at the World Conference on Human Rights held in June 1993, is the right to equal pay for equal work. However, the figures show that, without exception, women's average wages are lower than those of men. **In Latin American urban areas, women's average wages are from 20% to 40% lower.**

Strictly speaking, the observation of these differences does not in itself constitute evidence of wage discrimination based on sex, which is defined as paying women lower wages than men for the same work. If the overall pay differentials based on sex are looked at, it can be seen that they are actually an average of the wages and salaries paid to men and women who have different levels of skills and experience, are employed in different occupations or trades and exercise different levels of responsibility. Accordingly, pay differentials based on sex reflect different phenomena: i) job segregation, i.e., the fact that women are more likely than men to have poorly paid jobs; ii) employment discrimination, i.e., the fact that in enterprises and institutions in general, men are much more likely than women to obtain positions of greater responsibility at higher pay; iii) the reduced training opportunities available to women in enterprises, which limits their professional careers; and iv) the different levels of compensation afforded to female and male "human capital".

This means that the observed pay disparities are due to a combination of factors, which also include pay discrimination against women in the strict sense. Highlighting and measuring this phenomenon therefore require a complex statistical analysis and empirical data that are not always available. Most of the studies that have used econometric methods to analyse pay differentials based on sex have concluded that a very significant portion of such differentials remains unexplained, even after allowing for the differences between men and women in terms of employment characteristics, i.e., occupation, sector of activity, institutional sector (public or private) and extent of unionization, and the differences in the personal characteristics of wage-earners of both sexes (educational level, type of skills and work experience).

in relation to that of men. In three countries (Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay), pay differentials remained virtually unchanged, and in five countries, pay disparities decreased. The figures for 1992 indicate that women's pay is from 20% to 40% lower than that of men. These differences remain virtually unchanged if comparisons are made in terms of wages for hours worked, since the average length of the working day in the surveys does not differ greatly according to sex (see annex, table 46).

In several countries the relative increase in the wages and salaries of women aged 25-34 was significant. In 9 of 12 countries, the earned income of women in that age group represents between 80% and 90% of men's income. In addition, pay improved significantly for women wage-earners with higher educational levels. In the early 1990s, however, nearly all of the countries exhibited the pattern described above in relation to the income disparities among the total employed population—in other words, disparities between the sexes

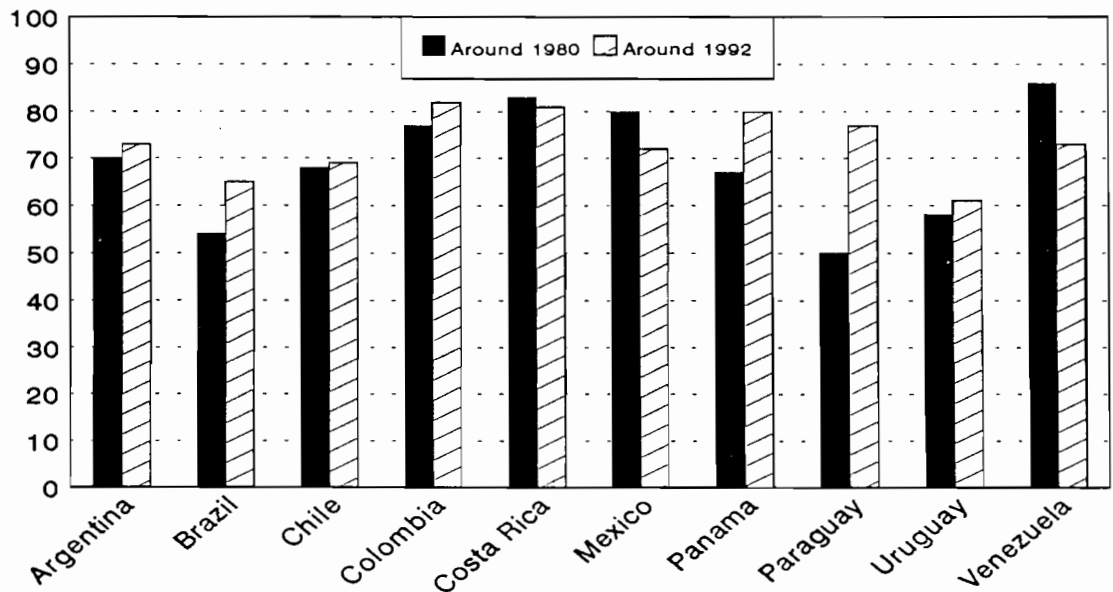


Figure 23
INCOME DISPARITIES^a BY SEX AROUND 1992
(Urban areas)



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys in the countries.
^a Women's average wages and salaries as a percentage of men's average wages and salaries.

Figure 24
CHANGES IN PAY DISPARITIES^a BY SEX, 1980-1992
(Urban areas)



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys in the countries.
^a Women's average wages and salaries as a percentage of men's average wages and salaries.

increase with age and decrease in inverse proportion to the number of years of schooling, except at the highest levels, where the trend is reversed (see annex, 42).

In short, during the 1980s and the early 1990s, moderate progress was made in achieving pay equity between women and men, which was of relatively greater benefit to women of intermediate age. However, in most of the countries, this narrowing of the pay gap occurred in economies in which real incomes decreased for a large percentage of the employed

population. While very sharp pay differentials persist among the employed population, with higher levels of education, the fact that in several countries such differentials decreased among the urban population with 13 or more years of schooling —i.e., among women who participate heavily in income-earning activity— is positive. It appears to be a sign of the mitigating effect of education on gender inequalities, especially if the female population has access to higher education.



IV

THE SOCIAL AGENDA

- A. *Political and economic context of the social agenda***
- B. *Agenda for social reform in education, health and social security***
- C. *Old and new issues***
- D. *International social agenda***



A. POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC CONTEXT OF THE SOCIAL AGENDA

The negative effects of the crisis that hit Mexico and the armed conflict between Ecuador and Peru had a marked impact on the political and economic aspects of the 1995 social agenda. In addition, the economic integration agreements among countries of the region assumed increasing importance, as did their prospective social effects. Discussion also continued on the role of the market, the gradual opening-up of the economies, and the globalization of communications, which are new topics that underline the need to reorganize the State and to re-define its functions.

The first part of 1995 was marked by the profound economic effects of the crisis which hit Mexico at the end of 1994 and which had a great impact on the other countries of the region, particularly Argentina. A programme of credit guarantees was agreed with Mexico, enabling it to restabilize and avoid more serious consequences at the regional level. This recovery was, however, only possible at the cost of a sharp increase in open unemployment and a fall in real wages—in other words, high social costs which were borne to a disproportionate extent by the most vulnerable sectors of the population.³⁹

These events brought to the forefront concerns such as the economic interdependence of countries, and the risks involved in having a large trade deficit and in depending on speculative capital to maintain equilibrium in the balance of payments.

³⁹ Gert Rosenthal, Executive Secretary of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, in an interview with the Mexican daily newspaper *Reforma*.



In the political context of the social agenda during 1995, mention must also be made of the border conflicts of varying magnitude which flared up in several places on the continent —the more so because they claimed resources which the countries concerned could have allocated to the solution of social problems. The war between Ecuador and Peru⁴⁰ had significant economic repercussions for both countries, which later translated into cuts in social spending. According to estimates, the total cost of the conflict was US\$ 1 billion, of which US\$ 670 million was spent by Peru.⁴¹ At the beginning of June, the Ecuadorian Government introduced measures such as tariff increases, cuts in current spending, and tax increases in order to cover its deficit of US\$ 548 million.⁴²

There has also been an intensification of debate and activity in Latin America concerning regional integration processes such as the Southern Common Market (MERCOSUR), the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and the Andean Pact (in order of frequency of references in the press). These associations, which are of a chiefly commercial nature, will make it necessary to examine what could be called the “social dimension” of integration. This dimension is concerned with differences in terms of social development, in particular differences in

levels of education, protection of the workforce through social security systems, labour costs (which affect countries’ competitiveness, which in turn gives rise to concerns about social “dumping”), and potential movement of labour which such agreements may occasion. These considerations should spur movement towards harmonization or greater uniformity of social policies.

Great changes have been brought about by the increased prominence of the market-place, the growing openness of economies and the globalization of communications. These phenomena and their potential social impact are provoking debate in the region and connect with ideas on the reorganization of the State and the redefinition of its functions to deal with these new realities. These changes also affect social policy, and alternative options and dilemmas are emerging in relation to policy implementation.

Within this political, economic and social context, reforms in health, education and social security continue. These reforms, which are dealt with in the next section of this chapter, are controversial issues. Questions continue to be raised about their political and economic viability, and how they will be affected by the prioritization of macroeconomic stability and the need to restore growth. Another

40 Other, less serious, border conflicts arose between Nicaragua, El Salvador and Honduras over the Gulf of Fonseca; between El Salvador and Honduras over border demarcation; between Colombia and Venezuela, over border conflicts; and between Nicaragua and Colombia, over the island of San Andrés.

41 Estimates from the Latin American Association for Human Rights (ALDHU).

42 The impact of the conflict on some economic indicators in Ecuador is estimated as follows:

	Before	After
Growth in GDP	4.5%	3.5%
Annual inflation	16.0%	21.0%
Public investment (% of GDP)	7.1%	6.1%
Devaluation of the sucre	12.0%	17.0%

THE SOCIAL AGENDA

section deals with important new and old topics on the social agenda such as poverty and unequal income distribution, corruption, urban insecurity, violence and drugs. The chapter concludes with an

analysis of the international agenda and of the agreements reached at the World Summit for Social Development and the Fourth World Conference on Women, which have far-reaching implications.



B. AGENDA FOR SOCIAL REFORM IN EDUCATION, HEALTH AND SOCIAL SECURITY

Discussion and activity surrounding the reorganization of the State and the redefinition of its functions continued in the region. Innovative proposals have arisen that would change fundamental aspects of public policy: its institutional framework, management, financing and methods of allocating resources.

The debate surrounding the reorganization of the State has spread within the region. There is a consensus on the need to establish an institutional framework which is adapted to the new realities and which will allow government to make the transition from a productive function to a regulatory one. Many countries are currently involved in constitutional reforms which will alter the configuration of the State, and have undertaken restructuring of public administration, the financial, tax and fiscal

systems and the health, education and social security sectors.

This focus on the design and implementation of public policy has given rise to a new configuration in social policy in the region. The chief features and innovative elements of this new configuration are summarized in table IV-1. The basic criteria for these innovations are as follows: i) recognition that there is a variety of actors (non-governmental organizations, businesses, families) involved in making social policy side by side with the public apparatus, and that government should not have the monopoly or a near-monopoly on the field; ii) an emphasis on the appropriateness of decentralized decision-making in place of the traditional centralization; iii) the replacement of bureaucratic logic, based on centralized administrative decisions and leading to large-scale projects, by a logic which favours social projects generated by communities and selected by tender; iv) attempts to involve beneficiaries in the financing of services; v) a reorientation of funding away from covering the cost of



Table IV-1
SOCIAL POLICY

ASPECT	CHIEF FEATURES	INNOVATIVE PROPOSALS
INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURE (I)	STATE MONOPOLY OR NEAR-MONOPOLY IN: - Finance - Design - Implementation - Regulation	VARIETY OF SECTORS - State - Private (business) - Charitable (NGOs) - Informal (family)
INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURE (II)	CENTRALIZATION	DECENTRALIZATION
DECISION-MAKING LOGIC	BUREAUCRATIC - Macro-level strategy - Resource assignment through administrative channels	PROJECT-BASED - Competitive assignment - Tendering
FINANCING	STATE	COFINANCING - Recovering costs
RESOURCE ASSIGNMENT	SUPPLY-SIDE SUBSIDIES	DEMAND-SIDE SUBSIDIES
GOAL	UNIVERSAL PROVISION	UNIVERSAL SATISFACTION
FOCUS OF CARE	PROGRESSIVE TOP-DOWN EXPANSION - Segmented access	TARGETING OF THE SEGMENTS IN MOST NEED
POPULATION TO BENEFIT	MIDDLE CLASS ORGANIZED GROUPS	PRIORITY TO POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY
EMPHASIS	ON MEANS - Social infrastructure - Current spending	ON ENDS - Impact on target population
INDICATOR USED	AMOUNT OF PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE	COST-IMPACT RELATIONSHIP OF EACH PROGRAMME
<p>Source: Rolando Franco, "Estado y políticas sociales: nuevas tendencias en América Latina", paper presented at the "Colloque de l'État en Amérique latine: privatisation ou redéfinition?", organized by the Institut des hautes études de l'Amérique latine and the Centre d'études et de recherches internationales de la FNSP, Paris, 1-2 June 1995.</p>		

providing services towards demand-side subsidies, in order to promote beneficiaries' freedom of choice; vi) where the universal provision of services is concerned, a shift in emphasis towards the universal satisfaction of beneficiaries; vii) the elimination of segmentation of access to services, which primarily favours the middle segments of the population; viii) a shift in priorities away from top-down expansion of services towards care for the most needy segments of the population; ix) measurement of success by the effects on the target population and not by the greater availability of means (basic infrastructure and current spending); and

x) inclusion of the relationship between cost and impact as an indicator for social programmes, not merely the amount of social expenditure. It is likely that in the near future a social policy paradigm will arise incorporating many of these criteria, in conjunction with others already being applied.

As part of this process of modernization, several reforms have been undertaken in the region in the education, health, social security and housing sectors. While there is general agreement on the need for reform, the perspectives of those involved diverge, which may present obstacles to the political viability of such changes.



1. Reforms in the health sector

In the present decade, processes of health system reform in the region have gained in intensity. Changes have already been made in Colombia, Chile and Costa Rica, while new programmes and improvements to services are being examined in Argentina, Brazil, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Paraguay and Uruguay. In every case, **the objectives are universal coverage, greater equity and better quality of systems and services, as well as efficient**

use of available resources. In order to attain these objectives, public spending is frequently directed towards the care of vulnerable groups or those at greater risk through their socio-economic or biological condition. This basically means giving preference to segments of the population in extreme poverty, marginalized city-dwellers, the rural population, indigenous people, and mothers and children.

a) Features of the reforms⁴³

Many countries of the region have undertaken reforms in the health sector with the following general objectives: to expand coverage, using the concept of targeted provision of a basic package of services; to introduce changes in the organization and management of the sector; to promote decentralization; to modify the relationship

between financing and delivery of services; to implement new forms of remuneration in the sector and innovative sectoral investment policies. The goals are to raise the level of health of the entire population, increase equity in care and improve the quality and efficiency of systems and services.

⁴³ This section summarizes some of the topics dealt with in the paper "Equitable Access to Basic Health Services: Toward a Regional Agenda for Health Sector Reform", prepared by the Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) as part of the follow-up activities to the Summit of the Americas, on the basis of the deliberations of the ad hoc interagency working group, Washington, D.C., May 1995.

Among the chief features of the reforms, several innovative proposals on social policy may be highlighted.

i) **Institutional structure:** changes particularly worth noting are those relating to health care privatization through compulsory insurance (Chile, Argentina, Colombia, Peru). **Sectoral organization and management:** new ways of structuring public hospitals as social enterprises are emerging, with management autonomy and facilities to recover costs through agreements with the social security system and the private sector (Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica). Quality assurance programmes have also sprung up based on licensing, categorization and accreditation of health establishments. New frameworks for contracting services have been introduced, as well as networks to supplement diagnostic and therapeutic services, supply drugs and provide logistical support. A further concern has been to make appropriate adjustments in the scope and substance of technical and managerial training and education. With regard to human resources management, new forms of contracting and remuneration are being examined, and procedures for the evaluation of health personnel performance are being put in place to encourage greater efficiency and better quality of care. Programme administrators have been made publicly accountable (Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador). **Decentralization and community participation:** policies and strategies directed towards health sector decentralization are being implemented. The roles of central government have been redefined and resources and management capacity transferred to more local levels. The function of health ministries as direct service providers has diminished, while their roles in policy management and regulation have increased (Bolivia, Brazil,

Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Mexico and Nicaragua). They have also played a part in strengthening health sector management (Costa Rica).

ii) **Target population:** the changes tend, on the one hand, towards **expansion of service coverage**, in order to ensure regular provision to social groups which currently have no access or very limited access, and towards the provision of new benefits (emerging pathologies) (Colombia, Costa Rica). On the other hand, the changes comprise new ways of **establishing care priorities** depending on population groups' degree of marginalization, epidemiological profile and access to services.

iii) **Criteria for resource allocation:** new models of care have been delineated, around the concept of **appropriate provision of packages of basic health care**. The most notable of these are outpatient preventive health services. In this way it is hoped to create universal access to health care and direct public health activities towards groups considered vulnerable on the basis of their low income, gender, ethnic origin, geographical location, occupation or risk situation (Costa Rica, Colombia).

iv) **Funding: Separation of funding and provision of health care services** has emerged as an element in the majority of reforms in order to ensure the efficiency and competitiveness of the system. Public or private entities have been created with responsibility for collecting health care funds and contracting and supervising the provision of service packages, predefined in agreement with the public or private sector. The emergence of such arrangements has created a need for compensatory mechanisms to guarantee the



principles of equity and solidarity in the health system (Chile). **New forms of remuneration for service providers:** the aim here is to break down systems of fixed salaries, which do not encourage productivity, and payment according to the care given, which encourages overuse of services and complex technologies. Instead, attempts are being made to favour systems of capitation payments, under which the doctor and the service providers are responsible for groups of people who are offered a basic array of services (Costa Rica, Uruguay). Other systems proposed include differentiated wages which reward efficiency and quality of care (Chile). **New sectoral investment strategies and policies:** these are directed towards rescaling of health expenditure, and changes seek to identify cost-effective activities, select the most economical and evaluate their impact on the target population.

Reforms in progress agree on the importance of ensuring **equity**, though they may not explain how to achieve it. Another common feature is the **diversity of models of care and funding arrangements**. There is a wide range of service providers and sources of funds, public as well as private. **A new assignment of roles between government and civil society** is discernible in terms of production and funding of health products and services, one in which market forces influence the public domain and elements of government regulation impinge on the private. There is an awareness of the limited nature of resources, which has led to the creation of **regulatory mechanisms explicitly designed to rationalize care** (basic packages). Attempts are being made to **strengthen the ability of the health sector** to mobilize, negotiate and monitor the activities of other sectors which may influence the health of the population.

b) Results to date and problems of health sector reforms

Very diverse models of health sector reform are defended by various actors and put forward by cooperation agencies. The positive aspect of this is that it allows the interplay of a range of experiences of, for example, decentralization, the development of mediation mechanisms, and alternative health systems; but difficulties arise when there are divergent

opinions as to the objectives and strategies for reform. This situation demands a high degree of technical and political input.

In some cases, reforms are the result of constitutional changes (Brazil, Colombia and Paraguay); others originate in measures taken under the existing legal framework. In some countries, reform is part of a broader process of structural

adjustment of the State (Chile, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago), the aim of which is to reduce direct government participation in operational functions and to increase the State's regulatory role. In some of these cases, reform has been carried out with the help of international finance.

The diversity of interpretations of the term "reform" presents conceptual problems, and the high level of leadership and negotiation skills required to reach consensus has been an obstacle to the political viability of health sector reform. Reform has frequently been carried out by economic authorities, without adequate involvement of actors from the health sector. In other cases, the authorities of both sectors have had divergent opinions on objectives and strategies. An additional factor is the high turnover of those with responsibility for promoting reform, such as health ministers, who remain in their posts, on average, 1.8 years.

From users' point of view, serious problems persist in relation to health care. In Chile it was the Ministry of Health itself which raised the most controversial topic: the need to rationalize health management and expenditure, and to regulate the work of health professionals more closely. This issue has led to several confrontations between the Government and the Medical Association. Users of the reformed (privatized) health system are usually unaware of the way in which the supervisory authorities of the health insurance institutions (ISAPRES) operate, prompting the Ministry to launch a publicity campaign to provide information on the reforms. A recent survey found that 39% of members felt unprotected in this system, and many complaints relate to the coverage provided by health plans and the calculation of reimbursements. One aspect

as yet unresolved is coverage for senior citizens: since most health expenditure occurs in the later years of life, most often as a result of the increased use of medicines, the profitability of the ISAPRES could fall once a significant proportion of members reach this age. The Chilean Medical Association has conducted a survey in which, out of 3,500 participating doctors, 91% considered that the ISAPRES system did not allow the medical profession to practise freely, and 94% felt that it did not allow users freedom of choice. Members consider the care provided to be of poor quality and expensive. The media have carried complaints about excessive charging by some clinics, particularly for hospitalization, which has highlighted the area of users' rights and the need for the authorities to introduce regulations. In Honduras, surveys have shown that health is the major current concern, along with inflation: public health services have reached saturation point, middle-class demand having switched from the private sector, which has become very expensive; and there is a shortage of drugs in hospitals. In Argentina debate centres on problems of resources and management, such as the increased cost of medical care due to rises in salaries and in charges for consultations and drugs. For some years, the health sector price index has been higher than the general consumer price index. In addition to the scarcity of resources, management of medical services is also coming under criticism. The high cost of provision of drugs and other services combined with the deterioration of public services—chiefly hospital services—raises the issue of access to care on the part of poorer segments of the population. Further, health unions consider it necessary to raise the salaries of doctors and health service workers (Chile,



Ecuador). In Ecuador public hospital workers went on strike in pursuit of their wage claim.

Experience shows that the success of reforms does not depend solely on having sound technical arguments that will

convince the experts, but also on having sufficient political support (and not a merely formal political and legal framework) to overcome opposition from the many actors whose acquiescence is necessary if reforms are to be carried through.

2. Reforms in the education sector

In the majority of Latin American and Caribbean countries there is a growing conviction that, if they are to partake of the new world economic order, characterized by a mainly market economy, competition and rapid technological innovation, it is important to increase the population's human capital. Such exhortations are usually accompanied by negative assessments of the working of their education systems. These tend to be seen as over-centralized, bureaucratic and conservative; teaching is perceived as

standardized and of poor quality; while coverage frequently does not extend even to those who are legally obliged to attend school. A further feature of these education systems is said to be a high repetition and drop-out rate. A case is then made for an education system which equips students to cope with an economic system requiring productive labour and to adapt to technological innovation. Existing systems are therefore modified in accordance with these objectives.

a) Features of educational reforms

Most current educational reforms involve decentralization and changes in educational management and resource allocation. The priority given to educational quality, coverage and relevance, however, varies depending on conditions in each country. The chief objectives are to increase equity by expanding the resources available and redirecting them to preschool, basic and intermediate levels, as well as modernizing and decentralizing the management of educational systems.

A common feature of educational reforms is an emphasis on **the process of decentralization**: responsibilities are devolved to more local, subnational levels of government, at the same time as some educational functions are privatized. In some countries, reforms of this nature were initiated in the 1980s (Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico) and are currently being revised in the light of experience to date. In others, moves to decentralize have recently been initiated (Bolivia) or are beginning to be discussed (Paraguay, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras). In models applied in Latin America the centre retains some responsibility for educational policy, in matters such as curriculum design, materials and textbook production, and



teacher training and accreditation. It may also retain the function of paying, contracting and dismissing teachers, except in Chile, where these are local authority responsibilities. In other countries, financial allocation to subnational levels is made centrally, preventing local authorities obtaining their own resources —with the exception of the Argentine provinces, which fund basic education through taxes. Functions delegated to subnational levels include: local planning and programming; management of physical, human and financial resources; provision of educational services; adaptation of the curriculum to meet regional needs; production of some training and teaching materials; educational supervision; accreditation and certification of teaching programmes; collection and processing of statistical information; maintenance and, in some cases, construction of educational establishments.

Other reform objectives concern:

i) **finance**: expanding resources available for education, which have been eroded in real terms, particularly during the 1980s; ii) **management**: involving new actors in the decision-making process; iii) **efficiency**: modernizing educational administration and eliminating the wastage incurred when students repeat courses or drop out; iv) **equity**: improving resource distribution to help benefit groups which are currently disadvantaged; v) **coverage**: particularly, widening access to basic

education and expanding preschool education; vi) **quality**: improving the repetition and drop-out rates; vii) **relevance**: equipping students to find their place in the labour market. The attainment of these goals demands **efficient and flexible administration** which leaves room for other social actors (community, parents) to participate in the education system. One other aspect usually mentioned in such reform programmes is the importance of **raising the status of the teaching profession** by granting salary increases, providing incentives to career development and academic excellence and encouraging greater participation in educational management.

Reforms also aim at further training for teachers, curriculum reform, ways of dealing with student failure and extension of reforms in basic and intermediate education (Argentina, Chile, Colombia). Initiatives are also under way to extend compulsory schooling to 10 years (Argentina, Chile) or nine years (Paraguay), and to expand preschool education (Chile, Costa Rica, Venezuela).

A further interesting aspect of reforms in progress is the introduction of systems to assess the quality and equity of education. Through national examinations and the application of appropriate indicators, students' attainment can be measured and the performance of different educational establishments compared (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile and Ecuador).

b) Results to date and problems arising from educational reform

Evaluation of reforms in the education sector reveals interesting initiatives with regard to expansion of coverage, management and the evaluation of education systems. Of particular interest are those programmes which aim to improve the quality of education and quality assessment methods. The implementation of reforms has given rise to conflict between teaching unions and ministries, especially in relation to teachers' pay.

Current reforms are beset by limitations. Where coverage is concerned, the chief obstacle is the scarcity of financial resources. In the area of decentralization, problems persist in relation to the institutional vitality of the new subnational entities responsible for educational management, particularly in the poorest and most depressed areas; while insufficient progress has been made in the devolution of funding of educational expenditure, which remains dependent on central government. As regards privatization, a bipartite arrangement of public and private education is usual: the private sector remains élitist, high-quality, expensive and highly individualized; the public sector retains its mass profile and lack of quality, while its highly-unionized nature means that teachers' strikes have an adverse effect on pupils' performance. Many countries have not managed to improve the calibre of their teachers and as yet no performance assessment

mechanisms exist which would allow selection and advancement on merit, as opposed to length of service.

Sectoral actors, teachers in particular, have focused on pay improvement (Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica), which has resulted in the loss of many teaching days. In Chile deep rifts persist between the Teachers' Association and the Ministry of Education, centering on pay demands, stability of the working environment and reform of the Teachers' Statute. Although teachers' pay in Chile has improved in the last three years, it has not yet recovered from the setbacks of the last decade, and remains comparatively low in the context of the country's economic growth. At the same time, teachers are opposed to curriculum, methodological and management reforms, which they perceive as threats to the stability of their working environment.

Lastly, much attention has been devoted in public debate to reforms in higher education, particularly the question of whether it should be free of charge (Bolivia, Venezuela, Uruguay). In Argentina, a new higher education bill has aroused controversy. It is feared that it may permit the imposition of fees, and many rectors and students have organized protest demonstrations. The bill touches on the degree of government involvement in educational institutions, national universities' autonomy from the Ministry of Education, and the funding of the system.

While current reforms have made important improvements in educational management, financing, quality, coverage and relevance, nevertheless, universal access to basic, high-quality education and flexible, efficient and effective



administration are still a long way off. Similarly, resolution of the conflicts with one of the most important groups in this process —educators— and their incorporation into technical discussions

have yet to be achieved. Evaluation of results and continuous correction of errors, a method adopted in several countries, seems to be the best way to attain the goal of democratic, quality education.

3. Reforms in the social security sector

Reform of the social security system is a high priority for many countries of the region (Costa Rica, Ecuador, Peru and Uruguay). In the majority of cases, elements relating to pensions and retirement benefits are separated from unemployment and health benefits. The major problems of existing pension schemes are the imbalance between the income established by law and the benefits promised (Argentina, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Honduras, Venezuela and Uruguay); limited coverage (Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua;⁴⁴ the decline in the

contributor-beneficiary ratio resulting from demographic changes and generous criteria for receipt of benefit (Uruguay), as well as from unemployment, underemployment and migration (Peru, Central America); poor resource administration (leading to high operating costs); duplication among institutions and among benefits —largely established under legislation with no financial basis (Costa Rica, Uruguay); and evasion and delay in contribution payments (Uruguay). In many cases, pensioners' benefits bear little relation to the contributions made during their working life.

a) Features of social security reforms⁴⁵

Social security reforms in the region are at varying stages of development and focus on retirement and other pension schemes. All of them envisage the transfer of insurance fund administration out of government hands to private or semi-private enterprises and the abolition of preferential or dis-

criminatory pensions. Pension funds are also to be administered separately from other social security programmes and resources accumulated from insurance contributions will be kept apart from the budget of the institutions administering them. Nearly all these reforms anticipate the

⁴⁴ In El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua, enrolments in the scheme vary between 6% and 23% of the total.

⁴⁵ This section touches on some of the ideas put forward in A. Uthoff "Pension system reform in Latin America", *CEPAL Review* No. 56 (LC/G.1874-P), August 1995.



standardization and raising of the retirement age, and objectives include financial balance, extension of coverage, reduction of costs and an increase in flexibility, as well as an improvement of the relationship between contributions and benefits.

Social security reforms are currently getting under way in Argentina, Colombia, Costa Rica, Peru and Uruguay, while in Chile the new system, which has been in operation for 15 years, is now being evaluated. In Brazil, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Paraguay and Venezuela, reform proposals are being discussed. As regards approaches, Chile and Peru have opted for individual capitalization schemes. In the other countries, reforms envisage **mixed systems with an element of redistribution for social solidarity purposes and an element of individualized savings** (Uruguay, Costa Rica, Argentina, Ecuador, Colombia). Common to all the schemes is the **State's regulatory and supervisory role**, but there are differences as regards the question of where to place the **responsibility for administering the funds**: in Chile this is the exclusive task of the private sector,

whereas in Argentina, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Uruguay, the suggestion is that responsibility should lie with public or private institutions. Generally, the tendency is to **standardize the system**, involving the abolition of preferential pensions (most often with the exception of armed forces pensions) and also cutting down the multiplicity of schemes. Similarly, reforms aim to **standardize and raise the retirement age**, in view of the increase in life expectancy (Brazil, Costa Rica). In Uruguay women's retirement age was raised to match men's and extension of working life was rewarded by progressive bonuses for postponement of retirement—a measure which resulted in a sharp reduction in labour turnover. All the reforms tend to favour **individual membership in order to encourage mobility of labour** between various fund administrators (Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Colombia and Uruguay). New systems, however, differ both in the **financing of minimum and supplementary pensions** and in the way they are awarded: in Argentina and Colombia, Costa Rica and Uruguay, schemes involving redistribution have been established; in Chile minimum pensions are funded from general taxation; and in Peru they have been abolished.

b) Results to date and problems arising from social security reform

There is widespread consensus as to the failings of the previous social security system. Opinions differ, however, as to what reforms are necessary, particularly among labour unions (teachers, health personnel) and pensioners, who feel that their interests may be affected.

Pension system reforms arouse considerable controversy over questions such as **the amount of benefits available under the new scheme; the need to enable members to take informed decisions; the means of regulating and supervising fund administration; the amount of resources devoted to publicity; and improvement of minimum pensions.** The crisis in the previous insurance system, exacerbated by policies of public spending adjustment, has led to a large group of pensioners receiving very low pensions, payment of which may be subject to delays or even, on occasion, freezes (Argentina). In Brazil, proposals to raise the qualifying age and abolish existing benefits and differentiated retirement pensions aroused mass opposition. In Costa Rica, the difficulty of maintaining existing benefits led the executive to initiate reform of the system which provoked a teaching strike lasting several weeks. The agreement which ended the strike comprised various general reforms of the State, and included analysis and discussion of fundamental aspects of pensions legislation; reform of the National Pensions Board, which administers the majority of such funds out of the budget

the organization of the National Supervisory Board of Pensions, which is responsible for supervising and guaranteeing all pension funds, public and private; and the revision of relevant legislation and the drafting of regulations for its application. Other measures in progress aim to expand the coverage of the compulsory contributory pension scheme administered by the Costa Rican Social Security Fund (CCSS) and to increase minimum pensions for the poorest sections of the population. The Ecuadorian reform project states that social security services may be provided by public, private or semi-private bodies. The committee of the National Council for the Modernization of the State (CONAM) which is studying the reforms suggests that contributions should be compulsory, but that there should be freedom of choice of one or more insurance services, which may be private, public or semi-private. Law enforcement personnel would have their own social security system. Those opposed to this plan, however, propose that the Ecuadorian Social Security Institute (IESS) should remain the sole policy-making body in the field and that private enterprise should be encouraged to cooperate in the provision of services. Paraguay has decided to let insurance reform be examined by government, business and the unions. These groups differ in that government and business argue for an end to the monopoly, while the unions' position is that the current redistributive scheme should be maintained, but adjusted as necessary to ensure optimization. In Uruguay, the executive's proposal for reform was approved, despite the fact that the National Organization of Retirees and Pensioners set up an opposition movement in defence of



the principles of social security. They criticized the government proposal on the grounds that it was not universal, since it did not explicitly include the Armed Forces and Police Funds; and they objected to the reduction of retirement pension rights and the participation of the private sector in the administration of insurance funds. In Chile, discussion centres on improvement of the subsidy system to provide better targeting and greater efficiency, and on strengthening its institutional structure; expansion of insurance coverage and social security, with particular concern for more

vulnerable groups; and the need to increase transparency and efficiency among private pension fund administrators.

The conclusion to be drawn from this broad array of reforms is that, even in countries where they have been in place for some time, social security systems should be continually re-evaluated in order to balance financial aspects, maintain the relationship between benefits and contributions, and ensure that members have freedom of choice and sufficient information about their rights and obligations.

C. OLD AND NEW ISSUES

The issues which have traditionally exercised public opinion, Governments, non-governmental sectors and international organizations are poverty and the unequal distribution of income. The issues which are emerging are urban insecurity and violence, corruption, drug trafficking and drug addiction.

The processes of economic stabilization at work in some countries are a constant source of controversy with regard to their possible impact on poverty and income distribution in a region characterized as one of the least equitable in the world. Phenomena such as economic liberalization, free trade, Latin American integration and the modernization of the State —prominent items on government agendas— are thus analysed for their potential social effects. Other matters of

concern to the population in general are rising criminality, the drugs trade, corruption and drugs, unemployment and violence.⁴⁶

Poverty is an ever-present problem for Governments and international organizations and will continue to be accorded high priority in 1996, which has been declared International Year for the Eradication of Poverty. Several interesting initiatives have been undertaken in recent months. In Brazil, the Federal Government and local authorities have joined forces in the “Solidarity in the Community” programme. This programme aims at mobilization in five priority areas: food and nutrition, urban services, rural development, creation of work and income, and protection of civil rights. In Chile, a Programme to Overcome Poverty has been elaborated under such broad headings as investment in people (human resources); active and direct involvement of beneficiaries; intrasectoral and intersectoral coordination; and decentralization of programmes and actions. An

⁴⁶ A survey of the regional press between January and August 1995 showed that, of a total of 1,300 items on economic, social and political topics, the following were the areas most frequently dealt with: the economy (275); economic, social and cultural rights (104); civil-military relations (89); drugs (79); employment (76); corruption (65); violence (49); and reform of the State (50).



Interministerial Committee to Overcome Poverty has also been established. In Peru, the re-elected Government put forward the fight against poverty as the focal point of government action. A high priority on the agenda of the Government of Venezuela is still the slums of Caracas, where half the capital's 5 million inhabitants live. In the great majority of the countries, funds and programmes to fight poverty are still in operation.⁴⁷ International finance also continues to support these activities, and the Inter-American Development Bank will be giving Central American countries US\$ 4 billion over four years, to be dedicated to social investment programmes preferably targeting the poor segments of the population.

Income distribution, itself related to the theme of poverty, is once again on the agenda. In 1992, 40% of the poorest urban households earned between 10% (Brazil) and 20% (Uruguay) of the average per capita household income, and the average income of the richest 10% of households was between 5 and 17 times higher than that of the poorest 40%.⁴⁸ In countries with high economic growth indexes, levels of inequality persist, or are even rising. In Chile the governing coalition has opened these topics up for public debate, giving rise to varying opinions on both the statistical calculations and the possible solutions. Proposals include taxing petrol and cigarettes in order to raise sufficient funds to increase pensions of under

100,000 pesos (around US\$ 250) per month by 10%.

During 1995 the media has dealt extensively with **topics related to drugs production, trafficking and consumption**, and with their impact on the financial system (**money laundering**) and in the political arena (corruption and infiltration of institutions by the drug cartels). This journalistic coverage reveals varying opinions as to how to fight the scourge of drugs. Measures proposed range from **preventive measures to protect vulnerable groups to suppression of the entire chain of agents involved** (producers, refiners, traffickers and "launderers"). Positions contrast sharply —**control of production as opposed to control of consumption; an attack on production** (suppress refiners and relocate producers) or **a radical approach** (improve conditions for peasants and social integration); **stiffer penalties or legalization**. All are legitimate alternatives in the fight against the drugs economy. Secondly, much attention has been paid to the annual drug certification process applied by the United States, whereby financial, commercial and military aid is made conditional on countries' internal approach to problems connected with drugs production and trafficking. Interest has also centred on the eradication of coca plantations in Bolivia and the resistance of those affected;⁴⁹ the growing consumption of cocaine and cocaine-related drugs in many countries; the urban violence

⁴⁷ See ECLAC, **Social Panorama**, 1994 edition.

⁴⁸ See ECLAC, **Social Panorama**, 1994 edition.

⁴⁹ It is estimated that in Bolivia 35,000 ha are given over to the coca crop. Under an initial agreement with the United States, it was decided to eradicate between 5,000 and 8,000 ha annually. Later, however, it was agreed that these figures should be reduced to 3,000 ha in 1994 and 2,000 ha up to June 1995. Eradication was on a voluntary basis, with compensation of US\$ 2,500 per ha, plus sufficient funds to start cultivating new crops.

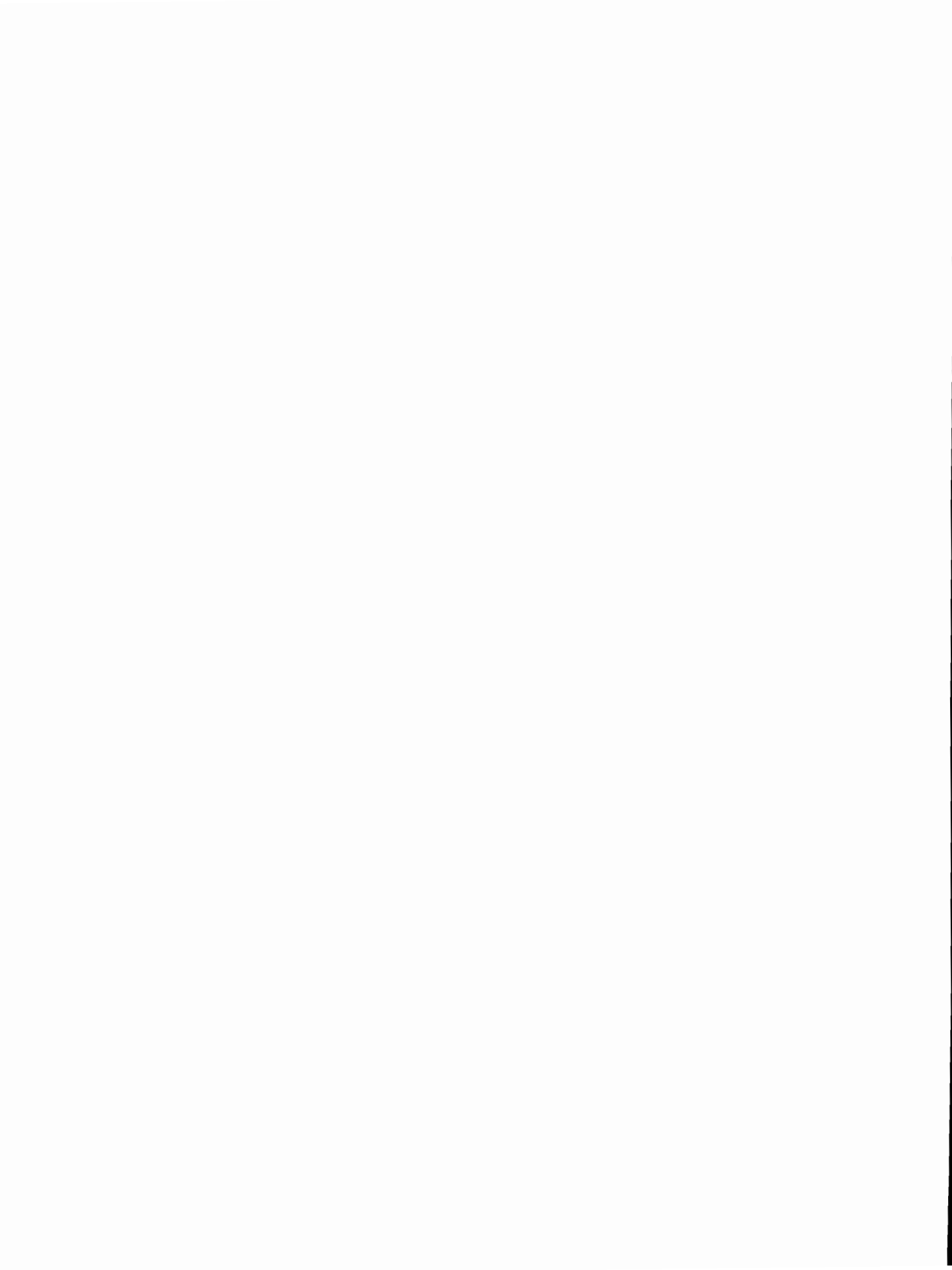
surrounding drug trafficking in Rio de Janeiro and other cities of the region; the expansion of poppy cultivation for heroin production, particularly in Colombia and Mexico; and the recurrent institutional crises in the political and economic system caused by cases of drugs-related corruption.

The theme of **corruption** also looms large. One of the most significant cases occurred in Ecuador and culminated in the resignation of the Vice-President. In Venezuela and Honduras similar problems have arisen, and the President of Honduras has set up a Committee to Combat Corruption, made up of prominent citizens. In Paraguay irregularities have been exposed surrounding the Central Bank and the Social Insurance Institute (IPS). In Uruguay cases of corruption have also been uncovered, the most important of which affected the State Insurance Bank. All this has generated demands for greater transparency in public sector activities.

Violence and insecurity, resulting from the increase in crime in large cities, are problems which affect urban life and create a general feeling of vulnerability. According to surveys, this theme is of major concern to ordinary people. These phenomena are attributed, on the one hand, to the increase in drug trafficking and consumption and, on the other, to higher rates of urban marginalization and unemployment, particularly among young men. In Uruguay, 85% of the population believes that violence has increased in the last 10 years and there is little confidence in the police. As a result, a law on civil safety has been passed, bringing in stiffer penalties for some crimes and creating new

offences (“copamiento” —armed and violent occupation of premises— and “receptación” —dealing in stolen goods). In many large cities in the region citizens’ and governments’ concern at violence and insecurity has taken tangible form (surveillance cameras in homes and streets and telephone numbers to call for help in case of emergency); legislation has also been passed to eliminate violence at sporting events. In Honduras police functions have been transferred from the military to the civil authorities, but the police have proved incapable, through lack of resources, of curbing the violence which led to 3,600 deaths in 1994 and 835 up to June 1995, according to police statistics. In Venezuela, lynchings of criminals in working-class areas demonstrate the degree of dissatisfaction with the police and processes of justice. In Guatemala, the electoral platforms of several political parties agree on the need to combat crime, give more power to the police, increase their wages and provide more equipment, and to increase awareness of civic responsibilities and punish corruption in the forces of law and order. Some of the proposals for improving urban security stress suppression (for example, involving the army in the fight against drugs and crime); others argue for a fight against marginalization, drug addiction and social disintegration in general. The phenomenon of urban violence as a means of resolving conflicts should prompt reflection on the deterioration of social relations, the loss of affective and family ties and the difficulties standing in the way of integration, particularly the integration of young people.





D. INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL AGENDA

In 1995 the World Summit for Social Development took place. While broad consensus was reached on the importance of the themes under discussion (basically, poverty, employment and social integration), there was a certain amount of pessimism over the effectiveness of the agreements reached. The Fourth World Conference on Women was the other important international meeting on these themes in 1995. Here great controversy was aroused in relation to highly sensitive themes linked to family values and reproductive rights. This did not, however, prevent the final Platform for Action from embodying important agreements.

During 1995 two international conferences with a bearing on social issues were held: the World Summit for Social Development and the Fourth World

Conference on Women (see boxes following). Both received ample media coverage. As regards the Social Summit there was general agreement as to its timeliness and on the themes discussed there: the context of social development; overcoming poverty; the creation of work; and social integration. Debate at the Summit centred chiefly on evaluation of the possible impact of its conclusions and resolutions on the problems under consideration; the means of translating some of the 10 agreed undertakings into concrete proposals; and the mechanisms needed to implement them (to transform the "Summit of hope" into a "Summit of fulfilled expectations").⁵⁰ One issue which divided opinion between the developed and the developing countries — mainly the Group of 77 — was that of debt remission for Third World countries. Only Denmark and Austria have taken steps in this respect, cancelling debts totalling US\$ 166 million and US\$ 100 million respectively.

The Conference on Women, by contrast, aroused fierce controversy at the regional and international levels. The most discussed aspects of the Platform for Action adopted in Beijing — voting on which revealed alliances between countries

⁵⁰ In the words of the Prime Minister of Denmark, Poul Nyrup Rasmussen.



WORLD SUMMIT FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Place and date: Copenhagen, Denmark, 6-12 March 1995

Participants: 118 Heads of State and Government

Agreements: Declaration and Commitments

The 10 commitments of the World Summit for Social Development

1. To create an economic, political, social, cultural and legal environment that will allow social development.
2. To achieve the goal of eradicating poverty in the world.
3. To promote full employment as a priority of economic and social policies.
4. To promote social integration by fostering stable, safe and just societies.
5. To achieve equality and equity between women and men.
6. To achieve universal and equitable access to quality education, physical and mental health and primary health care.
7. To accelerate the economic, social and human resource development of Africa and the least developed countries.
8. To ensure that when structural adjustment programmes are agreed to they include social development goals.
9. To increase or utilize more efficiently the resources allocated to social development.
10. To improve international cooperation for social development through the United Nations and other multilateral institutions.

very different from those normally found in such international forums— were conceptual in character (the notion of “gender”, for example, on which there were strong disagreement, notable for their use of disinformation). Others were related to the **rights of women** as individuals, within the family and in institutions, particularly in areas concerning sexuality, reproduction and human rights in general; still others dealt with the **impact of the market, trade, the environment and global economic trends on women’s situation**.

In the awareness that greater equity for women brings many benefits to society, international organizations have committed themselves to supporting projects to help women. The Inter-American Development Bank, for example, has decided that in the next few years 50% of its projects in support of micro-enterprises and training, among other things, will be aimed at women.

Of note in the region is the Regional Programme of Action for the Women of Latin America and the Caribbean, 1995-2001, which was the outcome of the Sixth Session of the Regional Conference on the Integration of Women into the Economic and Social Development of Latin America and the Caribbean, held in Mar del Plata, Argentina in 1994. The core objective of the Programme is “to expedite the achievement of gender equity and the complete integration of women into the development process, together with the full exercise of citizenship in the framework of sustainable development with social justice and democracy”.⁵¹

Lastly, questions remain concerning the implementation of the agreements reached at the two conferences, the political and economic viability of the agreements, and the role of Governments, non-governmental organizations and international organizations in translating the proposals into concrete action.

⁵¹ ECLAC, Regional Programme of Action for the Women of Latin America and the Caribbean, 1995-2001 (LC/G.1855), Santiago, Chile, January 1995.





STATISTICAL APPENDIX



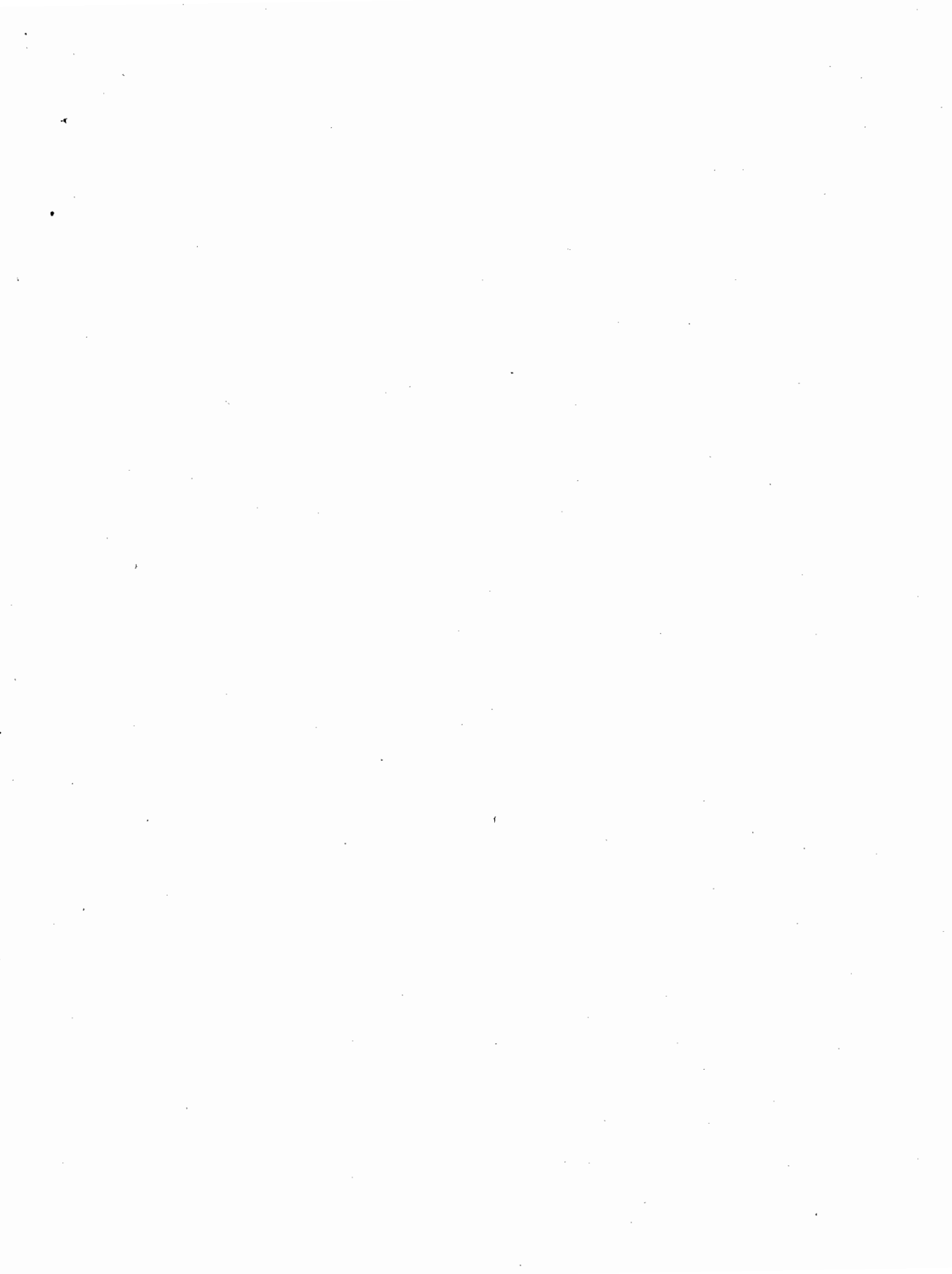


Table 1

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES) : TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS,
1980 - 1994

	Per capita GDP (in 1980 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1980 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (%)	Mean monthly variation of consumer price index	Percentage variations			
					Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Urban minimum wage
Argentina								
1980	4129	4072	2.6	6.0	1980-1986	-11.5	-17.6	10.0
1986	3655	3355	5.6	5.5	1986-1990	-10.9	-12.9	-63.5
1990	3255	2924	7.5	29.9	1990-1992	15.4	19.0	103.7
1992	3757	3478	7.0	1.9	1992-1994	10.7	10.5	78.6
1994	4158	3845	11.5	0.3	1990-1994	27.7	31.5	263.9
Bolivia								
1980	818	771	7.1	3.3	1980-1989	-19.3	-25.7	...
1989	660	573	10.2	1.2	1989-1992	3.8	-1.3	40.6
1992	685	565	5.8	1.0	1992-1994	3.4	0.5	21.3
1994	708	568	5.8	0.7	1989-1994	7.3	-0.8	70.6
Brazil								
1979	1880	1850	6.4	3.5	1979-1987	9.4	4.7	-25.5
1987	2056	1936	3.7	10.2	1987-1990	-6.8	-7.5	-26.4
1990	1916	1792	4.3	32.4	1990-1992	-4.0	-2.8	2.5
1992	1839	1742	5.8	20.8	1992-1994	6.4	7.1	4.8
1994	1957	1866	5.1	21.4	1990-1994	2.2	4.1	7.4
Chile								
1980	2315	2228	9.0	2.5	1980-1987	-2.6	-9.6	-30.9
1987	2255	2015	11.9	1.5	1987-1990	15.3	15.1	26.6
1990	2601	2319	6.5	2.0	1990-1992	14.3	11.9	14.3
1992	2972	2596	5.0	1.2	1992-1994	6.7	8.0	8.8
1994	3172	2803	6.3	0.7	1990-1994	21.9	20.8	24.4
Colombia								
1980	1225	1221	9.7	2.0	1980-1986	7.0	5.4	14.2
1986	1310	1287	13.8	1.4	1986-1990	10.2	6.3	-5.5
1990	1444	1369	10.5	2.2	1990-1992	2.1	3.8	-5.0
1992	1474	1421	10.2	2.0	1992-1994	7.2	8.5	1.1
1994	1580	1542	8.9	1.7	1990-1994	9.4	12.7	-4.0
Costa Rica								
1981	1471	1263	9.1	2.7	1981-1988	-3.9	-1.3	26.8
1988	1414	1246	6.3	1.6	1988-1990	3.4	4.5	5.2
1990	1461	1302	5.4	1.5	1990-1992	4.2	7.2	-7.5
1992	1523	1396	4.3	1.7	1992-1994	5.5	9.1	1.2
1994	1606	1522	4.3	1.5	1990-1994	9.9	16.9	-6.4
Guatemala								
1986	901	879	14.0	2.4	1986-1989	2.5	2.4	...
1989	923	901	6.1	1.0	1989-1992	2.4	7.5	-48.7
1992	946	968	5.7	0.8	1992-1994	1.7	3.1	...
1994	962	999	5.2	0.9	1989-1994	4.2	10.9	...
Honduras								
1980	705	664	8.8	1.4	1980-1988	-6.5	-5.8	...
1988	659	626	8.7	0.5	1988-1990	-1.9	-2.3	6.3
1990	647	611	6.9	1.8	1990-1992	2.3	1.9	13.4
1992	662	623	5.1	0.6	1992-1994	-1.2	2.2	-16.4
1994	654	637	6.3	2.1	1990-1994	1.1	4.2	-5.2

Table 1 (concluded)

	Per capita GDP (in 1980 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1980 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (Porcentaje)	Mean monthly variation of consumer prices	Percentage variations			
					Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Urban minimum wage
Mexico								
1984	2554	2339	5.7	4.3	1984-1989	-4.8	-5.8	-29.7
1989	2432	2204	2.9	1.5	1989-1992	5.2	5.9	-18.4
1992	2558	2334	2.8	1.2	1992-1994	0.4	-0.5	-1.4
1994	2569	2321	3.7	0.6	1989-1994	5.6	5.3	-19.6
Panama								
1979	1594	1582	11.6	0.6	1979-1986	16.5	21.0	...
1986	1858	1914	12.7	0.0	1986-1989	-19.3	-30.2	...
1989	1500	1336	20.4	0.0	1989-1991	10.5	20.7	-1.8
1991	1657	1613	19.3	0.1	1991-1994	12.9	17.5	8.5
1994	1871	1896	15.8	0.1	1989-1994	24.7	41.9	6.6
Paraguay								
1986	1197	1206	6.1	2.3	1986-1990	7.5	17.5	21.5
1990	1287	1417	6.6	2.7	1990-1992	-1.7	-5.0	-12.9
1992	1265	1346	5.3	1.2	1992-1994	1.8	6.9	-1.3
1994	1287	1439	4.6	1.4	1990-1994	0.0	1.6	-14.0
Peru								
1980	1188	1136	7.1	3.9	1980-1986	-6.8	-11.3	-43.7
1986	1107	1007	5.4	4.2	1986-1990	-23.7	-22.7	-58.5
1990	844	779	8.3	43.7	1990-1992	-3.6	-5.0	-32.0
1992	814	740	9.4	3.8	1992-1994	15.4	15.9	-9.0
1994	940	858	8.8	1.2	1990-1994	11.3	10.2	-38.1
Uruguay								
1981	2316	2283	6.7	2.5	1981-1986	-9.8	-17.3	-14.4
1986	2090	1888	13.1	4.8	1986-1990	7.8	9.1	-21.9
1990	2254	2059	9.3	6.5	1990-1992	10.1	12.8	-12.6
1992	2480	2322	9.0	4.4	1992-1994	6.5	9.9	-23.0
1994	2641	2553	9.1	3.1	1990-1994	17.2	24.0	-32.7
Venezuela								
1981	3893	3926	6.8	1.3	1981-1986	-13.4	-28.7	4.9
1986	3372	2799	10.7	0.9	1986-1990	-2.4	4.5	-34.4
1990	3291	2925	11.0	2.9	1990-1992	10.7	4.7	23.6
1992	3644	3061	8.1	2.3	1992-1994	-7.3	-12.0	-5.6
1994	3377	2694	8.7	4.6	1990-1994	2.6	-7.9	16.7

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

a/ Refers to real per capita gross national income.

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES) : DISTRIBUTION OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION,
BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, 1980 - 1992
(Percentages)
URBAN AREAS

	Total	Employers	Wage-earners						Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector				Total a/	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	*****	5.5	69.2	...	69.2	6.4	46.0	12.8	25.3	22.4
1986	*****	5.0	68.8	...	68.8	7.9	42.7	12.9	26.1	23.0
1990	*****	5.4	69.2	...	69.2	9.1	43.0	12.6	25.4	21.8
1992	*****	5.5	70.0	...	70.0	24.5	...
Bolivia										
1989	*****	2.7	52.7	18.3	34.4	3.0	13.9	12.1	44.6	42.4
1992	*****	5.6	55.1	15.5	39.6	4.1	20.6	11.3	39.3	37.3
Brazil c/										
1979	*****	4.4	75.4	...	75.4	8.2	43.2	16.5	20.2	19.3
1987	*****	4.0	74.1	...	74.1	8.7	40.1	18.3	21.8	20.6
1990	*****	5.2	72.4	...	72.4	8.8	39.0	18.5	22.4	21.2
Chile d/										
1987	*****	1.6	72.9	11.6	61.3	6.9	46.7	...	25.5	23.2
1990	*****	2.4	73.8	...	73.8	12.0	54.8	...	23.8	21.9
1992	*****	2.1	74.4	...	74.4	12.3	42.3	13.1	23.5	22.1
Colombia (8 major cities)										
1980	*****	4.0	69.6	10.6	59.1	4.9	47.4	...	26.4	24.6
1986	*****	3.7	68.7	10.6	58.1	5.4	46.5	...	27.6	25.6
1990	*****	4.2	69.5	10.4	59.2	6.9	46.8	...	26.3	23.9
1992	*****	3.8	67.5	9.3	58.2	6.7	46.4	...	28.7	26.0
Costa Rica										
1981	*****	3.9	77.3	29.9	47.5	4.6	26.0	11.8	18.7	17.8
1988	*****	4.8	75.9	26.8	49.2	5.9	28.2	11.7	19.2	17.7
1990	*****	5.5	74.8	25.0	49.7	5.8	29.5	10.0	19.7	18.2
1992	*****	4.6	77.0	25.0	52.0	6.7	32.3	9.6	18.4	16.6
Guatemala										
1986	*****	4.5	62.1	13.8	48.3	6.2	17.5	15.3	33.3	32.5
1989	*****	2.6	63.8	14.7	49.2	7.6	20.3	14.3	33.6	32.7
Honduras										
1990	*****	1.5	65.5	14.4	51.1	4.9	26.3	13.2	33.0	31.6
1992	*****	1.6	66.1	14.9	51.2	6.6	28.1	9.9	32.3	30.8
Mexico e/										
1984	*****	2.6	71.9	...	71.9	4.8	64.5	...	25.5	24.8
1989	*****	3.3	76.4	...	76.4	7.3	66.4	...	20.3	19.2
1992	*****	4.8	76.8	...	76.8	6.6	47.9	19.0	18.4	17.4
Panama										
1979	*****	2.1	80.6 f/	31.1	44.7	5.5	33.0	...	17.3	17.0
1986	*****	1.9	75.7	27.4	48.3	3.6	32.3	5.5	22.4	21.9
1989	*****	2.0	71.5	29.2	42.3	3.3	26.3	6.2	26.5	25.6
1991	*****	3.4	73.1	26.6	46.5	4.1	30.0	5.4	23.5	22.5

Table 2 (concluded)

URBAN AREAS										
	Total	Employers	Wage-earners						Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector				Total a/	Non-professional, non-technical
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons		
Paraguay (Asunción)										
1986	*****	7.7	65.4	12.6	52.8	4.6	22.0	12.3	26.9	24.9
1990	*****	9.2	66.3	12.9	53.4	5.1	21.1	15.8	24.5	22.9
1992	*****	6.8	68.3	14.3	54.0	7.3	24.4	11.5	24.9	22.2
Uruguay										
1981	*****	4.6	76.7	23.7	53.0	2.6	35.4	8.0	18.7	17.1
1986	*****	5.8	72.4	22.9	49.5	3.2	29.3	9.6	21.8	20.1
1990	*****	4.5	74.2	21.8	52.4	3.6	31.5	10.4	21.3	19.3
1992	*****	4.4	72.7	18.7	54.0	4.8	32.7	9.5	22.9	20.1
Venezuela										
1981	*****	6.0	75.0	24.8	50.2	4.6	34.4	7.7	19.0	18.4
1986	*****	7.5	71.2	21.7	49.6	5.2	34.0	6.6	21.3	20.6
1990	*****	7.5	70.0	22.5	47.5	5.7	31.3	6.5	22.5	21.5
1992	*****	7.6	70.1	19.5	50.6	4.4	34.8	6.4	22.3	21.2

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

a/ Includes household employees. For Argentina, Brazil, Chile (1990 and 1992) and Mexico, also includes public-sector wage-earners.

b/ For Chile (1987 and 1990), Colombia, Mexico (1984 and 1989) 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/ Brazil's National Household Survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments.

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.

d/ The data are from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

e/ The data are from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIG).

f/ Includes persons employed in the Panama Canal Zone.

Table 3

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES) : DISTRIBUTION OF THE EMPLOYED
ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, 1980 - 1992
(Percentages)

RURAL AREAS

	Total	Employ-ers	Wage-earners			Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector	Total a/	Agriculture
Brazil b/							
1979	100.0	2.8	38.0	...	38.0	59.2	53.2
1987	100.0	2.2	43.8	...	43.8	54.0	46.1
1990	100.0	3.0	44.2	...	44.2	52.8	44.5
Chile c/							
1987	100.0	1.3	63.7	3.2	60.5	35.0	27.4
1990	100.0	2.8	64.8	...	64.8	32.4	25.1
1992	100.0	1.5	64.4	...	64.4	34.1	26.0
Costa Rica							
1981	100.0	3.3	70.0	12.2	57.8	26.7	17.0
1988	100.0	4.9	65.8	10.3	55.5	29.3	18.6
1990	100.0	5.1	66.2	10.5	55.7	28.7	16.8
1992	100.1	5.1	67.5	10.1	57.4	27.5	15.1
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
1992	100.0	0.5	36.9	6.4	30.5	62.6	42.5
Mexico d/							
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
1992	100.0	1.6	48.9	...	48.8	49.5	33.6
Panama							
1979	100.0	0.7	40.1 e/	13.5	25.8	59.2	48.9
1986	100.0	2.3	47.6	14.8	32.8	50.0	39.1
1989	100.0	2.0	38.9	11.5	27.5	59.1	47.3
1991	100.0	2.9	39.1	12.5	26.6	58.0	45.5
Venezuela							
1981	100.0	6.8	47.6	9.2	38.4	45.6	30.9
1986	100.0	6.3	44.8	7.9	36.9	48.8	36.0
1990	100.0	6.9	46.6	8.3	38.3	46.5	33.3
1992	100.0	8.2	50.3	7.8	42.5	41.5	26.5

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

a/ Includes household employees. For Brazil, Chile (1990 and 1992) and Mexico, also includes public-sector wage-earners.

b/ Brazil's National Household Survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments. 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.

c/ The data are from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

d/ The data are from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIG).

e/ Includes persons employed in the Panama Canal Zone.

Table 4

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES) : AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED
ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, 1980 - 1992
(In multiples of the respective per cápita poverty lines)

URBAN AREAS

	Total	Employers	Wage-earners						Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector				Total b/	Non-professional, non-technical
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	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
1986	7.5	19.9	6.4	...	6.4	11.5	6.4	4.6	8.0	7.0
1990	6.4	20.6	4.7	...	4.7	9.4	4.5	3.6	7.9	7.2
1992	7.9	23.7	6.0	...	6.0	9.9	...
Bolivia										
1989	4.2	14.4	3.8	4.3	3.5	8.1	4.0	2.8	4.1	3.8
1992	4.3	12.9	3.9	4.9	3.5	7.2	3.5	2.8	3.5	3.2
Brazil c/										
1979	5.6	21.8	4.6	...	4.6	9.0	4.9	3.1	5.8	5.2
1987	5.2	22.2	4.3	...	4.3	7.7	4.9	2.7	5.5	4.9
1990	4.4	15.5	3.8	...	3.8	7.0	4.0	2.8	3.7	3.3
Chile d/										
1987	4.3	20.9	3.9	5.3	3.6	8.7	3.2	...	4.4	3.9
1990	4.3	17.6	4.1	...	4.1	7.0	3.7	...	3.9	3.6
1992	4.7	24.0	4.2	...	4.2	8.4	3.8	2.8	4.7	4.5
Colombia (8 major cities)										
1980	4.0	17.1	3.1	4.8	2.8	7.1	2.5	...	4.3	3.7
1986	4.1	12.1	3.3	5.1	2.9	5.6	2.8	...	4.8	4.4
1990	3.9	11.7	3.3	5.1	3.0	6.7	2.6	...	4.4	3.7
1992	3.4	11.1	2.9	4.6	2.7	6.2	2.3	...	3.5	3.1
Costa Rica										
1981	6.6	13.1	6.3	8.9	4.6	7.6	5.1	3.5	7.3	6.9
1988	5.4	8.9	5.1	6.8	4.2	6.6	4.5	3.0	5.4	5.1
1990	5.2	6.8	5.4	7.3	4.4	7.2	4.6	3.3	3.7	3.5
1992	5.1	10.0	5.0	6.9	4.1	7.5	4.0	3.1	4.3	3.9
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
1992	2.4	8.6	2.4	3.5	2.1	4.8	2.1	1.4	1.9	1.6
Mexico e/										
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
1992	4.7	23.0	3.8	...	3.8	5.8	4.3	2.4	3.6	3.3
Panama										
1979	5.6	12.5	5.9 f/	6.0	5.4	7.0	5.9	...	3.0	2.9
1986	5.5	12.8	6.2	7.1	5.6	15.8	6.2	3.1	2.7	2.6
1989	4.9	13.4	5.6	7.4	4.4	13.2	5.0	3.0	2.2	2.0
1991	5.0	11.8	5.5	7.4	4.4	8.2	4.8	3.0	2.5	2.3

Table 4 (concluded)

URBAN AREAS										
	Total	Employ-ers	Wage-earners						Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector				Total b/	Non-professional, non-technical
					Total a/	Profes-sional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b	Establishments employing up to 5 persons		
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
1992	3.6	10.7	3.0	4.4	2.6	5.9	2.5	2.1	3.4	3.1
Uruguay										
1981	6.0	23.6	4.3	5.0	4.0	6.9	4.5	3.0	7.7	7.1
1986	5.0	22.4	3.5	4.1	3.2	6.1	3.6	2.3	5.8	5.3
1990	4.3	12.0	3.7	4.0	3.5	6.0	4.0	2.5	3.5	3.3
1992	4.6	13.1	4.2	4.5	4.1	9.3	4.3	2.8	3.9	3.3
Venezuela										
1981	7.6	11.5	7.8	8.8	7.3	12.3	7.6	5.0	5.2	5.0
1986	5.7	11.9	5.3	5.9	5.0	5.3	5.5	3.5	4.4	4.2
1990	4.5	12.0	3.7	3.9	3.6	4.2	4.0	2.5	4.5	4.3
1992	4.8	12.3	3.8	4.4	3.5	6.4	3.6	2.5	5.4	5.1

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

a/ For Argentina, Brazil and Mexico, includes public-sector wage-earners.

b/ Includes wage-earners in the agriculture, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors together with wage-earners in professional and technical occupations.

c/ Brazil's National Household Survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments.

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.

d/ The data are from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

e/ The data are from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIG).

f/ Includes persons employed in the Panama Canal Zone.

Table 5

**LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES) : AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED
ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, 1980 - 1992**
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty lines)

RURAL AREAS

	Total	Employ- ers	Wage-earners			Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total a/	Public sector	Private sector	Total b/	Agri- culture
Brazil							
1979	2.1	10.9	2.3	...	2.3	1.5	1.3
1987	3.0	20.3	2.4	...	2.4	2.7	2.4
1990	2.4	10.7	2.6	...	2.6	1.8	1.6
Chile c/							
1987	3.2	18.7	2.8	5.5	2.6	3.5	3.4
1990	3.9	26.4	3.3	...	3.3	3.1	3.0
1992	3.8	26.2	3.3	...	3.3	3.6	3.6
Costa Rica							
1981	5.9	16.6	5.1	9.8	4.1	7.1	6.9
1988	5.2	11.5	4.8	6.8	4.4	5.1	4.6
1990	5.1	9.9	5.2	8.4	4.6	4.0	3.9
1992	5.3	9.9	5.2	7.8	4.8	4.6	4.6
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
1992	1.7	4.9	2.2	4.0	1.8	1.4	1.4
Mexico d/							
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
1992	2.9	10.5	2.7	...	2.7	2.1	2.1
Panama							
1979	3.6	4.0	5.6 e/	6.7	4.6	2.3	2.0
1986	3.9	11.3	5.0	7.8	3.7	2.5	2.2
1989	3.1	9.4	5.0	8.0	3.7	1.7	1.5
1991	3.4	10.8	5.2	7.7	4.0	1.9	1.9
Venezuela							
1981	6.1	11.0	7.4	9.4	6.9	3.9	3.3
1986	4.3	11.9	4.4	6.2	4.0	3.1	2.8
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

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

a/ For Brazil, Chile (1990 and 1992) and Mexico, also includes public-sector wage-earners.

b/ Includes wage-earners in all sectors of activity.

c/ The data are from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

d/ The data are from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIG).

e/ Includes persons employed in the Panama Canal Zone.

Table 6

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1980 - 1992
(Percentages of the total employed urban population)

	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Household employment	Unskilled independent workers c/		
		Employers	Wage-earners				Total d/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
			Total	Professional and technical b/	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
1986	45.0	3.3	13.4	0.5	12.9	5.3	23.0	6.4	16.5
1990	43.1	3.8	13.0	0.4	12.6	4.5	21.8	6.6	15.2
1992	45.0	3.9	15.0	4.5	21.6	6.5	15.0
Bolivia									
1989	62.3	1.1	13.2	1.1	12.1	5.4	42.6	10.0	31.0
1992	56.3	3.8	11.9	0.6	11.3	3.6	37.0	11.0	25.0
Brazil e/									
1979	45.7	...	18.9	2.4	16.5	7.5	19.3	3.3	13.5
1987	48.8	...	21.2	2.9	18.3	7.0	20.6	3.7	14.7
1990	48.8	...	21.5	3.0	18.5	6.1	21.2	3.5	15.6
Chile f/									
1987	7.7	23.2 g/	6.2	15.5
1990	7.0	21.9 g/	5.7	15.2
1992	43.4	2.7	14.6	1.5	13.1	6.7	19.4	5.2	13.3
Colombia (8 major cities)									
1980	6.8	24.6	7.6	16.5
1986	6.2	25.6	6.1	19.0
1990	5.5	23.9	5.8	17.7
1992	5.1	26.0	6.8	18.8
Costa Rica									
1981	37.7	2.8	12.0	0.2	11.8	5.1	17.8	4.9	11.1
1988	37.3	3.8	12.4	0.7	11.7	3.4	17.7	5.9	10.5
1990	37.6	4.4	10.6	0.6	10.0	4.4	18.2	6.5	10.6
1992	33.9	3.3	10.6	1.0	9.6	3.4	16.6	5.9	9.6
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
1992	48.8	0.8	10.6	0.7	9.9	6.6	30.8	7.9	18.9
Mexico h/									
1984	2.6	24.8	2.2	14.0
1989	2.7	19.2	3.0	12.8
1992	44.3	3.7	19.9	0.9	19.0	3.3	17.4	3.3	13.1
Panama									
1979	6.2	17.0	4.0	9.9
1986	35.8	1.3	5.7	0.2	5.5	6.9	21.9	4.6	8.9
1989	39.9	1.2	6.6	0.4	6.2	6.5	25.6	4.6	11.9
1991	37.8	2.6	5.7	0.3	5.4	7.0	22.5	4.3	11.2

Table 6 (concluded)

	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Household employment	Unskilled independent workers c/		
		Employers	Wage-earners				Total d/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
			Total	Professional and technical b/	Non-professional, non-technical				
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
1992	50.4	4.9	12.5	1.0	11.5	10.8	22.2	6.3	15.2
Uruguay									
1981	35.2	2.9	8.2	0.2	8.0	7.0	17.1	5.5	11.2
1986	41.3	3.9	9.9	0.3	9.8	7.4	20.1	6.3	12.9
1990	39.5	2.7	10.6	0.2	10.4	6.9	19.3	5.7	12.2
1992	39.6	2.6	9.9	0.4	9.5	7.0	20.1	6.3	12.5
Venezuela									
1981	34.7	4.5	8.3	0.6	7.7	3.5	18.4	4.3	12.9
1986	37.2	5.1	7.7	0.1	7.6	3.8	20.6	4.2	14.7
1990	37.1	4.9	6.7	0.2	6.5	4.0	21.5	4.1	15.5
1992	37.9	5.1	6.6	0.2	6.4	5.0	21.2	4.2	15.6

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

- 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/ Values for samples that are not statistically significant.
- c/ Refers to own-account and unpaid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations.
- d/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.
- e/ Wage-earners lacking an employment contract are included under the heading "Micro-enterprises".
- f/ The data are from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).
- g/ Includes employers in micro-enterprises.
- h/ The data are from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIG).

Table 7

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES) : AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN
LOW- PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1980 - 1992
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty lines)

	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				House- hold employ- ment	Unskilled independent workers c/		
		Employers	Wage-earners				Total d/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
			Total	Professional and technical b/	Non-profes- sional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)									
1980	7.8	18.4	5.1	10.5	4.9	3.2	8.7	8.0	9.1
1986	6.8	18.7	4.9	11.3	4.6	3.2	7.0	6.9	7.0
1990	6.6	18.4	3.7	7.6	3.6	2.5	7.2	6.9	7.3
1992	...	21.6	4.9	3.6
Bolivia									
1989	3.6	11.2	3.3	8.3	2.8	1.5	3.8	3.4	4.0
1992	3.5	11.2	3.0	6.9	2.8	1.2	3.2	2.9	3.4
Brasil e/									
1979	3.9	...	3.6	6.9	3.1	1.1	5.2	5.0	5.7
1987	3.6	...	3.2	6.5	2.7	1.0	4.9	4.5	5.2
1990	3.0	...	3.4	7.0	2.8	0.9	3.3	3.1	3.5
Chile f/									
1987	2.0	3.9	3.1 g/	4.3
1990	1.6	3.6	3.0 g/	3.8
1992	3.6	11.8	3.3	7.3	2.8	1.7	3.4	3.2	3.6
Colombia (8 major cities)									
1980	2.1	3.7	2.9	3.9
1986	1.6	4.4	3.8	4.4
1990	1.7	3.7	3.3	3.8
1992	1.5	3.1	2.6	3.2
Costa Rica									
1981	5.6	12.9	3.5	5.1	3.5	1.7	6.9	5.6	7.1
1988	4.4	8.1	3.1	5.0	3.0	1.5	5.1	4.2	5.5
1990	3.6	6.5	3.5	6.1	3.3	1.5	3.5	3.0	3.7
1992	4.0	9.2	3.3	4.8	3.1	1.4	3.9	3.1	4.3
Guatemala									
1986	2.3	7.6	1.6	2.5	1.6	1.7	2.2	1.8	2.6
1989	2.9	13.1	1.8	4.2	1.7	1.4	3.0	2.4	3.7
Honduras									
1990	1.6	7.6	1.7	4.0	1.6	0.8	1.6	1.2	1.6
1992	1.5	5.1	1.5	3.4	1.4	0.6	1.6	1.6	1.7
Mexico h/									
1984	1.7	4.1	4.3	3.6
1989	1.4	4.4	3.9	5.2
1992	3.6	13.6	2.4	3.3	2.4	1.5	3.3	2.8	3.5
Panama									
1979	1.3	2.9	3.2	3.3
1986	2.7	10.1	3.2	7.1	3.1	1.5	2.6	3.0	3.5
1989	2.3	9.1	3.3	8.2	3.0	1.3	2.0	2.4	2.5
1991	2.6	7.7	3.1	5.5	3.0	1.3	2.3	2.5	2.9

Table 7 (concluded)

	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Household employment	Unskilled independent workers c/		
		Employers	Wage-earners				Total d/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
			Total	Professional and technical b/	Non-professional, non-technical				
Paraguay (Asunción)									
1986	2.3	7.6	1.7	...	1.7	0.7	2.2	1.7	2.5
1990	3.1	8.3	1.8	...	1.8	0.8	3.6	2.4	4.1
1992	3.1	9.9	2.4	5.5	2.1	1.0	3.1	2.9	3.2
Uruguay									
1981	6.1	19.9	3.0	3.6	3.0	1.7	7.1	5.7	7.9
1986	5.3	20.4	2.3	3.7	2.3	1.5	5.3	4.1	5.8
1990	3.2	8.9	2.5	4.9	2.5	1.5	3.3	2.1	3.0
1992	3.4	10.4	2.8	4.0	2.8	1.7	3.3	2.5	3.7
Venezuela									
1981	5.7	10.9	5.5	11.6	5.0	2.9	5.0	4.6	5.3
1986	4.6	9.5	3.5	5.1	3.5	2.3	4.2	3.8	4.5
1990	4.4	9.6	2.5	3.2	2.5	1.4	4.3	4.0	4.5
1992	4.9	10.3	2.5	3.8	2.5	2.0	5.1	4.6	5.4

Source : ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

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/ Values for samples that are not statistically significant.

c/ Refers to own-account and unpaid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations.

d/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.

e/ Wage-earners lacking an employment contract are included under the heading "Micro-enterprises".

f/ The data are from national socio-economic surveys (CASEN).

g/ Includes employers in micro-enterprises.

h/ The data are from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIG).

Table 8

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES) : INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES a/
(Percentages)
URBAN AREAS

	Total population	Total employed population	Private-sector wage-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	Household employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)							
1990	21	10	12	15	21	8	6
1992	13	5	6 c/	7	8	3	2
Bolivia							
1989	53	40	41	52	33	47	40
1992	50	38	43	46	11	49	44
Brazil b/							
1990	43	34	30	46	53	43	37
Chile							
1990	39	27	29 c/	...	37	36	32
1992	32	22	23 d/	31	24	29	25
Colombia (8 major cities)							
1990	39	29	36 e/	...	27	30	34
1992	43	32	40 e/	...	28	37	37
Costa Rica							
1990	25	15	15	22	28	28	24
1992	27	17	16	31	42	22	22
Guatemala							
1989	53	42	45	54	42	47	34
Honduras							
1990	70	60	56	75	51	81	72
1992	71	60	62	78	52	79	71
Mexico							
1989	42	33	36 f/	...	60	31	29
1992	37	29	26 d/	45	51	43	25
Panama							
1989	41	28	22	34	31	43	43
1991	40	26	22	38	31	42	38
Paraguay (Asunción)							
1990	42	32	38	49	29	41	31
1992	39	27	38	36	29	32	33
Uruguay							
1990	18	11	9	19	25	21	14
1992	12	8	6	11	19	11	11
Venezuela							
1990	39	22	23	33	30	25	22
1992	36	21	25	32	35	17	17

Source : ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Refers to the percentage of employed persons in each category residing in households situated below the poverty line.

b/ 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/ 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 9

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES) : INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES a/
(Percentages)
RURAL AREAS

	Total population	Total employed population	Private-sector wage-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	Household employees	Total	Agriculture, forestry and fisheries
Brazil b/							
1990	63	55	34	58	55	62	65
Chile							
1990	43	29	29 c/	...	24	28	37
1992	34	23	18 d/	27	20	20	32
Costa Rica							
1990	27	17	13	23	22	24	27
1992	28	16	11	21	25	22	25
Guatemala							
1989	78	70	72	74	64	71	76
Honduras							
1990	88	83	71	90	72	88	90
1992	84	78	73	81	68	83	87
Mexico							
1989	57	49	53 e/	...	50	47	54
1992	55	47	43 d/	59	37	47	55
Panama							
1989	57	46	22	45	42	61	67
1991	51	40	24	43	43	52	57
Venezuela							
1990	47	31	35	37	44	32	37
1992	44	28	10	35	35	27	34

Source : ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Refers to the percentage of employed persons in each category residing in households situated below the poverty line.

b/ 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/ Refers to all wage-earners.

d/ Includes public-sector wage-earners.

e/ Includes wage-earners in the public sector and in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

Table 10

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Households below the poverty line a/					Households below the indigence line				
		Total	Urban			Rural	Total	Urban			Rural
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Argentina	1970	8	5	19	1	1	1
	1980	9	7	5	9	16	2	2	1	2	4
	1986	13	12	9	15	17	4	3	3	4	6
	1990	16	4
	1992	10	1
Bolivia	1989	...	50	22
	1992	...	46	18
Brazil	1970	49	35	73	25	15	42
	1979	39	30	21 b/	34	62	17	10	6 b/	12	35
	1987	40	34	24 b/	37	60	18	13	8 b/	16	34
	1990	43	39	56	...	22
Chile c/	1970	17	12	25	6	3	11
	1987	39	38	34	41	45	14	14	11	15	17
	1990	33	33	29	36	34	11	10	8	12	12
	1992	28	28	22	31	28	7	7	5	8	8
	1994	24	24	18	27	26	7	6	4	7	8
Colombia	1970	45	38	54	18	14	23
	1980	39	36	30	37	45	16	13	10	14	22
	1986	38	36	31	37	42	17	15	11	16	22
	1990	...	35	12
Costa Rica	1970	24	15	30	6	5	7
	1981	22	16	15	17	28	6	5	5	6	8
	1988	25	21	19	22	28	8	6	5	6	10
	1990	24	22	20	25	25	10	7	5	9	12
	1992	25	25	22	29	25	10	8	7	9	12
Guatemala	1970
	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	1970	65	40	75	45	15	57
	1986	71	53	81	51	28	64
	1990	75	65	84	54	38	66
	1992	73	66	79	50	38	59
Mexico	1970	34	20	49	12	6	18
	1977	32	...	d/	...	d/	...	d/	d/
	1984	34	28	...	e/	...	e/	e/	20
	1989	39	34	49	14	9	23
	1992	36	30	46	12	7	20
Panama	1970
	1979	36	31	27	42	45	19	14	12	19	27
	1986	34	30	27	41	43	16	13	11	19	22
	1989	38	34	32	42	48	18	15	14	20	25
	1991	36	34	32	40	43	16	14	14	15	21
Paraguay	1986	46	16
	1990	37	10
	1992	36	13

Table 10 (concluded)

Country	Year	Households below the poverty line a/					Households below the indigence line				
		Total	Urban			Rural	Total	Urban			Rural
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
<i>Peru</i>	1970	50	28	68	25	8	39
	1979	46	35	29	41	65	21	12	9	15	37
	1986	52	45	37	53	64	25	16	11	22	39
<i>Uruguay</i>	1970	...	10	4
	1981	11	9	6	13	21	3	2	1	3	7
	1986	15	14	9	19	23	3	3	2	4	8
	1990	...	12	7	17	2	1	3	...
	1992	...	8	4	12	1	1	2	...
<i>Venezuela</i>	1970	25	20	36	10	6	19
	1981	22	18	12	20	35	7	5	3	6	15
	1986	27	25	16	28	34	9	8	4	9	14
	1990	34	33	25	36	38	12	11	7	12	17
	1992	33	32	21	35	36	11	10	6	12	10
<i>Latin America</i>	1970	40	26	62	19	10	34
	1980	35	25	54	15	9	28
	1986	37	30	53	17	11	30
	1990	39	34	53	18	13	30

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

a/ Includes households below the indigence or extreme poverty line.

b/ Average of the figures for Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo.

c/ Calculations based on the 1987, 1990, 1992 and 1994 CASEN (national socio-economic survey) data. Estimates adjusted for the latest figures for the household income and expenditure account from the Ministry of Planning and Cooperation (MIDEPLAN).

d/ Information available only at the national level.

e/ Estimates could not be made for the Federal District because the sample size is too small.

Table 11
LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS AND DISTRIBUTION

Country	Average household income a/		Gini coefficient b/		Poorest quartile's income share 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	...	0.365	...	9.3	...	18.0	...	29.8	...	6.7	...	66	...
1986	4.30	...	0.406	...	8.8	...	16.2	...	34.5	...	8.5	...	74	...
1990	3.59	...	0.423	...	8.4	...	14.9	...	34.8	...	9.3	...	72	...
1992	4.62	...	0.408	...	7.3	...	15.2	...	31.6	...	8.3	...	71	...
Bolivia d/ (17 cities)														
1989	1.76	...	0.482	...	5.3	...	12.2	...	37.9	...	12.4	...	72	...
1992	2.08	...	0.478	...	6.4	...	13.0	...	40.0	...	12.3	...	74	...
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
1987	3.43	1.50	0.543	0.472	4.4	6.6	9.7	13.9	44.3	40.0	18.2	11.5	76	75
1990	3.16	1.60	0.535	0.458	4.5	7.1	9.6	14.4	41.7	38.0	17.3	10.5	75	74
Chile e/ (Greater Santiago)														
1978	2.58	6.9	...	14.5	...	30.1	...	8.3
1988	2.82	5.7	...	12.6	...	33.4	...	10.6
Chile f/														
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	13.1	74	80
1992	3.10	2.72	0.474	0.415	6.7	8.5	13.6	16.6	40.5	37.4	11.9	9.1	75	76
1994	3.46	2.75	0.479	0.414	6.4	8.7	13.3	17.1	40.3	38.4	12.1	9.0	74	76
Colombia (8 major cities)														
1980	2.05	...	0.518	...	4.9	...	11.0	...	41.3	...	15.0	...	75	...
1986	2.36	...	0.455	...	5.7	...	13.0	...	35.3	...	10.9	...	72	...
1990	2.59	...	0.450	...	6.6	...	13.7	...	34.9	...	10.2	...	73	...
1992	2.44	...	0.454	...	5.9	...	12.9	...	34.5	...	10.7	...	72	...

Table 11 (cont.)

Country	Average household income a/		Gini coefficient b/		Poorest quartile's income share 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
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
1988	2.57	2.30	0.364	0.358	8.3	7.8	17.2	17.0	27.6	26.3	6.4	6.2	68	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
1992	2.49	2.30	0.362	0.358	7.9	7.7	17.0	17.3	26.9	25.2	6.4	5.8	67	66
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
1992	1.16	0.80	0.461	0.415	6.4	6.8	13.2	15.0	35.4	29.9	10.8	8.0	71	71
Mexico g/														
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
1992	2.74	1.75	0.414	0.341	8.7	10.0	16.6	19.4	34.8	28.9	8.4	6.0	73	72
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
1986	2.89	2.42	0.430	0.451	6.2	6.8	14.2	13.6	33.0	38.8	9.3	10.6	70	76
1989	2.86	1.90	0.460	0.432	6.0	7.6	13.2	15.0	36.2	36.1	10.9	9.7	73	73
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

Table 11 (concluded)

Country	Year	Average household income a/		Gini coefficient b/		Poorest quartile's income share 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
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	...
	1992	2.02	...	0.391	...	7.8	...	16.2	...	29.2	...	7.2	...	68	...
Uruguay (Urban areas)	1981	3.91	...	0.379	...	9.3	...	17.7	...	31.2	...	7.1	...	69	...
	1986	3.50	...	0.385	...	8.7	...	17.3	...	32.4	...	7.8	...	72	...
	1990	3.29	...	0.353	...	10.9	...	20.1	...	31.2	...	6.2	...	70	...
	1992	3.73	...	0.301	...	11.9	...	21.9	...	25.9	...	4.7	...	67	...
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
	1986	2.53	1.80	0.384	0.370	8.0	9.0	16.3	17.6	28.9	29.2	7.2	6.7	70	69
	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
1992	2.30	1.93	0.380	0.331	8.0	9.2	16.4	19.2	28.1	25.0	6.8	5.2	70	68	

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

- a/ Average 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 more cities, which represented 8.2% of the total.
- e/ Estimates for Greater Santiago based on measurements of household consumption expenditure made as part of household budget surveys conducted in 1978 and 1988.
- f/ Calculations based on 1987, 1990, 1992 and 1994 CASEN (national socio-economic survey) data. Estimates adjusted for the latest figures for the household income and expenditure account from the Ministry of Planning and Cooperation (MIDEPLAN).
- g/ The data are from national household income and expenditure surveys (ENIG).

Table 12
**LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES) : DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS,
 EXPRESSED IN TERMS OF THE POVERTY LINE**

Per capita income brackets expressed in terms of the poverty line	Urban areas											
	Argentina		Bolivia		Brazil	Chile		Colombia		Costa Rica		Guatemala
	1980	1992	1988	1992	1990	1980	1992	1990	1992	1990	1992	1988
(Indigent) 0 - 0.5	\$3.5	\$1.4	\$22.1	\$17.5	\$16.4	\$10.8	\$7.1	\$11.9	\$14.8	\$7.3	\$7.8	...
0.5 - 0.9	\$10.6	\$6.5	\$23.5	\$23.0	\$18.1	\$19.0	\$16.0	\$18.7	\$19.7	\$11.2	\$13.4	\$21.0
0.9 - 1.0	\$2.1	\$1.9	\$4.0	\$5.2	\$4.0	\$4.4	\$4.4	\$4.0	\$3.7	\$3.7	\$3.7	\$4.3
(Poor)	(\$16.2)	(\$9.8)	(\$49.6)	(\$45.7)	(\$38.5)	(\$34.2)	(\$27.5)	(\$34.6)	(\$38.2)	(\$24.2)	(\$24.9)	...
1.0 - 1.25	\$7.3	\$4.6	\$9.2	\$9.2	\$7.5	\$10.1	\$9.8	\$9.7	\$8.7	\$7.9	\$9.0	\$8.5
1.25 - 2.0	\$22.5	\$19.6	\$16.5	\$17.8	\$15.7	\$20.3	\$21.6	\$19.1	\$18.2	\$21.9	\$22.2	\$17.3
2.0 - 3.0	\$18.7	\$18.6	\$10.3	\$12.0	\$11.6	\$14.4	\$15.7	\$13.4	\$13.0	\$20.2	\$18.6	\$11.0
Over 3.0	\$35.3	\$47.5	\$14.4	\$15.3	\$26.7	\$21.1	\$25.5	\$23.2	\$22.0	\$27.9	\$25.4	\$15.0
	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0
	Urban areas											
	Honduras		Mexico		Panama		Paraguay		Uruguay		Venezuela	
	1980	1992	1989	1992	1989	1991	1990	1992	1990	1992	1990	1992
(Indigent) 0 - 0.5	\$38.0	\$38.3	\$9.3	\$6.9	\$14.8	\$13.9	\$10.4	\$13.2	\$2.0	\$1.4	\$10.9	\$10.4
0.5 - 0.9	\$22.7	\$24.7	\$19.8	\$18.5	\$15.7	\$15.5	\$21.7	\$17.1	\$7.0	\$4.5	\$17.5	\$16.6
0.9 - 1.0	\$3.8	\$2.6	\$4.8	\$4.0	\$3.5	\$4.2	\$4.7	\$5.3	\$2.8	\$1.8	\$5.0	\$4.8
(Poor)	(\$64.5)	(\$65.6)	(\$33.9)	(\$29.4)	(\$34.0)	(\$33.6)	(\$36.8)	(\$35.6)	(\$11.8)	(\$7.7)	(\$33.4)	(\$31.8)
1.0 - 1.25	\$8.2	\$7.9	\$11.0	\$9.7	\$8.4	\$8.5	\$13.6	\$10.4	\$7.1	\$4.8	\$10.9	\$9.6
1.25 - 2.0	\$12.0	\$12.7	\$22.3	\$21.4	\$17.8	\$17.0	\$19.6	\$21.1	\$22.7	\$18.5	\$21.5	\$22.4
2.0 - 3.0	\$6.5	\$5.6	\$13.1	\$15.6	\$14.2	\$13.7	\$14.2	\$15.0	\$23.1	\$22.8	\$14.8	\$14.9
Over 3.0	\$8.8	\$8.2	\$19.8	\$23.9	\$25.6	\$27.2	\$15.9	\$18.0	\$35.3	\$46.2	\$19.4	\$21.3
	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0	\$100.0

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

Table 13

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): SOCIAL EXPENDITURE
(Averages)

	Social expenditure/GDP			Real per capita social expenditure (1985 dollars) a/			Social expenditure/total public expenditure		
	1980- 1981	1982- 1989	1990- 1993	1980- 1981	1982- 1989	1990- 1993	1980- 1981	1982- 1989	1990- 1993
High	14.9	14.9	15.1	304.7	276.0	309.1	57.4	43.9	58.2
Uruguay	14.9	16.3	17.5 b/	278.1	277.2	329.6 b/	63.6	50.1	64.4 b/
Argentina	16.8	15.1	16.7	569.9	470.8	516.5	49.0	39.4	63.3
Costa Rica	15.2	15.2	15.9 b/	251.3	230.8	261.1 b/	66.1	51.0	63.2 b/
Chile	17.7	18.7	14.6	264.5	243.7	260.9	61.7	49.3	63.1 c/
Brazil d/	9.7	9.4	10.8 b/	159.6	157.5	177.3 b/	46.5	29.7	36.8 b/
Moderate	9.6	8.3	7.5	243.7	189.0	171.5	34.9	29.4	36.4
Venezuela	11.5	9.5	8.5 e/	475.5	346.5	306.1 e/	35.9	27.6	32.0 e/
Colombia	7.8	8.1	7.9 c/	91.4	97.9	107.2 c/	33.9	33.7 f/	...
Mexico	8.6	6.8	7.1 b/	224.8	163.0	167.4 b/	31.1	24.9	40.7 b/
Ecuador	10.3	8.9	6.4 b/	182.9	148.6	105.4 b/	38.8	31.4	36.6 b/
Low	5.1 g/	4.2 g/	3.3 g/	55.5 g/	41.2 g/	29.3 g/	25.8 g/	19.5 g/	25.2 g/
Bolivia	5.7	4.7	4.5 c/	73.0	49.2	45.0 a/	31.0	23.8	34.5 c/
Paraguay	3.9	4.2 h/	...	52.1	52.1 h/	...	37.7	57.5 h/	...
Peru d/	4.5	3.6	2.0 b/	38.0	33.1	13.6 b/	20.6	15.2	15.8 b/
Regional average g/	11.2	10.6	10.2	237.2	201.7	108.2	43.5	34.2	45.0

Source: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), *El gasto social en América Latina: un análisis cuantitativo y cualitativo*, Cuadernos de la CEPAL, series, No. 73 (LC/G.1854-P), Santiago, Chile, 1994. United Nations publication, Sales No.: S.95.II.G.9.

a/ The values for Bolivia, Venezuela and (to a lesser degree) Colombia appear overestimated, while those for Peru and (to a lesser degree) Brazil appear underestimated owing to the selection of 1985 as the base year.

b/ 1990-1991.

c/ 1990-1992.

d/ Underestimated owing to limited institutional coverage.

e/ 1990.

f/ 1982-1988.

g/ Simple average. Excludes Paraguay owing to the change in institutional coverage from 1988.

h/ 1982-1987.

Table 14

LATIN AMERICA (6 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTIVE IMPACT AND TARGETING OF SOCIAL EXPENDITURE

	Distribution of social expenditure per quintile (percentages)					Gini a/	If b/	Observations
	I	II	III	IV	V			
ARGENTINA (1980)								
Education	28	20	18	17	17	-0.10	...	Owing to a lack of updated information, it was not possible to calculate the targeting index with respect to the poor population, who made up 10% of the population in Argentina in 1980
- Primary	40	25	16	11	9	-0.30	...	
- Secondary	26	21	21	18	14	-0.11	...	
- Tertiary	8	9	18	27	38	0.31	...	
Health	44	18	20	11	7	-0.32	...	
Social security	10	13	3	23	34	0.23	...	
Housing	73	24	20	0	0	-0.68	...	
Total social expenditure	20	16	19	20	26	-0.06	...	
Total without social security	34	20	18	15	14	-0.18	...	
BOLIVIA (1992)								
- Education	24	22	21	19	14	-0.09	1.1	The targeting index corresponds to the poorest 60% of the population
- Primary and secondary	30	26	21	15	8	-0.22	1.3	
- Tertiary	9	13	21	29	28	0.22	0.7	
Public health	11	15	18	30	28	0.18	0.7	
Health and social security	11	16	20	22	32	0.18	0.8	
Total social expenditure	21	20	21	21	18	-0.03	1.1	
CHILE (1993)								
Education	27	23	19	16	15	-0.12	1.3	The targeting index corresponds to the poorest 40% of the population
- Primary	35	27	18	13	7	-0.28	1.6	
- Secondary	24	26	22	17	11	-0.14	1.3	
- Tertiary	9	12	17	24	38	0.28	0.5	
Health	32	26	21	15	6	-0.25	1.5	
Social security	4	9	15	25	47	0.41	0.3	
Social welfare	33	24	18	13	12	-0.21	1.4	
Housing	20	18	19	23	19	0.02	1.0	
Total social expenditure	16	16	17	21	30	0.13	0.8	
Total without social security	29	24	19	16	16	-0.17	1.3	
COLOMBIA (1992)								
Education	27	24	22	18	9	-0.17	1.3	The targeting index corresponds to the poorest 40% of the population
- Primary	41	26	19	10	4	-0.36	1.7	
- Secondary	21	27	25	18	10	-0.13	1.2	
- Tertiary	8	8	20	41	22	0.25	0.4	
Total health	20	22	19	19	20	-0.01	1.1	
Health without social security	28	26	19	16	12	-0.18	1.4	
Total social expenditure	23	23	20	18	15	-0.08	1.2	
Total without social security	27	25	21	17	10	-0.17	1.3	
COSTA RICA (1982)								
Education	20	22	17	21	20	-0.01	1.0	The targeting index corresponds to the poorest 20% of the population
- Primary	35	27	19	12	7	-0.22	1.8	
- Secondary	19	27	21	23	11	-0.07	1.0	
- Tertiary	4	13	11	30	42	0.37	0.2	
Health	29	19	20	18	14	-0.12	1.5	
Social security	9	10	16	33	32	0.28	0.5	
Housing	5	12	17	16	49	0.36	0.3	
Total social expenditure	21	19	18	21	22	0.02	1.1	
Total without social security	23	20	19	19	20	-0.04	1.2	

Table 14 (concluded)

	Distribution of social expenditure per quintile (percentages)					Gini a/	If b/	Observations
	I	II	III	IV	V			
URUGUAY (1989)								
Education	33	21	17	15	14	-0.18	2.0	The poor population used in calculating the targeting index corresponds to the lowest decile
- Primary	52	22	13	10	4	-0.44	3.4	
- Secondary	30	29	18	14	9	-0.23	1.5	
- Tertiary	5	7	22	24	42	0.36	0.3	
Health	35	20	21	13	11	-0.22	2.2	
Social security	12	16	21	20	31	0.17	0.3	
Housing	16	18	11	26	30	0.14	0.4	
Total social expenditure	20	18	20	18	24	0.03	1.1	
Total without social security	33	20	19	15	13	-0.18	2.0	

Source: For Argentina and Costa Rica: H. Petrei, "Gasto público social y sus efectos distributivos: un examen comparativo de cinco países de América Latina", Documentos ECIEL series, No. 6, Rio de Janeiro, Joint Programme on Latin American Economic Integration (ECIEL), 1987; for Bolivia: M. Urquiola, "Inversión en capital humano y focalización del gasto social: análisis de la asistencia y cobertura de servicios sociales por quintiles", Documentos de trabajo series, No. 8/93, La Paz, Social Policy Analysis Unit (UDAPSO), 1993; for Chile: O. Larrañaga, "El déficit del sector público y la política fiscal en Chile, 1978-1987", Política fiscal series, No. 4 (LC/L.563), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 1990; for Colombia: Fundación para la Educación Superior y el Desarrollo (FEDESARROLLO), Estudio de incidencia del gasto público social. Informe preliminar, Bogotá, Planning Department, June 1993; for Uruguay: J. Giral-Bosca and H. Davrieux, "Uruguay. Poverty Assessment: Public Social Expenditures and their Impact on Income Distribution", World Bank Report series, No. 9663-UR, Washington, D.C., World Bank, 4 May 1993.

a/ When the Gini coefficient is above 0, this indicates that the distribution of expenditure is progressive.

b/ Social expenditure targeting index.

Table 15

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17 WHO WORK, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS
(Percentages)

Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas					
		Total	C 1	C 2	C 3	C 4	Total	C 1	C 2	C 3	C 4 a/
ARGENTINA b/	80	22.3	17.3	24.8	27.3	20.4
	92	14.3	10.0	12.8	23.0	10.8
BOLIVIA	89	17.0	9.8	16.3	24.1	23.1
	92	17.7	9.5	15.7	24.9	22.8
BRAZIL	79	31.1	29.4	34.2	33.4	26.3	57.1	58.4	58.2	57.6	53.1
	90	32.3	30.4	37.6	34.5	23.1	55.5	54.3	57.1	57.1	52.5
CHILE	87	3.8	3.5	4.6	4.3	2.8	12.0	6.7	11.0	18.4	23.5
	92	6.2	5.9	7.1	7.8	3.5	15.4	9.3	14.2	20.9	24.7
COLOMBIA	80	17.0	12.7	18.4	17.4	22.5
	92	13.5	12.1	14.7	13.1	14.6
COSTA RICA	88	15.0	12.3	16.7	16.4	15.1	33.4	27.5	33.9	37.7	40.1
	92	13.0	11.2	19.2	12.0	5.6	28.4	19.3	28.1	35.3	33.8
HONDURAS	88	20.7	17.9	22.9	21.6	21.0	33.5	32.9	35.7	35.4	28.9
	92	22.3	19.5	21.1	27.8	21.6	34.9	34.2	34.1	35.8	36.0
MEXICO	89	15.5	17.6	16.5	15.6	8.3	29.1	31.7	29.0	27.1	27.2
	92	16.9	18.9	20.2	15.2	6.8	30.1	29.7	31.2	29.6	29.5
URUGUAY c/	81	21.9	26.7	22.6	18.9	13.5
	92	19.0	21.9	19.5	16.6	11.2
VENEZUELA	81	11.7	8.0	12.6	14.0	14.8	24.9	20.8	21.6	31.2	30.4
	92	12.0	8.9	12.0	15.6	13.3	23.7	16.7	25.4	27.8	28.6

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

a/ The symbols Q1, Q2, Q3 and Q4 refer to household income quartiles.

b/ Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

c/ Owing to the design of the survey, data are for adolescents aged 14 to 17.

Table 16

**LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING OF YOUNG PEOPLE
AGED 13 TO 17, BY AGE, SEX AND HOUSEHOLD SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL,
URBAN AREAS, 1992**

Country / Work status a/	Males				Females			
	Total	Indigent	N.I.P. b/	Non-poor	Total	Indigent	N.I.P. b/	Non-poor
BOLIVIA W	7.0	6.4	6.3	7.3	7.5	6.2	7.3	7.8
NW	8.1	7.6	7.9	8.5	8.4	7.8	8.5	8.7
BRAZIL W	4.6	3.0	4.2	5.5	5.3	3.9	4.9	6.0
NW	4.9	3.4	4.2	5.9	5.3	4.0	4.9	6.2
COLOMBIA W	6.0	5.1	5.8	6.6	7.4	5.5	7.2	7.5
NW	7.1	6.4	6.9	7.6	7.4	6.9	7.3	8.0
COSTA RICA W	6.1	4.6	5.3	6.4	6.5	5.7	5.9	6.9
NW	8.1	6.5	6.7	8.7	7.2	6.7	6.7	7.5
CHILE W	7.3	7.0	7.0	7.5	7.9	7.2	7.6	7.9
NW	7.7	7.2	7.4	8.0	7.9	7.2	7.6	8.1
HONDURAS W	5.0	4.3	5.6	6.3	5.2	5.0	5.0	5.4
NW	6.3	5.7	6.6	7.1	6.3	5.7	6.4	7.2
URUGUAY c/ W	7.7	6.0	6.1	8.1	8.2	6.2	7.5	8.4
NW	9.6	8.3	8.5	9.3	9.7	8.9	9.0	9.8
VENEZUELA W	7.2	6.1	6.6	7.4	7.7	5.9	7.4	8.0
NW	7.2	6.5	6.7	7.5	7.7	7.1	7.4	8.0

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

a/ Under "Work status", W stands for "working" and NW stands for "not working".

b/ N.I.P. stands for "non-indigent poor".

c/ Owing to the design of the survey, data are for adolescents aged 14 to 17.

Table 17
**LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY INCOME EARNED BY CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS
 AGED 13 TO 17 AND BY WAGE-EARNERS AGED 35 TO 54, URBAN AREAS, 1992**

Country	Monthly income earned by children and adolescents aged 13 to 17 (as a multiple of the per capita poverty line)	Monthly income earned by children and adolescents aged 13 to 17 as a percentage of monthly income of wage-earners aged 35 to 54 with 7 years of schooling	Monthly income of wage-earners aged 35 to 54, by years of schooling (as a multiple of the per capita poverty line)	Percentage increment in monthly income of wage-earners aged 35 to 54 as a result of additional education 7/5 9/7
BRAZIL	1.1	35	3.1	39
CHILE	1.7	61	4.3	21
COLOMBIA	1.1	55	3.4	0
COSTA RICA	2.2	69	2.5	25
HONDURAS	0.9	60	3.6	12
URUGUAY	1.5	44	2.1	40
VENEZUELA	2.1	72	3.2	15
			3.9	23
			4.8	17
			3.4	15
			2.9	17
			3.4	17
			5.2	21
			3.4	0
			3.1	24
			4.5	25
			3.2	52
			4.8	23
			3.9	15
			3.4	17

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

Table 18

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): IMPACT OF THE INCOME EARNED BY CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17 ON THE WELL-BEING OF HOUSEHOLD WITH WORKING CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS, URBAN AREAS, 1992

Households with children and adolescents aged 13 to 17 who work									
Country	Percentage of total households	Indigent		Difference		Poor		Difference	
		With children's earnings	Without children's earnings	In number of percent- age points	Percent- age	With children's earnings	Without children's earnings	In number of percent- age points	Percent- age
ARGENTINA	4	0.7	4.9	4.2	600	8.6	18.4	9.8	114
BOLIVIA	8	10.0	21.0	11.0	110	35.2	45.2	10.0	28
BRAZIL	14	25.3	37.4	12.1	48	54.2	64.2	10.0	18
CHILE	3	7.4	21.5	14.1	191	34.6	54.9	20.3	59
COLOMBIA	5	16.6	26.5	9.9	60	43.2	54.4	11.2	26
COSTA RICA	8	7.2	18.9	11.7	162	22.8	42.3	19.5	86
HONDURAS	17	59.9	69.2	9.3	16	81.3	86.0	4.7	6
MEXICO	10	17.0	25.5	8.5	50	50.6	60.1	9.5	19
URUGUAY	4	4.6	8.5	3.9	85	18.3	28.6	10.3	56
VENEZUELA	7	9.1	21.6	12.5	137	32.5	50.0	17.5	54

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

Table 19
**LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): IMPACT OF THE INCOME EARNED BY CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS
 AGED 13 TO 17 ON THE WELL-BEING OF ALL HOUSEHOLDS WITH CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS
 AGED 13 TO 17, URBAN AREAS, 1992**

Households with children and adolescents aged 13 to 17, working or not working									
Country	Percentage of total households	Indigent		Difference		Poor		Difference	
		With children's earnings	Without children's earnings	In percentage points	Percentage	With children's earnings	Without children's earnings	In percentage points	Percentage
ARGENTINA	25	2.8	3.5	0.7	25	12.2	14.1	1.9	16
BOLIVIA	36	20.0	22.4	2.4	12	48.8	50.9	2.1	4
BRAZIL	31	24.5	30.0	5.5	22	50.6	55.1	4.5	9
CHILE	27	10.6	12.0	1.4	13	37.2	39.2	2.0	5
COLOMBIA	32	17.7	19.3	1.6	9	45.7	47.5	1.8	4
COSTA RICA	33	9.6	12.6	3.0	31	28.9	33.9	5.0	17
HONDURAS	46	57.0	60.5	3.5	6	79.8	81.6	1.8	2
MEXICO	37	14.9	17.3	2.4	16	44.9	47.5	2.6	6
URUGUAY	23	3.4	4.1	0.7	21	15.3	17.2	1.9	12
VENEZUELA	41	13.6	15.8	2.2	16	38.6	41.6	3.0	8

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

Table 20
**LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): IMPACT OF THE INCOME EARNED BY CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS
 AGED 13 TO 17 ON THE WELL-BEING OF ALL HOUSEHOLDS, URBAN AREAS, 1992**

Total urban households									
Country	Percentage of total households	Indigent		Difference		Poor		Difference	
		With children's earnings	Without children's earnings	In percentage points	Percentage	With children's earnings	Without children's earnings	In percentage points	Percentage
ARGENTINA	100	1.4	1.6	0.2	14	9.8	10.3	0.5	5
BOLIVIA	100	17.5	18.4	0.9	5	45.7	46.4	0.7	2
BRAZIL	100	19.8	21.5	1.7	9	42.7	44.1	1.4	3
CHILE	100	7.3	7.7	0.4	5	27.7	28.2	0.5	2
COLOMBIA	100	14.8	15.3	0.5	3	38.2	38.8	0.6	2
COSTA RICA	100	10.1	11.1	1.0	10	25.0	26.7	1.7	7
HONDURAS	100	49.9	51.5	1.6	3	73.1	73.9	0.8	1
MEXICO	100	11.7	12.5	0.8	7	35.6	36.6	1.0	3
URUGUAY	100	1.4	1.5	0.1	7	7.7	8.1	0.4	5
VENEZUELA	100	11.7	12.6	0.9	8	33.1	34.4	1.3	4

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

Table 21

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE HOURS WORKED BY CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1992

Country	Educational status a/	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4 b/
ARGENTINA c/	S	31	27	31	33	31
	NS	42	36	42	46	36
BOLIVIA	S	40	39	40	41	39
	NS	52	54	49	52	51
BRAZIL	S	38	38	38	38	36	32	30	32	35	35
	NS	45	44	45	45	45	44	43	44	46	47
CHILE	S	38	36	34	38	41	48	47	46	49	44
	NS	49	46	49	50	50	50	53	50	49	50
COLOMBIA	S	33	28	34	32	38
	NS	49	47	46	50	56
COSTA RICA	S	36	29	41	42	35	34	26	30	40	36
	NS	47	46	46	45	52	46	42	45	47	49
HONDURAS	S	39	32	35	40	40	28	27	24	27	32
	NS	52	47	50	53	58	44	43	43	44	48
MEXICO	S	33	31	36	32	33	37	39	36	33	37
	NS	47	47	48	46	49	44	41	44	44	46
URUGUAY d/	S	27	26	26	30	28
	NS	42	41	42	46	48
VENEZUELA	S	39	36	39	39	41	35	34	34	37	34
	NS	43	40	43	44	44	42	40	41	42	43

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

a/ Under "Educational situation", S stands for "studying" and NS stands for "not studying".

b/ The symbols Q1, Q2, Q3 and Q4 refer to household income quartiles.

c/ Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

d/ Owing to the design of the survey, data are for adolescents aged 14 to 17.

Table 22

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE HOURS WORKED BY CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1992

Country/ Educational status a/	Urban areas		Rural areas		
	Males	Females	Males	Females	
Simple average	S	35	35	36	35
	NS	46	48	45	45
ARGENTINA b/	S	32	26
	NS	42	41
BOLIVIA	S	38	41
	NS	52	50
BRAZIL	S	37	39	33	32
	NS	44	46	45	42
CHILE	S	36	44	48	46
	NS	48	51	50	52
COLOMBIA	S	31	35
	NS	46	52
COSTA RICA	S	36	31	35	31
	NS	46	47	45	48
HONDURAS	S	40	38	28	29
	NS	49	56	44	46
MEXICO	S	33	35	38	34
	NS	45	49	44	42
URUGUAY c/	S	28	24
	NS	42	42
VENEZUELA	S	38	40	35	35
	NS	42	44	42	40

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

a/ Under "Educational situation", S stands for "studying" and NS stands for "not studying".

b/ Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

c/ Owing to the design of the survey, data are for adolescents aged 14 to 17.

Table 23

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOME EARNED BY CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS

(As a multiple of the per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	Total	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4 a/
Simple average 90-92		1.7	1.2	1.6	2.0	2.5	2.0	1.1	1.7	2.1	2.8
ARGENTINA b/	80	3.4	2.6	3.2	3.5	4.6
	92	3.5	2.2	3.4	3.6	5.2
BOLIVIA	89	1.4	0.9	1.1	1.5	2.0
	92	1.5	0.9	1.3	1.6	2.1
BRAZIL	79	1.3	1.0	1.4	1.8	1.5	1.3	0.6	1.0	1.4	1.9
	90	1.1	0.7	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.4	0.7	1.1	1.5	2.3
CHILE	87	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.9	1.3	1.8	2.0	2.3
	92	1.7	1.3	1.5	2.1	2.4	2.7	1.5	2.4	2.6	3.8
COLOMBIA	80	1.4	0.7	1.2	1.6	2.1
	92	1.1	0.6	1.0	1.4	1.7
COSTA RICA	88	2.2	1.6	1.9	2.6	3.0	3.3	1.6	2.4	3.3	5.4
	92	2.2	1.6	2.2	2.6	3.8	3.1	1.8	2.7	3.5	3.8
HONDURAS	88	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.5	0.8	1.2	1.6
	92	0.9	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.5	0.9	1.2	1.7
MEXICO	89	1.1	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	0.7	1.3	1.5	2.4
	92	1.1	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.9	1.2	0.6	1.1	1.4	1.7
URUGUAY c/	81	1.7	1.3	1.9	2.0	2.5
	92	1.5	1.1	1.8	2.0	2.2
VENEZUELA	81	3.4	2.9	3.3	3.7	3.9	4.2	2.6	3.7	4.6	5.0
	92	2.1	1.5	1.9	2.3	2.6	2.5	1.6	2.0	2.6	3.2

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

a/ The symbols Q1, Q2, Q3 and Q4 refer to household income quartiles.

b/ Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

c/ Owing to the design of the survey, data are for adolescents aged 14 to 17.

Table 24

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOME EARNED BY CHILDREN SCENTS AGED 13 TO 17, BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREA AND SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS
(As a multiple of the per capita poverty line)

Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
ARGENTINA a/	80	3.4	3.5	3.1
	92	3.5	3.6	3.2
BOLIVIA	89	1.4	1.6	1.3
	92	1.5	1.3	1.7
BRAZIL	79	1.3	1.5	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.0
	90	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.0
CHILE	87	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.9	1.9	1.8
	92	1.7	1.8	1.5	2.7	2.7	2.6
COLOMBIA	80	1.4	1.2	1.6
	92	1.1	1.0	1.3
COSTA RICA	88	2.2	2.2	2.1	3.3	3.7	2.4
	92	2.2	2.2	2.2	3.1	3.3	2.6
HONDURAS	88	0.9	1.0	0.7	1.0	1.2	0.7
	92	0.9	1.0	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.0
MEXICO	89	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.1
	92	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.0
URUGUAY b/	81	1.7	1.8	1.6
	92	1.5	1.6	1.4
VENEZUELA	81	3.4	3.7	2.8	4.2	4.5	2.5
	92	2.1	2.2	1.7	2.5	2.6	2.0

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

a/ Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

b/ Owing to the design of the survey, data are for adolescents aged 14 to 17.

Table 25

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT OF CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS

Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		Total	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Total	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4 a/
ARGENTINA b/	80	3.9	3.0	3.7	4.3	5.0
	92	4.6	3.1	3.9	4.5	7.1
BOLIVIA	89	1.7	1.1	1.2	1.9	2.1
	92	1.7	0.9	1.3	1.6	2.4
BRAZIL	79	1.4	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.3	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.8
	90	1.2	0.7	1.1	1.6	2.0	1.5	0.7	1.2	1.6	2.5
CHILE	87
	92	1.7	1.4	1.5	2.2	2.2	2.5	1.3	2.3	2.4	3.5
COLOMBIA	80	1.3	0.7	1.2	1.6	1.7
	92	1.2	0.7	1.3	1.5	1.7
COSTA RICA	88	2.7	1.5	2.1	3.1	4.0	4.3	1.9	2.5	3.7	6.0
	92	2.6	2.1	2.2	3.2	3.7	3.2	2.1	3.2	3.4	4.0
HONDURAS	88	0.9	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.4
	92	0.9	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	0.6	1.0	1.3	1.6
MEXICO	89	1.2	0.9	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.5	0.7	1.3	1.8	2.8
	92	1.2	0.9	1.1	1.9	1.9	1.3	0.6	1.1	1.6	2.0
URUGUAY c/	81	2.1	1.6	2.4	2.6	3.0
	92	2.1	1.7	2.3	2.8	2.6
VENEZUELA	81	3.7	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.0	4.4	2.9	3.9	4.5	5.0
	92	2.2	1.7	2.1	2.4	2.7	2.7	1.7	2.3	2.8	3.5

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

a/ The symbols Q1, Q2, Q3 and Q4 refer to household income quartiles.

b/ Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

c/ Owing to the design of the survey, data are for adolescents aged 14 to 17.

Table 26
LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): CONTRIBUTION OF SPOUSE* TO FAMILY INCOME
IN URBAN AREAS

Country	Year	Percentage of households with:				Spouse's income as percentage of household income c/		
		head and spouse a/		head and spouse both economically active b/		Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor
		Total	Poor	Total	Poor			
ARGENTINA	1980	75	75	23	2	32	24	19
	1986	73	79	28	7	35	0	31
	1992	71	82	33	10	33	41	38
BOLIVIA	1992	74	77	43	34	31	36	34
BRAZIL	1979	76	73	24	16	27	26	27
	1987	72	68	34	24	29	24	28
	1990	74	71	36	26	27	29	28
CHILE	1980
	1987	72	74	21	11	32	30	30
	1992	72	76	28	13	31	33	33
COLOMBIA	1980	73	74	29	18	20	21	21
	1986	71	73	34	22	30	38	34
	1992	71	73	43	33	29	35	32
COSTA RICA	1981
	1988	76	71	29	13	33	30	24
	1992	71	65	27	11	35	24	35
GUATEMALA	1980
	1987	73	75	29	21	33	32	33
	1989	72	75	33	21	28	29	29
HONDURAS	1980
	1988	66	65	39	29	27	34	29
	1992	65	64	38	28	30	24	32
MEXICO	1984	76	84	19	12	31	0	5
	1989	78	84	23	13	29	24	27
	1992	77	85	27	17	27	23	25
PANAMA	1979	64	59	40	22	35	48	37
	1986	67	66	33	14	36	41	34
	1991	65	64	35	21	36	45	34
PARAGUAY	1986	74	77	45	32	33	31	35
	1992	70	68	41	28	34	28	34
URUGUAY	1981	70	73	30	17	28	22	24
	1986	70	74	38	27	28	29	24
	1992	67	79	43	36	23	18	17
VENEZUELA	1981	69	60	23	9	37	27	37
	1986	71	64	30	13	32	27	32
	1992	69	63	35	15	33	30	33

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

* Translator's note: The term "spouse" denotes a married woman as a woman living in a consensual union.

a/ Calculated with respect to total households.

b/ Calculated with respect to total households with head and spouse present.

c/ Refers to spouse's income from gainful employment.

Table 27
**LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH HEAD AND SPOUSE*
 BOTH ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE, IN URBAN AREAS a/**

Country	Year	Percentage of total household income contributed by spouse a/			
		0-20%	20-40%	40-60%	Over 60%
ARGENTINA	1980	25.9	44.5	25.0	4.6
	1986	19.5	41.0	33.5	6.0
	1992	22.7	42.8	28.8	5.6
BOLIVIA	1992	27.0	45.1	23.7	4.1
BRAZIL	1979	35.3	44.6	17.7	2.4
	1987	33.6	43.7	18.8	3.9
	1990	36.5	43.2	17.4	2.8
CHILE	1987	22.2	51.2	23.6	3.0
	1992	23.5	50.8	23.5	2.1
COLOMBIA	1980	53.6	44.0	2.5	0.0
	1986	27.8	45.6	23.2	3.5
	1992	29.3	46.8	20.8	3.1
COSTA RICA	1981
	1988	21.7	41.2	33.6	3.6
	1992	20.3	40.8	31.6	7.3
GUATEMALA	1987	26.6	39.2	28.3	5.9
	1989	35.6	40.1	20.0	4.2
HONDURAS	1988	32.1	53.7	12.5	1.7
	1992	28.1	45.2	23.8	3.0
MEXICO	1984	16.3	59.4	24.3	0.0
	1989	28.8	46.9	19.1	5.1
	1992	35.0	44.8	17.4	2.8
PANAMA	1979	12.6	50.3	33.8	3.3
	1986	13.4	46.4	34.6	5.6
	1991	16.1	43.3	33.7	7.0
PARAGUAY	1983	23.3	44.1	26.5	6.1
	1986	24.4	41.6	29.4	4.6
	1992	24.7	41.0	28.1	6.3
URUGUAY	1981	35.0	44.9	16.5	3.6
	1986	35.3	43.4	17.1	4.2
	1992	45.3	43.9	9.6	1.1
VENEZUELA	1981	16.0	42.1	32.7	9.2
	1986	22.8	49.1	25.0	3.1
	1992	20.3	47.1	29.0	3.6

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

* Translator's note: The term "spouse" denotes a married woman as a woman living in a consensual union.

a/ Refers to spouse's earnings from gainful employment.

Table 28
LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): ESTIMATES OF THE EXTENT OF URBAN POVERTY

Country	Category	EXTENT OF POVERTY			
		Hypothesis 1 a/	Hypothesis 2 b/	Total poor and indigent households	Hypothesis 3 c/
ARGENTINA	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	7	3	1	1
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	13	10	8	4
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	20	12	10	4
BOLIVIA	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	31	23	18	13
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	27	29	28	26
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	58	52	46	39
BRASIL	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	25	19	17	13
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	22	23	22	20
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	47	42	39	34
CHILE	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	13	8	7	4
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	25	22	20	15
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	38	31	27	19
COLOMBIA	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	26	18	15	12
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	25	25	23	21
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	52	43	38	33
COSTA RICA	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	17	9	8	6
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	21	19	17	12
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	38	27	25	17
HONDURAS	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	53	42	38	34
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	22	27	27	27
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	75	69	66	61
MEXICO	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	13	8	7	5
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	26	25	23	18
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	39	33	29	23
PANAMA	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	24	16.0	14	12
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	21	21	20	15
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	46	37	34	27
PARAGUAY	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	26	16.0	13	10
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	28	27	22	19
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	54	43	36	29
URUGUAY	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	3	2	1	1
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	9	8	6	5
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	12	10	8	6
VENEZUELA	INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS	24	13	11	8
	NON-INDIGENT POOR HOUSEHOLDS	25	25	22	17
	TOTAL POOR HOUSEHOLDS	48	38	33	24

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Hypothesis 1: Extent of poverty if women were not employed; calculated by omitting women's earnings.

b/ Hypothesis 2: Extent of poverty if spouses* were not employed; calculated by omitting spouses' earnings.

c/ Hypothesis 3: Extent of poverty if all spouses were employed; calculated by hypothesizing that economically inactive spouses were earning an income equal to the average earned by economically active spouses in poor and indigent income levels, respectively.

* Translator's note: The term "spouse" denotes a married woman as a woman living in a consensual union.

Table 29
 LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS
 IN 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
	1986	20	27	16	20	100.0	3.6	5.1	91.3
	1992	22	15	18	23	100.0	1.0	6.6	92.4
BOLIVIA	1992	18	20	17	17	100.0	20.2	27.9	52.0
BRAZIL	1979	19	33	20	16	100.0	17.4	20.7	62.0
	1987	21	33	25	18	100.0	20.8	23.2	56.0
	1990	20	27	22	18	100.0	22.4	24.3	53.3
CHILE	1987	23	25	23	23	100.0	14.4	23.5	62.2
	1992	22	22	21	22	100.0	7.1	19.6	73.3
COLOMBIA	1980	20	23	21	19	100.0	13.9	22.4	63.8
	1986	23	26	22	22	100.0	16.0	19.8	64.3
	1992	24	26	24	23	100.0	16.3	23.1	60.6
COSTA RICA	1981	22	53	38	18	100.0	12.9	18.5	68.6
	1988	19	38	21	18	100.0	11.5	16.1	72.4
	1992	24	46	25	22	100.0	14.6	17.8	67.6
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
	1992	29	35	30	21	100.0	46.4	28.6	25.0
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
	1992	17	14	12	19	100.0	5.6	15.6	78.7
PANAMA	1979	25	50	25	20	100.0	27.7	17.1	55.2
	1986	24	31	27	22	100.0	16.4	19.1	64.4
	1991	26	34	29	24	100.0	18.0	22.0	60.0
PARAGUAY	1986	19	26	14	20	100.0	22.3	21.7	56.0
	1992	25	36	24	23	100.0	19.3	21.3	59.4
URUGUAY	1981	22	25	22	22	100.0	2.5	7.4	90.1
	1986	23	28	19	23	100.0	3.1	8.8	88.1
	1992	25	21	18	26	100.0	1.1	4.6	94.2
VENEZUELA	1981	22	50	31	19	100.0	10.5	18.7	70.7
	1986	22	44	27	18	100.0	16.4	21.1	62.5
	1992	23	42	27	19	100.0	18.9	25.0	56.1

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

Table 30
LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): CHARACTERISTICS OF HEADS OF HOUSEHOLD IN URBAN AREAS

Country	Year	Total households		Indigent households		Non-indigent poor households		Non-poor households	
		Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
ARGENTINA	1992								
Labour force participation		83	45	76	72	66	35	85	46
Average years of schooling	
Open unemployment rate		4.6	4.8	36.6	0.0	20.6	38.9	2.8	3.1
Average hours worked per week		50	40	37	19	49	35	50	40
Average hourly earnings a/		101	91	27	40	38	46	106	50
BOLIVIA	1992								
Labour force participation		92	67	85	61	92	68	93	68
Average years of schooling		10.1	7.2	7.6	5.1	8.8	6.8	11.6	8.3
Open unemployment rate		3.9	2.5	15.9	4.6	3.1	3.2	1.0	1.4
Average hours worked per week		45	40	46	38	46	39	45	40
Average hourly earnings a/		106	65	34	23	50	42	149	91
BRAZIL	1990								
Labour force participation		88	51	83	42	89	47	89	56
Average years of schooling		5.8	4.6	2.8	2.4	3.8	2.9	7.2	6.4
Open unemployment rate		2.7	2.4	12.6	7.8	2.0	2.0	0.8	0.9
Average hours worked per week		46	39	47	39	47	39	46	39
Average hourly earnings a/		105	67	20	15	35	23	144	100
CHILE	1992								
Labour force participation		86	46	88	41	89	47	86	46
Average years of schooling		9.5	7.7	8.1	6.4	8.0	6.3	10.1	8.2
Open unemployment rate		2.4	4.2	14.7	19.8	3.1	4.9	0.9	2.7
Average hours worked per week		51	46	50	42	51	45	51	46
Average hourly earnings a/		105	65	27	22	39	29	129	78
COLOMBIA	1992								
Labour force participation		91	61	94	59	92	62	90	61
Average years of schooling		8.2	6.9	5.7	5.0	6.1	5.1	9.5	8.2
Open unemployment rate		2.6	5.3	7.6	13.5	3.3	4.6	1.1	3.4
Average hours worked per week		51	46	52	45	52	47	51	46
Average hourly earnings a/		104	81	24	24	47	39	144	110
COSTA RICA	1992								
Labour force participation		85	50	55	28	85	51	87	54
Average years of schooling		8.4	7.4	5.2	5.0	6.7	5.7	9.0	8.3
Open unemployment rate		1.3	4.6	19.9	17.1	2.2	10.0	0.2	1.8
Average hours worked per week		49	40	44	26	50	36	49	42
Average hourly earnings a/		103	83	40	49	49	48	117	94
GUATEMALA	1989								
Labour force participation		95	55	95	37	97	60	94	62
Average years of schooling		5.6	4.2	2.9	2.7	4.0	2.2	7.6	5.9
Open unemployment rate		1.3	2.1	4.0	6.4	0.8	1.5	0.5	1.2
Average hours worked per week		49	44	49	41	51	42	48	46
Average hourly earnings a/		102	84	27	27	50	44	161	118

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Table 30 (concluded)

Country	Year	Total households		Indigent households		Non-indigent poor households		Non-poor households	
		Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
HONDURAS	1992								
Labour force participation		94	58	93	55	93	59	95	65
Average years of schooling		7.1	5.0	4.3	3.6	6.3	5.1	10.2	7.4
Open unemployment rate		3.6	1.6	7.1	2.2	2.1	1.6	1.5	0.6
Average hours worked per week		52	45	51	45	53	46	52	45
Average hourly earnings a/		108	69	42	33	69	62	189	131
MEXICO	1992								
Labour force participation		91	54	92	66	91	58	90	53
Average years of schooling	
Open unemployment rate		1.4	0.7	0.3	1.9	1.1	0.0	1.7	0.8
Average hours worked per week		49	40	50	33	50	42	49	40
Average hourly earnings a/		103	79	23	20	36	31	134	96
PANAMA	1991								
Labour force participation		84	54	86	44	88	54	82	58
Average years of schooling		8.8	8.4	5.8	6.0	6.9	6.9	9.8	9.6
Open unemployment rate		6.3	13.5	23.2	42.4	6.4	23.5	3.0	3.9
Average hours worked per week		43	39	37	29	43	40	44	40
Average hourly earnings a/		103	88	29	27	50	39	124	108
PARAGUAY	1992								
Labour force participation		90	52	89	43	89	46	91	58
Average years of schooling		9.0	6.6	5.9	4.1	6.9	5.0	10.2	8.0
Open unemployment rate		3.7	3.9	17.5	4.9	4.3	8.4	1.3	2.4
Average hours worked per week		51	47	56	40	51	49	50	49
Average hourly earnings a/		103	85	34	23	50	32	129	114
URUGUAY	1992								
Labour force participation		78	40	91	73	86	50	77	39
Average years of schooling		7.3	6.4	5.3	5.7	5.7	4.7	7.5	6.5
Open unemployment rate		2.0	5.1	16.5	16.5	5.2	8.0	1.4	4.6
Average hours worked per week		48	34	43	28	48	29	48	34
Average hourly earnings a/		103	78	31	18	39	26	110	82
VENEZUELA	1992								
Labour force participation		92	51	78	29	87	44	95	63
Average years of schooling		8.1	6.4	5.9	5.2	6.4	5.2	8.8	7.2
Open unemployment rate		4.3	3.4	34.1	22.1	5.9	2.6	1.3	0.7
Average hours worked per week		41	37	44	35	42	38	41	37
Average hourly earnings a/		108	81	42	35	66	55	121	94

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Index in which 100 equals the average hourly earnings of all heads of household of both sexes.

Table 31
LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION IN URBAN AREAS

Country	Year	Ages									
		Men					Women				
		Total	Aged 15 to 24	Aged 25 to 34	Aged 35 to 49	Aged 50 and over	Total	Aged 15 to 24	Aged 25 to 34	Aged 35 to 49	Aged 50 and over
ARGENTINA	1980	76	66	98	97	53	32	45	45	41	15
	1986	76	62	97	98	57	37	41	51	48	20
	1992	77	64	96	97	57	39	41	51	55	21
BOLIVIA	1992	75	49	92	97	63	46	34	56	61	33
BRAZIL	1979	81	75	97	94	60	37	43	44	40	17
	1987	84	80	97	95	59	44	49	53	51	21
	1990	82	78	96	95	58	45	49	56	53	21
CHILE	1987	70	48	93	94	53	32	29	44	42	15
	1992	75	51	95	96	61	37	32	49	48	21
COLOMBIA	1980	79	61	96	97	72	42	42	52	46	22
	1988	78	58	94	97	68	44	42	59	50	19
	1992	80	59	97	97	66	50	44	67	61	23
COSTA RICA	1981	78	84	93	95	67	34	33	46	40	15
	1988	79	64	96	96	60	39	42	50	44	18
	1992	74	56	95	95	51	37	34	49	50	16
GUATEMALA	1987	84	71	97	97	79	41	41	49	47	28
	1989	84	69	97	97	78	43	42	50	49	29
HONDURAS	1988	81	64	95	96	73	48	38	57	59	30
	1992	80	62	94	97	76	44	37	56	55	31
MEXICO	1984	76	55	94	94	72	29	25	37	36	21
	1989	76	57	94	94	67	33	30	44	38	18
	1992	79	63	94	95	66	36	34	43	43	19
PANAMA	1979	76	56	97	98	63	45	40	63	55	20
	1988	73	54	95	98	55	40	33	56	53	17
	1991	74	58	95	96	52	43	37	59	59	18
PARAGUAY	1983	81	66	97	97	66	43	41	57	53	26
	1988	83	63	97	98	70	52	55	62	62	29
	1992	83	72	98	98	70	51	52	62	63	29
URUGUAY	1981	75	74	98	97	50	37	43	57	51	18
	1986	75	70	97	98	54	42	45	68	61	21
	1992	74	69	97	98	52	46	48	71	70	23
VENEZUELA	1981	79	58	96	98	75	31	26	42	40	15
	1986	79	58	96	97	74	35	26	49	47	16
	1992	80	58	95	97	71	39	28	53	53	23

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

Table 32
LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION IN RURAL AREAS

Country	Year	Ages									
		Men					Women				
		Total	Aged 15 to 24	Aged 25 to 34	Aged 35 to 49	Aged 50 and over	Total	Aged 15 to 24	Aged 25 to 34	Aged 35 to 49	Aged 50 and over
BRAZIL	1979	91	90	98	98	79	36	42	36	37	24
	1987	91	91	98	97	78	39	42	42	45	24
	1990	91	91	97	97	77	41	44	45	47	26
CHILE	1987	77	72	93	94	56	14	19	17	15	6
	1992	79	68	95	94	63	19	23	24	23	9
COSTA RICA	1981	84	80	96	95	65	23	28	24	24	9
	1988	86	82	97	95	67	27	33	30	28	10
	1992	85	81	97	96	62	28	33	32	32	11
GUATEMALA	1987	94	91	100	99	86	18	17	21	19	15
	1989	93	89	99	99	87	19	18	19	22	17
HONDURAS	1988	92	86	98	99	89	24	18	28	32	21
	1992	89	82	97	99	84	28	25	31	37	21
MEXICO	1984	85	74	91	94	84	23	17	27	32	21
	1989	85	77	93	93	83	23	17	26	28	25
	1992	86	80	94	94	79	26	24	31	28	22
PANAMA	1979	87	75	98	99	80	18	19	23	20	9
	1986	85	73	98	98	78	22	20	31	27	11
	1991	84	76	97	98	71	24	23	33	34	10
VENEZUELA	1981	88	76	98	98	87	18	15	22	23	13
	1986	89	80	97	98	87	19	13	24	27	13
	1992	87	77	97	98	82	23	17	21	31	18

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

Table 33
LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION IN URBAN AREAS

Country	Year	Education											
		Men					Women						
		Total	0 to 3 years	4 to 6 years	7 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	13 years or more	Total	0 to 3 years	4 to 6 years	7 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	13 years or more
ARGENTINA	1980	76	80	70	76	72	80	32	16	25	26	40	64
	1986 a/	76	72	83	80	37	30	44	60
	1992 a/	77	75	87	84	39	33	49	67
BOLIVIA	1992	75	73	87	73	70	75	46	49	51	40	38	56
BRAZIL	1979	81	79	84	78	82	88	37	29	35	39	54	72
	1987	84	83	86	84	89	92	44	39	41	45	80	78
	1990	82	76	83	83	87	91	45	33	41	46	61	77
CHILE	1987	70	60	73	64	71	80	32	18	25	26	33	80
	1992	75	64	75	70	77	64	37	22	28	30	38	64
COLOMBIA	1981	79	84	84	70	75	83	42	42	39	38	46	60
	1986	78	78	82	70	78	82	44	36	40	39	51	67
	1992	80	75	84	73	81	88	50	39	44	43	56	76
COSTA RICA	1980	78	75	87	73	71	76	34	22	29	30	42	57
	1988	79	65	86	75	79	81	39	20	32	37	49	60
	1992	74	58	80	71	77	78	37	17	32	34	43	61
GUATEMALA	1987	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	1988	81	85	89	61	79	82	48	41	46	33	56	61
	1992	80	82	89	56	83	77	44	37	46	31	56	58
MEXICO b/	1984	76	...	75	86	81	...	29	...	25	58	62	...
	1989	76	...	79	76	86	...	33	...	21	37	64	...
	1992	79	...	77	83	73	80	36	...	28	36	39	60
PANAMA	1979	76	74	84	67	74	81	45	23	41	39	51	75
	1986	73	73	81	65	87	80	40	15	32	33	47	67
	1991	74	67	78	69	73	81	43	21	31	37	49	71
PARAGUAY	1983	81	70	91	73	77	83	43	34	47	39	40	59
	1986	83	76	86	81	80	88	52	37	52	51	56	70
	1992	83	64	89	79	83	89	51	28	55	47	49	74
URUGUAY	1981	75	53	76	81	83	84	37	21	32	42	49	67
	1986	75	52	76	80	82	83	42	20	36	48	53	70
	1992	74	45	73	80	83	82	46	19	37	51	60	73
VENEZUELA	1981	79	80	88	72	71	71	31	21	29	32	43	48
	1986	79	78	87	75	73	75	35	21	32	36	44	55
	1992	80	73	87	76	76	80	39	23	35	37	48	61

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ In Argentina in 1986 and 1992 the categories of educational attainment used were: completed primary but not secondary; completed secondary or higher.

b/ In Mexico the educational categories are: 0 to 5 years, 6 to 9 years, 10 to 12 years and 13 years or more.

Table 34
LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION IN RURAL AREAS

Country	Year	Education											
		Men						Women					
		Total	0 to 3 years	4 to 6 years	7 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	13 years or more	Total	0 to 3 years	4 to 6 years	7 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	13 years or more
BRAZIL	1979	91	91	93	79	85	93	36	33	43	37	54	58
	1987	91	93	94	89	93	92	39	38	43	44	66	80
	1990	91	89	94	89	94	90	41	36	46	45	66	77
CHILE	1987	77	69	82	79	78	86	14	7	14	16	21	55
	1992	79	69	85	81	80	84	19	11	18	20	28	58
COSTA RICA	1981	84	80	93	71	72	79	23	14	25	27	35	51
	1988	86	77	92	82	85	76	27	16	26	29	41	68
	1992	85	74	92	77	86	84	28	15	28	32	41	70
GUATEMALA	1987	94	95	93	70	79	100	18	17	25	16	54	59
	1989	93	95	92	71	76	88	19	17	23	24	57	66
HONDURAS	1988	92	94	92	59	87	85	24	22	25	20	70	73
	1992	89	91	93	50	86	...	28	25	29	14	63	...
MEXICO a/	1984	85	...	84	88	83	...	23	...	23	45	95	...
	1989	85	...	91	83	94	...	23	...	22	24	32	...
	1992	88	...	90	89	65	79	28	...	24	28	37	57
PANAMA	1979	87	90	94	64	69	78	18	11	18	17	43	69
	1986	85	67	92	69	69	83	22	11	20	23	42	68
	1991	84	82	90	73	76	81	24	10	21	25	42	64
VENEZUELA	1981	88	92	91	67	85	70	18	15	20	21	37	39
	1986	89	92	91	75	74	75	19	15	20	20	36	40
	1992	67	89	91	78	76	77	23	18	25	24	36	58

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ In Mexico the educational categories are: 0 to 5 years, 6 to 9 years, 10 to 12 years and 13 years or more.

Table 35
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION IN URBAN AREAS

Country	Poverty level	Men				Women				
		Total	Head of household	Son	Other relative	Total	Head of household	Spouse*	Daughter	Other relative
ARGENTINA	TOTAL	77	81	69	67	39	43	35	48	32
	INDIGENT	65	71	55	52	25	72	18	31	0
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	65	66	64	52	18	31	10	28	30
	NON-POOR	78	82	69	69	41	44	38	50	33
BOLIVIA	TOTAL	75	88	48	62	46	66	48	36	50
	INDIGENT	66	80	34	42	33	61	30	25	25
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	74	89	40	61	42	67	43	31	36
	NON-POOR	78	91	55	66	53	67	53	42	58
BRAZIL	TOTAL	82	86	77	77	45	50	38	58	48
	INDIGENT	74	79	65	64	33	42	25	43	30
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	83	85	80	76	41	45	33	56	37
	NON-POOR	84	87	79	80	50	55	43	63	51
CHILE	TOTAL	75	85	59	69	37	44	30	44	43
	INDIGENT	71	86	43	55	22	40	14	26	24
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	75	88	52	66	25	44	14	35	24
	NON-POOR	76	84	62	71	42	45	38	49	48
COLOMBIA	INDIGENT	80	93	55	71	38	57	30	38	38
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	80	91	60	82	43	60	36	45	45
	NON-POOR	81	89	67	79	55	59	51	54	62
COSTA RICA	TOTAL	74	83	80	69	37	48	29	46	37
	INDIGENT	47	54	39	36	23	27	13	33	18
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	73	84	54	58	25	49	11	31	34
	NON-POOR	76	84	63	74	42	53	34	50	40
HONDURAS	TOTAL	80	92	66	66	44	56	40	42	44
	INDIGENT	78	90	65	57	33	52	25	34	25
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	61	91	72	66	44	57	37	49	39
	NON-POOR	82	94	61	74	58	62	59	48	61
MEXICO	TOTAL	79	89	62	69	36	53	29	46	24
	INDIGENT	82	92	69	67	20	62	12	22	18
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	80	88	66	74	31	58	21	44	27
	NON-POOR	78	89	60	67	39	51	34	49	23
PANAMA	TOTAL	74	81	65	88	43	51	38	46	46
	INDIGENT	74	85	66	50	28	40	20	33	16
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	76	87	67	83	36	49	24	41	38
	NON-POOR	74	79	64	72	49	55	45	51	51
PARAGUAY	TOTAL	83	87	76	81	51	51	44	54	59
	INDIGENT	80	82	80	65	35	43	30	46	11
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	65	89	78	80	38	43	31	47	41
	NON-POOR	83	86	75	83	57	56	52	57	67
URUGUAY	TOTAL	74	75	73	67	46	39	47	57	33
	INDIGENT	79	88	74	56	47	73	44	41	27
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	76	83	69	76	42	47	38	50	29
	NON-POOR	73	74	74	67	46	38	47	58	34
VENEZUELA	TOTAL	80	90	65	75	39	51	37	39	38
	INDIGENT	64	76	51	52	20	29	13	23	16
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	74	85	59	66	27	43	19	29	28
	NON-POOR	83	94	69	79	47	63	45	45	43

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

* Translator's note: The term "spouse" denotes a married woman as a woman living in a consensual union.

Table 36
LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION IN RURAL AREAS

Country	Poverty level	Men				Women				
		Total	Head of household	Son	Other relative	Total	Head of household	Spouse*	Daughter	Other relative
BRAZIL	TOTAL	91	92	90	79	41	44	37	52	32
	INDIGENT	89	91	88	66	38	52	33	45	26
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	89	89	90	79	37	32	36	51	26
	NON-POOR	93	94	92	84	46	48	41	59	38
CHILE	TOTAL	79	83	73	73	19	22	14	29	21
	INDIGENT	69	81	50	53	9	14	5	14	11
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	77	86	61	66	10	20	7	15	12
	NON-POOR	80	83	78	76	24	24	18	36	25
COSTA RICA	TOTAL	85	88	82	71	28	40	18	43	28
	INDIGENT	59	61	56	42	15	23	9	19	11
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	79	87	68	58	17	45	7	26	19
	NON-POOR	88	92	85	76	32	46	21	49	32
HONDURAS	TOTAL	89	94	84	74	28	45	23	32	22
	INDIGENT	90	96	85	70	24	51	17	29	12
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	85	91	83	69	28	31	24	37	25
	NON-POOR	89	94	81	85	43	46	42	41	49
MEXICO	TOTAL	86	90	82	62	26	60	21	33	16
	INDIGENT	88	92	85	58	19	63	18	17	14
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	88	92	85	59	23	58	19	31	9
	NON-POOR	84	89	79	66	31	60	24	40	20
PANAMA	TOTAL	84	87	81	74	24	33	17	33	23
	INDIGENT	83	84	85	63	14	22	8	20	16
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	86	91	84	73	19	30	9	33	15
	NON-POOR	83	86	79	77	30	39	24	39	29
VENEZUELA	TOTAL	87	93	79	85	23	39	19	24	20
	INDIGENT	80	88	68	67	12	26	4	12	10
	NON-INDIGENT POOR	85	93	73	84	15	35	10	17	13
	NON-POOR	89	94	62	88	30	47	26	31	25

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

* Translator's note: The term "spouse" denotes a married woman or a woman living in a consensual union.

Table 37
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): SPOUSE * LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION
IN URBAN AREAS (1992)

Country	Number of children under 5 years of age	Mother's years of schooling					
		Total	0 to 3 years	4 to 6 years	7 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	13 years or more
ARGENTINA a/	Total	35	...	29	...	38	66
	None	37	...	32	...	40	71
	1	33	...	23	...	37	60
	2 or more	24	...	19	...	17	40
BOLIVIA	Total	46	44	43	47	41	59
	None	47	43	48	50	40	60
	1	48	48	44	47	45	60
BRAZIL	Total	38	30	33	36	51	73
	None	39	31	35	40	53	74
	1	38	31	30	33	51	71
CHILE	Total	30	19	22	22	29	59
	None	32	20	23	27	33	61
	1	27	15	20	17	25	56
COLOMBIA	Total	40	30	34	36	60	67
	None	44	35	33	42	51	79
	1	47	32	40	42	51	75
COSTA RICA	Total	29	13	19	23	33	61
	None	30	13	22	28	33	64
	1	27	9	18	20	36	54
HONDURAS	Total	24	19	16	32	17	59
	None	41	31	36	38	60	69
	1	43	29	36	34	63	74
MEXICO b/	Total	33	27	26	35	52	63
	None	29	...	25	25	48	58
	1	30	...	27	27	44	57
PANAMA	Total	29	...	21	26	50	61
	None	22	...	28	11	31	47
	1	38	17	21	32	48	76
PARAGUAY	Total	38	18	22	34	46	76
	None	39	15	18	30	50	76
	1	33	22	21	30	42	65
URUGUAY	Total	44	26	43	49	38	80
	None	46	26	43	54	43	78
	1	42	25	41	47	34	87
VENEZUELA	Total	41	28	47	29	16	93
	None	47	23	36	51	59	78
	1	44	22	36	52	58	74
URUGUAY	Total	56	32	43	54	59	91
	None	46	35	30	28	75	82
	1	37	21	27	37	49	70
VENEZUELA	Total	38	22	29	41	49	71
	None	37	19	28	34	51	67
	1	29	21	24	25	41	62

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ In Argentina the categories of educational attainment are: completed primary but not secondary; completed secondary or higher.

b/ In Mexico the educational categories are: 0 to 5 years; 6 to 9 years; 10 to 12 years, and 13 years or more.

Translator's note: The term "spouse" denotes a married woman or a woman living in a consensual union.

Table 38
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF EMPLOYED POPULATION IN URBAN AREAS

Country	Year	MEN						WOMEN							
		Total	Employ- are	Professional and technical a/	Public sector wage-earners	Private sector wage-earners	Own-account and unpaid family workers	Domestic employees	Total	Employ- ers	Professional and technical a/	Public sector wage-earners	Private sector wage-earners	Own-account and unpaid family workers	Domestic employees
ARGENTINA	1980	100	5.8	5.0	...	55.0	33.2	1.0	100	2.3	4.9	...	52.4	30.2	10.1
	1982	100	7.3	68.4	24.0	0.3	100	2.4	60.6	25.4	11.6
BOLIVIA	1982	100	7.8	14.1	10.7	39.4	27.5	0.5	100	2.6	12.2	4.9	21.1	51.3	7.9
	1979	100	6.0	5.6	...	69.0 b/	19.0	0.4	100	1.2	14.0	...	43.5	19.7	21.6
BRAZIL	1980	100	6.6	5.7	...	66.7 b/	20.6	0.4	100	2.4	14.9	...	45.0	22.5	15.2
	1987	100	2.1	11.8	7.2	53.2	25.6	0.2	100	0.6	18.5	5.6	34.5	19.0	21.6
CHILE	1982	100	4.1	11.9	...	63.6 b/	20.2	0.2	100	...	17.0	...	43.1	18.1	18.6
	1980	100	5.7	9.8	6.9	51.2	26.2	0.3	100	1.2	9.5	6.8	43.0	22.3	17.3
COLOMBIA	1982	100	5.2	12.7	5.6	49.5	28.8	0.2	100	1.9	14.0	5.4	42.3	24.5	11.9
	1981	100	5.5	11.1	18.5	45.3	18.2	1.6	100	1.3	20.0	15.6	35.5	13.7	13.9
COSTA RICA	1982	100	6.3	17.9	14.7	44.6	16.5	-	100	1.6	24.2	11.2	37.2	16.5	9.3
	1982	100	2.1	15.1	7.1	46.5	28.8	0.4	100	0.8	18.0	6.3	25.7	33.5	15.7
MEXICO	1984	100	3.3	2.4	...	69.6 b/	24.2	0.5	100	1.1	1.2	...	62.5	27.7	7.5
	1982	100	6.1	7.1	...	70.9 b/	15.4	0.5	100	2.2	8.8	...	58.6	21.6	8.8
PANAMA	1979	100	2.9	8.4	24.9	41.6	21.9	0.2	100	0.8	18.1	27.3	29.3	9.2	15.3
	1991	100	4.4	11.6	16.7	37.8	28.9	0.6	100	1.7	21.2	16.4	31.3	11.6	17.8
PARAGUAY	1983	100	10.8	13.8	9.3	48.7	17.1	0.4	100	3.8	10.9	5.4	19.2	31.9	28.8
	1982	100	8.3	17.7	8.8	44.2	20.6	0.4	100	4.8	15.5	5.9	25.4	24.1	24.3
URUGUAY	1981	100	6.2	5.5	21.2	50.1	16.6	0.4	100	1.4	16.1	11.5	31.2	20.2	19.5
	1982	100	6.2	9.3	16.1	47.9	20.4	0.1	100	2.0	18.6	9.0	33.9	19.8	16.7
VENEZUELA	1981	100	8.1	7.7	16.3	46.2	19.9	1.8	100	1.4	20.6	17.8	32.1	14.9	13.2
	1982	100	10.5	8.8	10.2	47.1	21.7	1.7	100	2.2	22.3	13.7	29.7	20.8	11.3

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Includes independent professionals and technicians and professional and technical wage-earners in the public and private sectors.

b/ Includes public sector wage-earners.

Table 39
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): POPULATION EMPLOYED IN THE URBAN INFORMAL SECTOR

Country	Year	Men			Women			Total	Domestic employees	Own-account and unpaid family workers a/	Wage-earners in establishments employing fewer than 5 people a/	Employers of fewer than 5 people	Wage-earners in establishments employing fewer than 5 people a/	Own-account and unpaid family workers a/	Domestic employees
		Total	Employers of fewer than 5 people	Wage-earners in establishments employing fewer than 5 people a/	Total	Employers of fewer than 5 people	Wage-earners in establishments employing fewer than 5 people a/								
ARGENTINA	1980	47.1	3.1	9.8	33.2	1.0	52.6	1.6	10.7	30.2	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	
	1982	45.4	5.0	16.1 b/	24.0 b/	0.3	51.9	1.9	13.0 b/	25.4 b/	11.6	11.6	11.6	11.6	
BOLIVIA	1982	48.1	5.2	14.9	27.5	0.5	62.5	1.7	1.6	51.3	7.9	7.9	7.9	7.9	
	1979	38.2	6.0 b/	12.8 c/	19.0	0.4	49.6	1.2 b/	7.1 c/	19.7	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	
BRAZIL	1980	48.8	6.6 b/	21.2 c/	20.6	0.4	52.3	2.4 b/	12.2 c/	22.5	15.2	15.2	15.2	15.2	
	1987	25.6	0.2	19.0	21.9	21.9	21.9	21.9	
CHILE	1982	37.6	3.1	14.1	20.2	0.2	49.9	1.9	11.3	18.1	18.6	18.6	18.6	18.6	
	1987	26.2	0.3	22.3	17.3	17.3	17.3	17.3	
COLOMBIA	1982	26.8	0.2	24.5	11.9	11.9	11.9	11.9	
	1981	34.2	3.4	11.0	18.2	1.8	36.4	0.9	7.9	13.7	13.9	13.9	13.9	13.9	
COSTA RICA	1982	30.5	4.4	8.6	16.5	0.0	36.9	1.4	9.7	16.5	9.3	9.3	9.3	9.3	
	1982	43.4	1.0	13.2	28.8	0.4	54.7	0.4	5.1	33.5	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	
HONDURAS	1984	24.2	0.5	27.7	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.5	
	1982	41.0	4.6	20.5	15.4	0.5	48.5	2.0	16.1	21.6	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	
MEXICO	1979	21.9	0.2	9.2	15.3	15.3	15.3	15.3	
	1981	39.0	3.4	6.1	28.9	0.6	35.0	1.3	4.3	11.6	17.8	17.8	17.8	17.8	
PANAMA	1983	42.3	8.3	16.5	17.1	0.4	70.3	3.1	6.5	31.9	28.8	28.8	28.8	28.8	
	1982	41.3	5.9	14.4	20.6	0.4	59.8	3.7	7.7	24.1	24.3	24.3	24.3	24.3	
PARAGUAY	1981	30.9	3.8	10.1	16.6	0.4	46.2	1.1	6.8	20.2	19.5	19.5	19.5	19.5	
	1982	34.4	3.6	10.3	20.4	0.1	46.2	1.3	8.4	19.8	16.7	16.7	16.7	16.7	
URUGUAY	1981	43.3	6.0	15.6	19.9	1.8	37.6	1.1	8.4	14.9	13.2	13.2	13.2	13.2	
	1982	44.3	6.9	14.0	21.7	1.7	44.2	1.8	10.3	20.8	13.2	13.2	13.2	13.2	

Sources: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

- a/ Excludes professional and technical occupations.
- b/ Includes professional and technical occupations.
- c/ Workers without an employment contract.

Table 40
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): EMPLOYMENT CONCENTRATION IN URBAN AREAS

Country	Year	Most common occupations							
		Percentage of men in			Total a/ number of occupations	Percentage of women			Total a/ number of occupations
		Most common occupation	Five most common occupations	Ten most common occupations		Most common occupation	Five most common occupations	Ten most common occupations	
ARGENTINA	1980
	1992	10.6	36.6	53.3	145	17.4	51.5	66.6	98
BOLIVIA	1992	9.8	33.4	47.5	114	17.4	62.5	78.1	92
BRAZIL	1979	6.1	25.8	43.7	281	22.8	53.9	70.4	229
	1990	5.9	22.3	36.6	356	16.2	38.5	54.1	295
CHILE	1987	9.6	30.8	50.9	60	21.9	54.6	75.9	54
	1992	7.6	30.8	47.2	121	21.6	54.6	70.1	113
COLOMBIA	1980	9.3	37.5	54.5	83	18.8	54.4	74.3	77
	1992	10.4	39.8	55.0	83	14.9	51.4	69.9	79
COSTA RICA	1981
	1992	6.6	21.5	31.8	268	10.3	35.9	53.6	152
HONDURAS	1992	7.3	27.5	43.3	249	17.1	50.0	69.6	148
MEXICO	1984
	1992	4.5	19.7	31.4	341	10.3	38.5	51.9	214
PANAMA	1979	3.4	14.9	26.3	284	16.6	51.3	67.6	153
	1991	10.1	19.8	29.1	530	15.4	39.8	51.0	295
PARAGUAY	1983	9.3	29.3	40.8	182	28.0	62.3	73.1	84
	1992	5.4	14.9	24.0	320	21.0	39.6	49.6	168
URUGUAY	1981	5.0	21.5	36.7	270	18.8	43.3	61.3	187
	1992	4.9	20.0	31.5	311	17.2	39.6	56.5	203
VENEZUELA	1981	11.7	44.1	58.4	81	23.3	63.3	83.0	73
	1992	13.5	45.1	59.7	78	18.5	62.7	81.6	72

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Total number of occupations and trades listed in each country's standard classification.

Table 41
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): INCOME DISPARITY a/ BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS

Country	Year	Eamed income disparity by age group b/						Pay disparity by age group c/					
		Total	15 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 years or more	Total	15 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 years or more
ARGENTINA	1980	63	83	66	61	71	48	70	90	73	60	77	62
	1992	63	85	67	55	61	64	73	94	70	64	73	71
BOLIVIA	1982	53	63	63	45	60	41	62	65	77	59	69	47
	1979	44	64	51	39	38	40	54	69	60	49	50	55
BRAZIL	1980	55	73	64	54	46	35	65	77	72	63	56	51
	1987	65	98	80	61	56	52	68	94	80	61	62	59
CHILE	1992	66	86	77	59	68	52	69	87	79	63	56	51
	1980	57	94	66	55	44	38	77	108	81	69	59	59
COLOMBIA	1982	69	95	75	67	58	59	82	103	90	76	69	74
	1981	73	100	77	63	75	54	83	101	82	74	87	66
COSTA RICA	1982	72	88	76	70	62	48	81	92	85	78	71	59
	1982	64	78	72	66	53	42	76	83	78	82	82	66
MEXICO	1984	64	93	77	48	57	38	80	98	86	69	74	64
	1992	55	83	65	61	34	32	72	89	80	70	64	56
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
PARAGUAY	1986	50	60	55	52	58	52	50	56	59	58	53	53
	1992	65	66	72	66	69	57	77	87	82	68	66	77
URUGUAY	1981	51	72	62	46	44	44	58	75	61	56	51	50
	1992	57	75	63	55	52	45	61	77	66	59	55	49
VENEZUELA	1981	71	84	78	65	57	54	86	88	90	82	75	80
	1982	69	83	77	66	60	55	73	85	79	65	60	57

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Ratio between average income of men and women, expressed as a percentage.

b/ Income differential among the entire employed population.

c/ Income differential among wage-earners.

Table 42
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): INCOME DISPARITY ^{a/} BY SEX AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION
IN URBAN AREAS

Country	Year	Earned income disparity by years of schooling ^{b/}						Pay disparity by years of schooling ^{c/}					
		Total	0 to 3 years	4 to 6 years	7 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	13 years or more	Total	0 to 3 years	4 to 6 years	7 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	13 years or more
ARGENTINA ^{d/}	1980	63	64	63	62	59	55	70	63	64	87	63	55
	1982	63	63	...	61	51	...	73
BOLIVIA	1982	53	59	52	60	66	50	62	48	38	49	71	58
	1979	44	39	40	43	42	36	54	50	48	51	48	41
BRAZIL	1980	55	45	45	50	49	49	85	55	51	57	54	51
	1987	65	81	74	80	67	48	68	77	74	84	73	50
CHILE	1982	66	66	68	68	73	50	89	72	69	66	74	53
	1980	57	66	84	66	60	52	77	96	92	86	84	58
COLOMBIA	1982	69	69	65	72	68	63	62	87	85	83	82	69
	1981	73	46	53	72	74	79	83	48	59	80	82	85
COSTA RICA	1982	72	59	56	59	69	72	81	59	67	89	77	76
	1982	64	57	62	63	71	62	76	60	68	73	79	64
HONDURAS	1984	84	...	59	73	80	46	80	...	73	73	61	53
	1982	55	...	52	66	63	47	72	...	70	80	79	61
MEXICO ^{e/}	1979	71	58	55	63	74	65	67	49	50	60	70	85
	1991	80	45	55	67	60	72	80	45	52	66	78	76
PANAMA	1983	50	67	53	57	55	51	50	45	44	46	59	52
	1992	85	67	65	70	66	70	77	74	78	66	78	60
PARAGUAY	1981	51	45	49	49	47	43	58	48	53	57	57	44
	1982	57	44	51	55	58	42	61	45	51	58	83	48
URUGUAY	1981	71	58	59	70	74	74	86	69	73	80	81	81
	1982	69	59	58	66	64	71	73	63	82	72	74	73

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

^{a/} Ratio between the average income of men and women, expressed as a percentage.

^{b/} Income differential among the entire employed population.

^{c/} Income differential among wage-earners.

^{d/} For Argentina the levels of education are 0 to 6 years; 7 to 9 years, and 10 or more years.

^{e/} For Mexico the levels of education are 0 to 5 years; 6 to 9 years; 10 to 12 years and 13 or more years.

Table 43
 LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE
 IN URBAN AREAS a/
 (1992)

Country	Sex	Age group				
		Total	15 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 years and above
ARGENTINA	Total	6.6	12.6	4.5	4.5	5.7
	Men	6.8	13.0	4.2	4.5	6.2
	Women	6.3	11.9	5.0	4.6	4.7
BOLIVIA	Total	5.5	8.6	5.3	4.3	3.8
	Men	5.4	7.5	5.3	4.5	4.4
	Women	5.6	9.8	5.4	3.8	2.9
BRAZIL	Total	4.5	8.4	4.4	2.4	1.5
	Men	4.8	8.8	4.7	2.8	1.9
	Women	3.9	7.8	3.8	1.7	0.6
CHILE	Total	6.0	14.3	5.4	3.3	2.9
	Men	5.0	12.0	4.2	2.8	3.0
	Women	7.8	17.8	7.4	4.2	2.8
COLOMBIA	Total					
	Men	6.5	14.9	5.8	3.6	3.0
	Women	12.6	22.7	12.4	7.6	3.9
COSTA RICA	Total	4.2	9.0	3.9	2.5	1.9
	Men	3.5	8.2	2.4	2.5	1.8
	Women	5.5	10.4	6.3	2.6	2.1
GUATEMALA	Total	3.5	7.1	2.9	1.6	1.2
	Men	3.3	7.2	2.6	1.5	1.4
	Women	3.8	7.0	3.4	1.8	0.9
HONDURAS	Total	5.1	6.9	6.4	3.8	2.4
	Men	5.8	7.1	7.2	4.8	3.3
	Women	4.2	6.7	5.4	2.3	0.8
MEXICO	Total	4.3	9.9	2.4	1.2	2.3
	Men	4.4	10.1	2.3	1.4	3.2
	Women	3.9	9.6	2.6	0.7	0.1
PANAMA	Total	18.6	35.1	20.6	9.5	6.9
	Men	15.9	31.9	16.5	7.4	7.0
	Women	22.8	39.9	26.3	12.5	6.5
PARAGUAY	Total	5.0	9.7	3.0	4.5	2.6
	Men	6.0	10.7	3.6	6.9	3.7
	Women	3.7	8.7	2.1	1.9	0.5
URUGUAY	Total	8.4	21.8	7.7	4.4	3.4
	Men	6.4	18.9	4.9	2.2	2.4
	Women	11.0	26.0	11.1	7.0	4.8
VENEZUELA	Total	7.3	14.2	7.4	4.3	3.6
	Men	8.1	15.0	8.0	5.0	4.6
	Women	5.9	12.7	6.5	3.0	1.4

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Brazil, 1990; Guatemala, 1989; Panama, 1991.

Table 44
 LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND LEVEL OF
 EDUCATION IN URBAN AREAS a/
 (1992)

Country	Sex	Years of schooling				
		Total	0 to 5 years	6 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	13 or more years
ARGENTINA	Total	6.6	13.0	7.3	5.5	4.1
	Men	6.8	13.0	7.1	5.0	3.7
	Women	6.3	...	7.7	6.2	4.5
BOLIVIA	Total	5.5	3.6	6.4	6.7	5.4
	Men	5.4	4.4	5.9	6.2	4.7
	Women	5.6	2.9	7.1	7.8	6.6
BRAZIL	Total	4.5	4.2	6.2	4.5	1.9
	Men	4.8	4.8	6.2	4.5	1.6
	Women	3.9	3.2	6.2	4.4	2.2
CHILE	Total	6.0	5.4	6.3	6.4	5.3
	Men	5.0	5.2	5.8	4.9	4.0
	Women	7.8	5.7	7.3	9.4	7.0
COLOMBIA	Total	9.1	7.6	11.6	11.1	5.9
	Men	6.5	6.0	7.8	7.3	4.4
	Women	12.6	9.9	17.0	15.6	7.6
COSTA RICA	Total	4.2	4.1	5.3	4.5	1.9
	Men	3.5	3.0	4.2	3.9	1.9
	Women	5.5	6.8	7.6	5.3	2.0
GUATEMALA	Total	3.5	2.3	4.3	5.9	2.3
	Men	3.3	2.3	4.1	5.3	2.3
	Women	3.8	2.3	4.7	6.5	2.3
HONDURAS	Total	5.1	4.1	6.2	5.5	3.2
	Men	5.8	5.7	7.1	4.5	2.8
	Women	4.2	1.7	4.9	6.5	3.9
MEXICO	Total	4.3	3.3	4.9	3.8	3.7
	Men	4.4	4.2	5.0	4.2	3.1
	Women	3.9	1.3	4.8	2.9	5.2
PANAMA	Total	18.6	10.7	18.4	24.9	14.8
	Men	15.9	9.6	16.5	20.5	12.9
	Women	22.8	13.9	22.5	30.4	16.6
PARAGUAY	Total	5.0	7.6	4.6	6.3	1.7
	Men	6.0	11.8	5.6	6.2	1.9
	Women	3.7	2.1	3.4	6.5	1.4
URUGUAY	Total	8.4	5.9	9.3	9.4	5.4
	Men	6.4	5.0	7.4	5.8	4.3
	Women	11.0	7.5	12.3	13.3	6.3
VENEZUELA	Total	7.3	7.7	8.2	7.0	4.9
	Men	8.1	9.2	8.9	7.4	4.5
	Women	5.9	3.7	6.5	6.5	5.5

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Brazil, 1990; Guatemala, 1989; Panama, 1991.

Table 45
**LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT BY SEX AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION
 IN URBAN AREAS a/**
 (1992)

Country	Sex	Years of schooling					No information available
		Total	0 to 5 years	6 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	13 or more years	
ARGENTINA	Total	100.0	...	47.3	38.3	12.5	1.9
	Men	100.0	...	54.9	33.2	9.5	2.4
	Women	100.0	...	33.3	47.6	18.1	0.9
BOLIVIA	Total	100.0	18.1	24.9	33.3	22.5	1.2
	Men	100.0	17.6	24.7	35.7	20.5	1.5
	Women	100.0	18.9	25.1	30.0	25.2	0.8
BRAZIL	Total	100.0	47.1	30.1	18.5	4.2	0.1
	Men	100.0	52.8	28.9	15.3	2.9	0.1
	Women	100.0	35.7	32.4	24.9	6.9	0.0
CHILE	Total	100.0	11.5	27.8	40.7	19.8	0.1
	Men	100.0	14.0	32.5	37.7	15.7	0.1
	Women	100.0	8.7	22.4	44.2	24.5	0.1
COLOMBIA	Total	100.0	25.4	30.5	32.2	11.2	0.8
	Men	100.0	29.5	29.6	28.6	11.4	0.9
	Women	100.0	22.7	31.1	34.6	11.0	0.7
COSTA RICA	Total	100.0	12.1	51.1	27.1	8.9	0.9
	Men	100.0	11.9	50.6	26.7	9.2	1.6
	Women	100.0	12.2	51.7	27.5	8.6	0.0
GUATEMALA	Total	100.0	30.0	37.0	27.4	5.5	0.0
	Men	100.0	31.0	40.0	22.8	6.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	28.7	32.7	34.0	4.6	0.0
HONDURAS	Total	100.0	25.7	46.5	22.1	5.7	0.0
	Men	100.0	32.2	49.2	13.6	5.0	0.0
	Women	100.0	12.8	41.1	39.0	7.0	0.0
MEXICO	Total	100.0	15.3	59.6	12.1	13.0	0.0
	Men	100.0	19.1	56.8	13.3	10.8	0.0
	Women	100.0	6.6	65.9	9.5	18.1	0.0
PANAMA	Total	100.0	6.8	37.1	39.0	17.1	0.0
	Men	100.0	8.5	43.4	33.9	14.2	0.0
	Women	100.0	4.8	30.3	44.5	20.4	0.0
PARAGUAY	Total	100.0	22.8	35.2	36.2	5.8	0.0
	Men	100.0	29.3	33.8	31.3	5.6	0.0
	Women	100.0	8.7	38.4	46.7	6.2	0.0
URUGUAY	Total	100.0	9.5	51.4	29.5	8.5	1.1
	Men	100.0	12.0	58.8	21.5	6.6	1.1
	Women	100.0	7.6	45.6	35.8	9.9	1.2
VENEZUELA	Total	100.0	15.6	53.8	19.6	10.2	0.8
	Men	100.0	18.6	56.6	16.6	7.2	1.0
	Women	100.0	7.6	46.6	27.5	17.9	0.3

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Brazil, 1990; Guatemala, 1989; Panama, 1991.

Table 46
 LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE HOURS WORKED PER WEEK BY MEN AND WOMEN,
 BROKEN DOWN BY OCCUPATION AND RELATIONSHIP, URBAN AREAS a/
 (1992)

Country	Sex	Average hours worked per week							
		Wage-earners				Own-account workers			
		Total	Head of household	Spouse*	Other members of the household	Total	Head of household	Spouse*	Other members of the household
ARGENTINA	Men	55	55	...	56	68	63	...	86
	Women	53	59	51	53	68	51	65	93
BOLIVIA	Men	45	47	...	42	44	46	...	36
	Women	41	37	37	44	40	41	40	36
BRAZIL	Men	44	45	...	43	46	48	...	40
	Women	40	40	37	42	34	36	34	33
CHILE	Men	51	51	...	50	49	50	...	45
	Women	48	47	45	50	44	43	46	41
COLOMBIA	Men	50	52	...	47	50	52	...	45
	Women	47	47	44	48	42	44	42	41
COSTA RICA	Men	49	50	...	47	46	48	...	40
	Women	44	43	41	45	30	31	31	30
GUATEMALA	Men	47	48	...	46	43	44	...	39
	Women	37	37	35	42	31	28	35	24
HONDURAS	Men	51	51	...	50	51	54	...	44
	Women	49	47	43	53	45	43	49	39
MEXICO	Men	48	49	...	45	46	47	...	42
	Women	41	41	37	44	35	34	36	35
PANAMA	Men	44	44	...	44	39	41	...	37
	Women	41	40	41	43	29	30	29	29
PARAGUAY	Men	49	50	...	47	51	51	...	50
	Women	44	43	41	46	46	50	44	47
URUGUAY	Men	48	49	...	45	49	51	...	42
	Women	36	36	35	38	37	38	39	33
VENEZUELA	Men	43	43	...	43	43	44	...	42
	Women	41	41	39	42	34	36	33	35

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys.

a/ Brazil, 1990; Guatemala, 1989; Panama, 1991.

Translator's note: The term "spouse" denotes a married woman as a woman living in a consensual union.

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