

SOCIAL PANORAMA OF LATIN AMERICA

1996 EDITION



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

LC/G.1946-P March 1997

The *Social Panorama of Latin America* is prepared periodically by the Statistics and Economic Projections Division and the Social Development Division of ECLAC. The present edition has been enriched by the valuable contribution of the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF).

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 missing, are not available or are not separately reported.

Two dashes and a period (-.-) indicate that the sample size is too small to be used as a basis for estimating the corresponding values with acceptable reliability and precision.

A dash (–) indicates that the amount is nil or negligible.

A blank space in a table indicates that the concept under consideration is not applicable or not comparable.

A minus sign (-) indicates a deficit or decrease, except where otherwise specified.

A point (.) is used to indicate decimals.

Use of a hyphen (-) between years, e.g., 1991-1993, indicates reference to the complete number of calendar years involved, including the beginning and end years.

The word "dollars" refers to United States dollars, unless otherwise specified.

Individual figures and percentages in tables may not always add up to the corresponding total, because of rounding.

UNITED NATIONS PUBLICATION
Sales No. E.97.II.G.4
ISBN 92-1-121217-0

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ABSTRACT

The **Social Panorama of Latin America** provides a yearly appraisal of the most notable aspects of social trends in Latin America with regard to employment, income distribution, poverty, the status of children and young people, gender and social expenditure. The publication also follows up on the Governments' social agenda and examines the direction taken by social policy in the areas of education, health, housing, public safety and government spending.

In view of the importance attributed by the region's Governments to the subject of poverty and the fact that 1996 was the International Year for the Eradication of Poverty, this edition of the **Panorama** devotes special attention to that issue. Its findings attest to the persistence of poverty in Latin America, where, despite a slight reduction in the percentage of poor households between 1990 and 1994 (from 41% to 39%), the population living in poverty today numbers over 200 million persons. Unemployment and the instability and low productivity of new jobs are factors that are closely related to the phenomenon of poverty. Information is also provided on the persistent intractability of income distribution in the region in the face of efforts to improve it. As regards opportunities for gaining access to sources of well-being, children in rural areas continue to lag behind those in urban areas, even though the number of minors at risk of malnutrition has been nearly halved.

In the 1990s, the percentage of gross domestic product allocated for government social expenditure has risen in a majority of the countries, with the increase being sharper in the areas of education and social security and somewhat less so in the field of health care. Some of the main types of poverty-reduction policies in use in the region are employment policies and the creation of social funds. The analysis of social policy management includes an examination of the changes being made in labour laws in an effort to increase their flexibility.

INTRODUCTION

The **Social Panorama of Latin America** is a reflection of the commitment and ongoing efforts of the secretariat of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) to take the social dimension into consideration in its annual appraisals of regional development.

This report is prepared on a regular basis by the Statistics and Economic Projections Division and the Social Development Division of ECLAC.

Based on the Commission's joint activities with the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), this edition includes an assessment of the progress made as of the mid-1990s towards attaining a number of regional goals that emerged out of the World Summit for Children, together with an analysis of social factors of fundamental importance for children's development.

In addition, the examination of topics relating to poverty and productive employment has been broadened in order to take into account the main issues addressed at the World Summit for Social Development and by the proclamation of 1996 as the International Year for the Eradication of Poverty. The analysis of the social agenda includes a consideration of labour reforms being undertaken in the region and a description of anti-poverty programmes on which information has been provided by institutions in the countries concerned.

The 1996 edition of the **Social Panorama of Latin America** comprises six chapters and a statistical appendix. The 36 tables in the appendix provide socio-economic indicators designed for use in quantitative social analyses.

The first chapter presents the most recent ECLAC estimates on poverty. These estimates are for 1994 and cover a large number of Latin American countries as well as providing regional totals. Changes in the extent of poverty between late 1994 and mid-1996 are examined against the backdrop of trends in influential economic and social variables. This chapter also offers a discussion of the predominant characteristics of poor households, especially as regards the relationship between poverty and occupational status, in an effort to help gauge the scope and relevance of a variety of social and economic policy tools.

These measurements indicate that the percentage of poor households in Latin America declined from 41% to 39% between 1990 and 1994 but that, even so, the number of poor people totalled over 200 million. In contrast, between late 1994 and early 1996, the trends in this connection were very uneven. On the one hand, the effects of Brazil's stabilization programme, Peru's strong growth rate in 1995 and the dynamic growth of Chile during the past two years have apparently led to a reduction in poverty in those countries. On the other hand, the sharply declining output and rising unemployment seen in 1995 in Argentina and Mexico and the surge in inflation in Mexico appear to have increased poverty appreciably in those two countries, while in Venezuela it seems to have continued to worsen as well. In most of the other countries, poverty appears to have held steady or diminished slightly.

Of the characteristics most often associated with urban poverty, it was found that 7 out of 10 poor households' status as such was attributable to the low labour income of the head of household or the household's main employed source of support. Furthermore, an insufficient level of labour income for the poor

was found to exist not only in low-productivity sectors of the labour force but also among government employees and wage-earners in medium-sized and large private firms. In 7 out of the 12 countries studied, it was determined that between 30% and 50% of private-sector wage-earners, other than those working in microenterprises, belonged to poor households.

The second chapter focuses on income distribution. The findings indicate that the region continues to suffer from a great deal of inequality and to experience serious difficulty in making improvements in that distributional pattern even in countries that have achieved high growth rates. The richest 10% of all households' share of total income has tended to rise, whereas the poorest 40% of households' share has remained constant or has actually shrunk. The wide income gap between skilled and unskilled workers and its tendency to broaden even further during the 1990s have helped to perpetuate the marked concentration of income that is typical of the vast majority of Latin American countries.

The trends registered during the first half of the 1990s in unemployment, in the utilization of the labour force and in the quality of the jobs created are explored in the third chapter. The upturn in open unemployment in a number of countries during the past two years has reversed the positive trend recorded between 1990 and 1994 in both unemployment and underemployment (measured in terms of the number of hours worked). Research findings also underscore the persistence of the existing profile of open urban unemployment, which is most prevalent among lower-income sectors, young people, persons with a mid-range level of education, and women.

It was also found that the earnings of between 20% and 40% of full-time employees fall below the minimum required to afford them access to sources of well-being; this percentage climbs to between 40% and 60% among the members of the employed population who have fewer than 10 years of schooling. This chapter also quantifies the percentage of the working population in urban areas whose workday is substantially longer than usual, thus enabling them to make up for a portion of the shortfall in their labour income.

With regard to the quality of employment, it was found that the insufficient rate of job creation and the labour force's low skill level have led to a continuing increase in low-productivity labour activities, including those engaged in by unskilled own-account workers, non-professional/non-technical wage-earners working in microenterprises, and domestic service workers. Taken together, in 1994 these occupational categories accounted for 42% of urban employment (measured as a simple average in 12 countries of the region).

The fourth chapter provides new information on trends and levels of public expenditure on social items during the first half of the 1990s. In 11 of 15 Latin American countries, allocations to social sectors increased. Moreover, in 7 of those 11 countries, the level of social expenditure was higher than it had been in the early 1980s, thereby reversing the downward trend seen during the preceding decade. A comparison of per capita government social expenditure in 1994-1995 and 1990-1991 shows that, on average, such spending in the region climbed by nearly US\$ 50 in real terms, which is equivalent to a 27.5% increase.

The upswing in government social spending was sharper in the sectors of education and social security and was relatively less so in health care. This improvement was, in turn, a result of the fact that a larger proportion of public funds was allocated to social sectors even in countries where cuts were made in the overall fiscal budget.

Substantial differences still exist between one country and the next with regard to the amount of funding allocated to social sectors, however. Whereas in one group of seven Latin American countries, the Government spends more than 11% of GDP and over US\$ 200 in per capita terms on social items per year, the seven countries with the lowest levels of social expenditure allocate less than 8% of GDP and less than

US\$ 70 per capita per year. These figures are a far cry from funding levels in the industrialized countries, where per capita social expenditure amounts to over US\$ 3,000 per year.

Chapter five contains an analysis of various aspects related to children's well-being and risk factors. It was found that during the first half of the 1990s only one third of the countries that were studied had moved ahead on all fronts in terms of the factors —i.e., children's nutritional status, basic health conditions and school performance— that heavily influence children's development. Somewhat more than half of the countries did make varying degrees of progress in one or two of these areas, however.

A review of the mid-decade goals set by UNICEF for the well-being of children reveals that the goals in the field of education have been achieved by the vast majority of countries and that, in a number of these cases, some progress has been made in diminishing the differences between socio-economic strata. As regards the goals set in the area of nutrition, the relative number of children at risk of malnutrition decreased in over half of the countries. In contrast, few of the countries that were studied reached the goals established for drinking water and sanitation services, nor were a majority of the countries successful in making any substantial reduction in the gap between the poorest strata and the rest of the population in this area.

With regard to geographic differences, children in the rural areas of Latin America are at a great disadvantage *vis-à-vis* children in urban zones in terms of their access to sources of well-being. This is reflected in the differences to be seen in the percentage of children who do not complete their primary education, the percentage of children who must repeat a grade in the first two years of school and the percentage who live in extreme poverty. Differences between urban and rural populations' access to drinking water and basic sanitation services are even more striking, inasmuch as 30%-40% more of the population has access to these services in urban areas than in rural zones.

During the first half of the 1990s, the percentage and absolute number of poor children decreased in the countries that have lower levels of poverty but held constant or increased in those with higher poverty indexes. This same trend was also found to exist in respect of children living in households subject to critical deficiencies in the areas of infrastructure and basic services, as well as insufficient incomes.

The final chapter, which reviews the social agenda of the Governments of the region, draws upon information supplied by national institutions regarding the social programmes in operation. In this edition of the **Social Panorama of Latin America**, the focus is on the various anti-poverty programmes that have been conducted in the region, especially those aimed at the creation of jobs and social investment funds. Special attention is devoted to new forms of social resource management and to their limitations in terms of target-group coverage and sustainability as well as shortcomings with regard to the monitoring and evaluation of their results. A description is also provided of the changes that have been made in labour laws in recent years in an effort to modify working conditions and make the labour market more flexible.

On the basis of press reports and the results of an opinion poll, a brief analysis is given of social issues which are at the centre of public debate: poverty, low wages, unemployment and such aspects of the lack of social integration as corruption, violence, drug trafficking and drug addiction. A final section on the international agenda provides an overview of the agreements reached at the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II) and the Hemispheric Conference on the Eradication of Poverty and Discrimination.

The statistical annex is a compilation of the quantitative data on which most of this report is based. This edition also includes a set of tables that is intended to serve as the starting point for time series of socio-economic indicators that can be used to monitor the social development process and the situation with regard to social equity. This has been made possible by the ongoing efforts of statistical offices and other agencies

in the countries of the region to refine household surveys, update them and ensure their continuity. The original data were compiled at ECLAC and were entered into the Household Survey Data Bank (BADEHOG) with a view to assessing their reliability and achieving an acceptable degree of standardization. The work of all the above-mentioned institutions has made it possible to include a larger number of countries in the **Social Panorama of Latin America** and to broaden its subject-matter coverage.

TRENDS IN POVERTY IN THE 1990s

- 1. *Trends from 1990 to 1994***
- 2. *Changes in poverty in the last two years***
- 3. *Features of urban poverty***
- 4. *Poverty and occupational category***

1. Trends from 1990 to 1994

In the first five years of the 1990s (1990-1994), poverty abated slightly in Latin America in terms of percentage of the population, although the number of poor persons exceeded 200 million in 1994. This percentage decline is attributable to significant reductions from the peak levels recorded in 1990 in Argentina, Bolivia, Mexico, Panama and Peru and advances in Chile and Uruguay where poverty diminished not only from 1990 levels but also with respect to 1980. The substantial improvements noted in these seven countries were counteracted by increases in poverty in Brazil and Venezuela in the early 1990s, which limited the progress made by the region as a whole.

According to the most up-to-date estimates of the extent of poverty prepared by the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), the percentage of households living in poverty in Latin America declined from 41% to 39% between 1990 and 1994. This improvement, which coincided with an economic upturn in a number of countries during the first half of the 1990s, was far too limited to compensate for the sharp increase in poverty in the region over the previous decade, namely from 35% to 41%.

More limited advances were made with respect to indigence or extreme poverty, since the percentage of indigent households declined by just one percentage point, from 18% to 17%. As these figures suggest, one out of every six households in Latin America is still unable to satisfy its nutritional needs, even assuming it spent all its meagre resources entirely on food.

LATIN AMERICA: EXTENT OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE a/
(Percentages)
1980 - 1994

	Poor b/			Indigent c/		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	35	25	54	15	9	28
1990	41	36	56	18	13	33
1994	39	34	55	17	12	33

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

a/ Estimates cover 19 countries of the region.

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

c/ Percentage of households with income below the poverty line.

The 2% decline in poverty in the region stems mainly from a reduction in poverty from 36% to 34% in urban areas. On the other hand, rural poverty, which declined by only 1% from very high levels, i.e., 56% to 55%, had a more limited effect on the decrease noted in the countries under consideration. The high proportion of city-dwellers in Latin America, which moved from around 71% to 74% between 1990 and 1994, accounts for the fact that 65% of the total poor population is concentrated in cities, although the poor account for a lower percentage of overall population in urban areas than in rural areas.

The pattern of indigence in urban and rural areas was similar to that of poverty. Between 1990 and 1994, the percentage of extremely poor urban households declined by only one point, from 13% to 12%, and remained at around 33% in the rural areas. Owing to the sharp increase in the urban population, the urban indigent population exceeded the rural indigent population during this period.

LATIN AMERICA: NUMBER OF POOR AND INDIGENT a/
(Thousands)
1980 - 1994

	Poor b/			Indigent c/		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
1980	135 900	62 900	73 000	62 400	22 500	39 900
1990	197 200	120 800	76 400	91 900	45 400	46 500
1994	209 300	135 400	73 900	98 300	51 900	46 400

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

a/ Estimates cover 19 countries of the region.

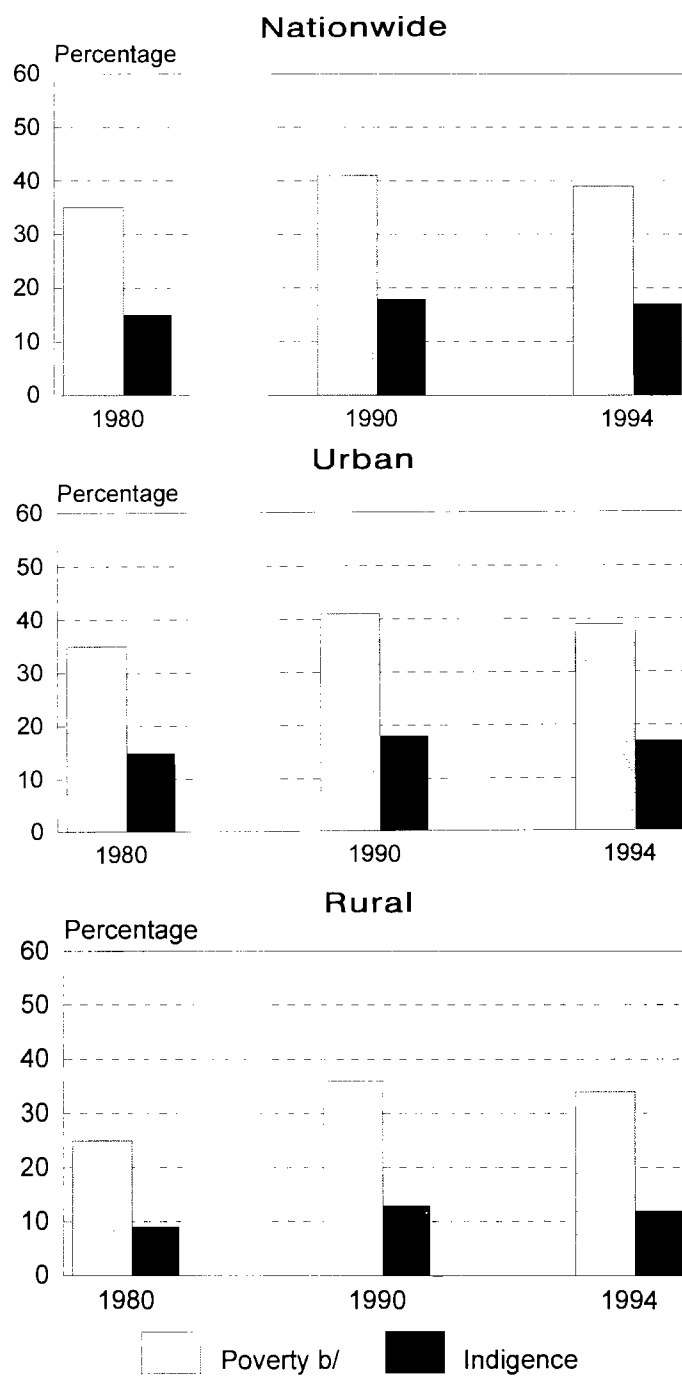
b/ Persons in households below the poverty line. Includes the indigent.

c/ Persons in indigent households.

Nonetheless, the decrease in the percentage of poor and indigent households was insufficient to prevent a steady increase in the numbers of persons affected. Despite the aggregate two percentage point decline, the number of poor persons in Latin America grew by 12 million from around 197 million in 1990 to 209 million in 1994. Similarly, the number of persons living in indigent households increased by 6.4 million. Based on these figures, the overall assessment for Latin America, while moderately positive in terms of the change in relative figures, is quite the reverse if one looks at the absolute number of persons living in poverty or the percentage of region's population that they still represented in 1994, i.e., 47% below the poverty line and 22% below the indigence line.

In order not to exceed the figure of 197 million poor recorded in 1990, the incidence of poverty among households would have had to decline by two further percentage points, i.e., it would have had to drop from 41% to 37%.

Figure I.1
LATIN AMERICA: EXTENT OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE a/
(Percentage of households)
(1980 - 1994)



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

a/ Estimates cover 19 countries.

b/ Includes indigent households.

Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that this overall picture was strongly influenced by what occurred in Brazil, where the rise in urban poverty from 37% to 39% between 1990 and 1993 largely cancelled out the substantial reductions recorded in urban areas in Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico, Peru and Uruguay. Nationwide, the percentage of poor households in Brazil remained virtually unchanged at approximately 41% during the period 1990-1993, thanks to the decline in rural poverty from 55% to 51%. Rural indigence, on the other hand, remained at approximately 30%, while urban indigence increased from 9% to 11%. As indicated below, this trend was reversed in the 1994-1995 biennium.

Furthermore, the substantial rise in the incidence of poverty in Venezuela (from 34% in 1990 to 42% in 1994) also had the effect of limiting the progress made in the region as a whole (see table 16 of the statistical appendix).

The situation of poverty in Latin America as of 1994 was the net result of a number of contradictory trends, including both advances and setbacks in the various countries from one year to the next in the 1990-1994 period. Some countries, including Chile and Uruguay, have succeeded in steadily reducing poverty, so that current levels are lower than in 1980. Panama has also made significant strides in this area but only in the last couple of years. In other countries (Argentina, Bolivia, Mexico and Peru, to name a few), the reduction in poverty in the early 1990s was significant, but only in comparison with the high rates recorded in the late 1980s. The situation in Costa Rica was similar, although poverty reached a peak in 1992 and the sharp decline occurred in the following two years.

In Chile, strong and sustained economic growth, reflected in an average annual per capita GDP growth rate of over 5% between 1991 and 1994, together with increasing price stability and job creation, brought down unemployment rates to relatively low levels.

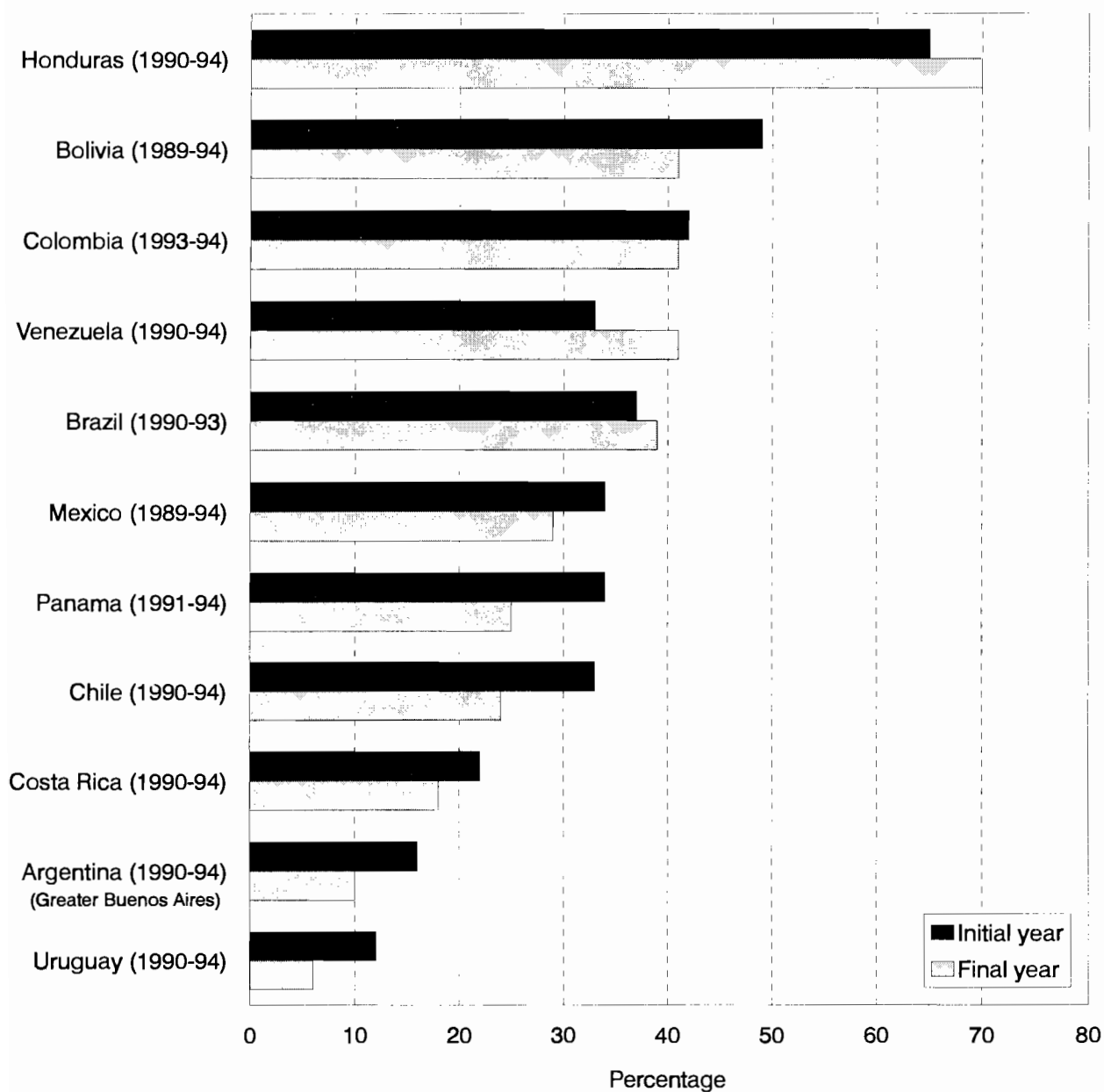
In Uruguay, economic growth from 1991 to 1994, albeit with fluctuations, and the decline in the rate of inflation helped considerably to reduce urban poverty to half of the already low percentage recorded in 1990 (12%). Also contributing to this result were events relating to defence of the rights of potentially vulnerable groups, such as the substantial increase in income granted to retirees and pensioners.

In Panama, the improvement observed, despite the fact that the level of urban unemployment remained very high at around 16%, was due largely to the strong growth in per capita GDP in the three-year period 1990-1992—close to an annual rate of 6%—following a drop of nearly 15% of GDP between 1988 and 1989.

Argentina and Mexico managed to reverse the trend towards increased poverty noted in the last years of the 1980s. In Argentina there was a very significant improvement, and it was based on a remarkable reduction in inflation and on the rapid recovery in production figures. However, towards the end of the five-year period 1990-1994, unemployment started to rise beyond the already high levels, thus halting any further reduction in poverty.

The reduction in poverty in Mexico up to 1994 was slower than in the above-mentioned countries. It was attributable, in large measure, to the steady decline in inflation (from an annual rate of 30% to 7%) in a context of low open unemployment and, to a lesser degree, to economic growth since per capita GDP grew by only 2% per year between 1990 and 1994. Nevertheless, these factors combined to bring urban poverty down from 34% in 1989 to 29% in 1994.

Figure I.2
 LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): URBAN POVERTY
 (Percentage of households) a/

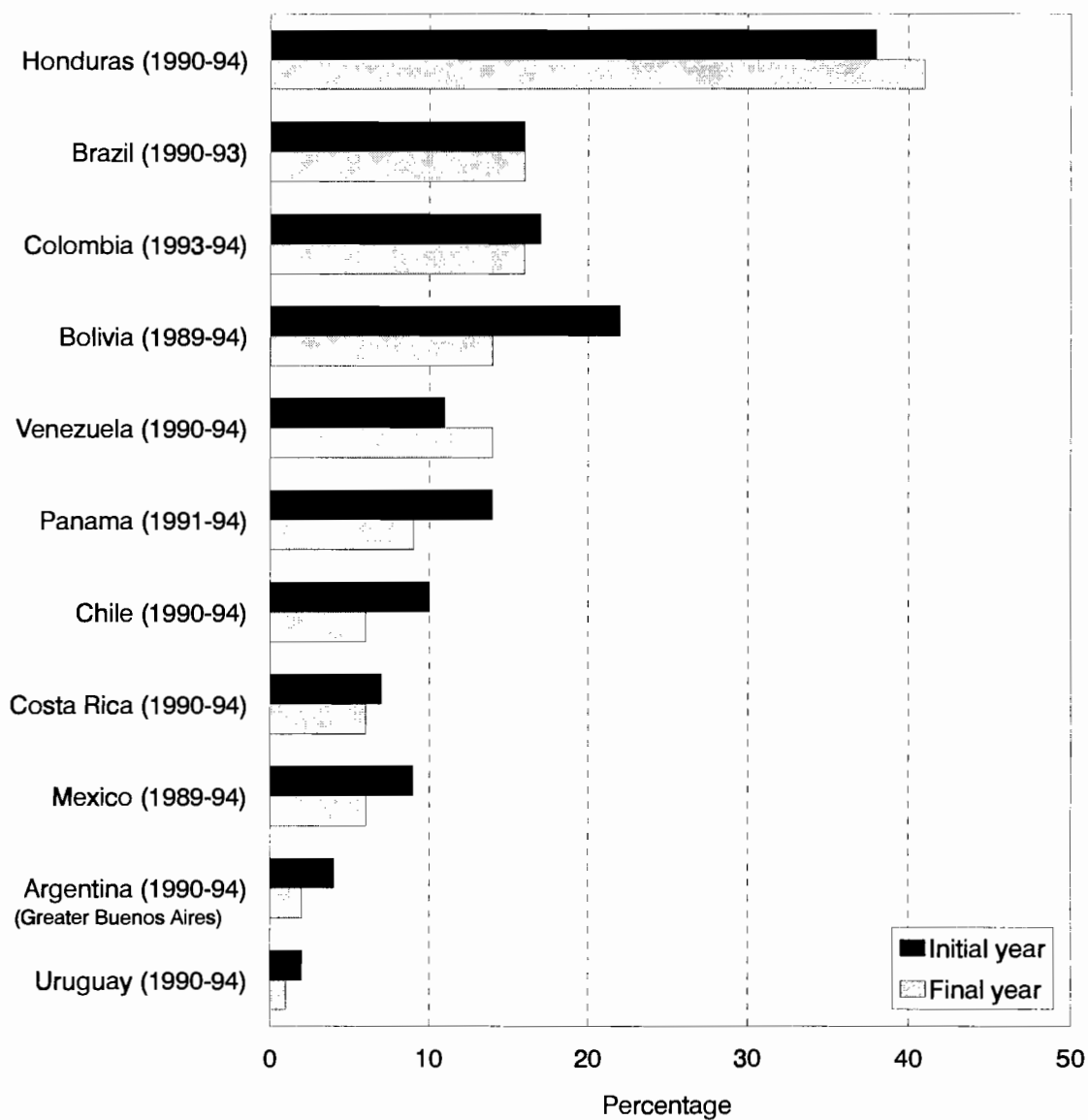


Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from households surveys.

a/ Includes indigent households.

Figure I.3

LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): URBAN INDIGENCE
 (Percentage of households)



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

In Peru, cumulative per capita GDP growth, close to 16% in the two-year period 1993-1994, and the significant reduction in inflation since the early 1990s (from 140% in 1991 to 15% in 1994) meant an increase in salaries in real terms. Both factors contributed to the appreciable decline in the percentage of the population below the poverty line. Estimates prepared in the country show that, nationwide, poverty receded from 55% in 1991 to just under 50% in 1994.

In Bolivia, urban poverty declined, albeit from very high initial levels, falling eight percentage points (from 49% to 41%) between 1989 and 1994 and four percentage points (from 45% to 41%) between 1992 and 1994. This improvement was consistent with the rise in employment rates, which were reflected in a substantial decline in urban unemployment, from 7% in 1991 to close to 3% in 1994, and to an increase in per capita income against a background of increasing price stability.

In Costa Rica, there was a sharp fall in poverty levels, especially between 1992 and 1994. The overall poverty ratio for the country of 25%, a relatively low figure for Latin America, declined by four percentage points. The economic recovery accounted for this improvement by boosting per capita GDP by more than 10% over the three-year period. Falling inflation and the decline in urban unemployment levels from 6% to 4% also helped to improve income levels of households in the lower deciles.

Despite a strong economic expansion, Colombia did not manage to distribute the benefits in such a way as to achieve any notable reduction in poverty. Surveys with a wider coverage conducted in the urban areas of the country revealed the poverty level to be slightly higher than previously estimated on the basis of a more limited geographical coverage. Preliminary estimates show a slight decline in poverty nationwide, from 49% to 47% between 1993 and 1994, although the percentage should prove to have increased over the first five years of the decade.

Growth in Brazil up to 1995 was unstable, with GDP declining at the beginning of the decade and expanding from 1993 onwards. Per capita GDP dropped by around 10% between 1990 and 1992, but rose again by a similar percentage between 1993 and 1995. As a result, poverty spread between 1990 and 1993, rising two percentage points in urban areas, a trend due in part to economic stagnation accompanied by very high inflation, which eroded the purchasing power of average and minimum wages, despite the high degree of indexation of the economy.

Venezuela had to contend simultaneously with economic recession, high inflation and unemployment. Hence poverty levels soared, especially as from 1992. By 1994, urban and rural poverty had risen by almost ten percentage points.

Most of the Central American countries, together with Ecuador, experienced slow economic recovery as they were unable to apply any meaningful government policies for eradicating poverty or seriously tackling unemployment, so that their poverty indexes remained very high. This was the case in Honduras, for example, where according to estimates for recent years, the poverty level in the country between 1992 and 1994 remained at approximately 73%, with no appreciable difference between urban and rural areas.

An assessment of the chief factors influencing poverty trends during the period under review (1990-1994) underscores once again the point made in earlier editions of the **Social Panorama of Latin America**: in order to achieve substantial reductions in poverty, a combination of factors is necessary, namely, stronger economic growth, lower inflation, job creation to reduce unemployment and appropriate government policies with reasonable degrees of effectiveness. This combination, although not an easy one to achieve, has proven feasible in some Latin American countries. However, in a pattern characteristic of the 1980s and 1990s, not only have many countries of the region not succeeded in combining these factors in a positive way, but when faced by imbalances and economic recessions, they have seen poverty increase sharply. The experience of several countries

has shown that even after the economy picks up again, it takes longer to bring poverty levels back down to what they were previously and much longer still before any new reduction can be achieved.

Hence, the drastic setbacks suffered over the last two years by countries that had shown steady progress in some of the above-mentioned areas will have extremely adverse effects on efforts to eradicate poverty and improve social equity in the medium term.

METHOD USED FOR ESTIMATING POVERTY

Estimates of extreme poverty prepared by ECLAC are based on the "income method", which consists in calculating poverty lines. These lines represent the level of income required by a household in order to meet the basic needs of all its members. The poverty lines for each country and geographical area were determined on the basis of the estimated cost of a basket of staple foods—taking into account existing eating habits, actual availability of foods in the country and relative prices—which meets the nutritional needs of the population. The value of this basket was then added to the total estimated sum required by households to meet the basic non-food needs of their members.

The "indigence line" denotes the cost of this basket of staple foods, and the indigent (or extremely poor) are defined as persons who reside in a household whose income is so low that even if the whole of that income were used to buy food, the household could not adequately cover the nutritional needs of all its members. The poverty line in urban areas works out to twice the indigence line, while in rural areas, it is 75% higher than the respective basic food budget.

In calculating indigence lines, the differences between food prices in metropolitan areas and those in the remaining urban and rural areas were taken into account. Generally speaking, estimates of the cost of the basic baskets of staple foods in non-metropolitan urban zones and in rural areas are based on price levels 5% and 25%, respectively, below those used for metropolitan areas.

The percentages of households and persons classified as poor and as indigent were obtained by comparing the per capita monthly value of the respective lines with the total income of each household, also expressed on a per capita basis. Country poverty and indigence indexes were calculated as weighted averages of the corresponding indexes for each geographical area. These indexes are therefore influenced not only by the extent of poverty in each such area but also by the relative size of its population in terms of the total national population.

2. Changes in poverty in the last two years

In the two-year period 1995-1996, very dissimilar trends were noted with respect to poverty. Of particular importance were the effects of the stabilization programme in Brazil and the substantial growth recorded in 1995 in Peru and in 1995-1996 in Chile, which enabled these countries to alleviate poverty. On the other hand, the sudden fall in GDP accompanied by rising unemployment experienced in 1995 in Argentina and Mexico, exacerbated in the latter by accelerating rates of inflation, resulted in increased poverty in both countries. For similar reasons, poverty continued to spread in Venezuela. In most other countries, poverty levels remained the same or declined slightly.

In countries which reduced poverty during the first five years of the 1990s, the factor contributing most to the improvement was the rate of economic growth. Between 1990 and 1994, a number of countries that succeeded in increasing per capita GDP between 14% to 28% also recorded substantial reductions in poverty levels nationwide and for urban areas. Among these countries, those with the best growth record in a context of increasing price stability (Argentina, Chile and Uruguay) were also those where the percentage of households below the poverty line showed the most significant proportional decline (see figure I.4).

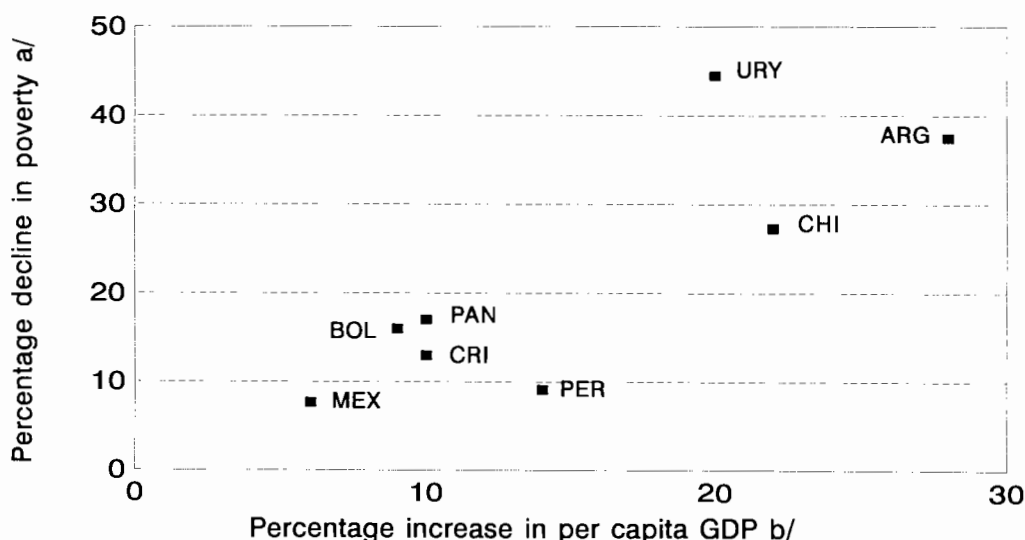
The decrease in the rate of inflation also played an important part in reducing poverty. Increasing price stability had a greater impact in urban areas, especially in the countries that managed to bring inflation down rapidly from extremely high levels, as was the case in Argentina and Peru and, to a lesser extent, in Chile, Mexico and Uruguay.

Open unemployment, on the other hand, declined relatively slightly, so that its contribution to poverty alleviation was less than that of growth and inflation. This is chiefly attributable to the difficulties encountered by most countries, even those that managed to maintain relatively high growth rates, in their attempts to reduce urban unemployment. In Bolivia, Chile and Costa Rica, the increase in employment and reduction in open unemployment contributed to a slightly greater decrease in urban poverty than in other countries. In all three, there was an increase in the number of employed persons in households in the lower-income deciles and a notable decline in open unemployment among the economically active population in the quintile of poorest households, especially in the urban areas of Bolivia and Costa Rica (see chapter III).

The performance of the above-mentioned factors —growth, price stability and employment— in the two-year period 1995-1996 and their effects on income distribution vary widely from one country to another, suggesting that there will be major changes in many countries from the poverty trends observable in the first two years of the current decade. The regional overview towards mid-1996 is less positive, since the poverty index continued to decline in only two countries (Chile and Peru); in others, it remained static following a steady decline and, in a third group, it increased substantially. Only in Brazil was there a trend reversal, as poverty rates fell considerably in 1995-1996.

Figure I.4

**LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): ECONOMIC GROWTH AND DECLINE IN THE PERCENTAGE OF HOUSEHOLDS BELOW THE POVERTY LINE
1990 - 1994**



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

a/ Percentage point decline in poverty from 1990 to 1994, as a percentage of the poverty level in the initial year.

b/ Refers to cumulative per capita GDP growth between 1990 and 1994.

The increase in per capita GDP in Chile and Peru in 1995 (6.5% and 5.9%, respectively) and maintenance of inflation at low levels, together with major progress in stabilizing prices in Peru meant that the poverty index continued to decline in both countries. Since poverty alleviation in Peru is more recent and initial levels were higher, the improvements in this country may even have benefited a larger percentage of households than in Chile.

Figure I.4 reveals the close correlation between the extent of growth and the alleviation of urban poverty between 1990 and 1994. The variations in the latter are shown by the number of percentage points by which poverty decreased during the period, expressed as a percentage of the 1990 level.

Bolivia, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay, which had managed to bring the poverty index down from the high level recorded in 1990, are not expected to display any appreciable improvement after 1994. In the first three countries, this is due to the fact that per capita GDP remained unchanged in 1995, while in all except Bolivia the level of urban unemployment remained high: around 10% in Costa Rica and Uruguay, and over 16% in Panama. Nor were there any significant changes with respect to the increase in consumer prices; inflation remained low in Panama and moderate in Bolivia and Costa Rica. In Uruguay, on the other hand, the annual rate of inflation fell from 44% in 1994 to 35% in 1995, but the purchasing power of wages and salaries fell in 1995 with adverse effects in terms of poverty.

The performance of the Venezuelan economy to the middle of 1996 suggests that its poverty index continued to worsen. In 1995, there was no growth in per capita GDP after a decline of almost 6% in the preceding two-year period. Inflation, which had diminished from 71% to 57% in the two preceding years, spiralled again in the first half of 1996, exceeding the level for 1994, while unemployment continued to grow, reaching 11% in 1995.

Argentina and Mexico, together with Venezuela, may be the countries with the sharpest increase in poverty since the end of 1994 and much of the ground they gained in the early part of the decade has undoubtedly been lost. In the case of Argentina, the rise in open unemployment in urban areas is clearly the factor that has had the strongest impact on the deterioration in household income. Unemployment, already high in 1994 (12%), rose to around 18% on average and remained high in 1996, affecting two out of every five economically active persons in the poorest quintile of the population.

In Mexico, a drastic contraction in per capita income in 1995 coincided with a rise in unemployment and very high inflation. Soaring consumer prices (the annual rate of increase went from 7% in 1994 to 58% in 1995) and rising unemployment (moving from 3.7% to 6.3% during 1994-1995) penalized above all low-income households. In 1995 and until March 1996, the minimum wage fell by approximately 25% in real terms, while the real salary index in the manufacturing sector fell 20 points over the same period. These figures suggest that the 3% reduction in poverty at the national level and the 5% reduction in urban poverty between the late 1980s and 1994 were probably cancelled out by the increase since 1994. Nevertheless, in 1996 Mexico showed clear signs of economic recovery and a slow-down in inflation, which has probably alleviated poverty to some degree.

Brazil, however, recorded a radical change in trend as a result of the stabilization plan (*Real Plan*) and the almost 15% increase in national income in the period 1993-1995. For over a decade, the country had suffered from inflation, which in some years exceeded 1000% per year; this only served to exacerbate poverty, especially during the transition from high and medium growth rates to recession or stagnation in the early 1990s. In the 1980s and early 1990s, measures taken to stabilize the economy resulted in a sharp fall in inflation over a short period of time, a substantial surge in consumption and an appreciable decline in poverty. Nevertheless, these improvements were of short duration, as inflation soared again and poverty went back up to the country's characteristically high levels.

The process initiated in 1994 again resulted in a sudden drop in inflation similar to the decline of previous periods but characterized by the fact that in mid-1995 greater priority was placed on stabilization than on growth and price stability was achieved. Hence, the major impact of the fall in prices in 1995 on the real income of the poorest sectors, on top of 15% growth over three years, brought about a very significant decrease in poverty. Moreover, in early 1995, certain factors combined to alleviate poverty. First of all, wage indexation was maintained in many sectors of the economy in the early months of the year, enabling real wages to continue to rise once inflation was under control. Secondly, agricultural prices fell, thereby reducing the real cost of basic food products and leading to an appreciable increase in consumption.

Although ECLAC does not yet have final statistics on poverty for the last few years, preliminary estimates all point to a probable reduction of at least 8 million in the number of persons living below the poverty line in Brazil between 1993 and 1995, or 10% of the poor population. The income of those remaining below the poverty line should have increased.

**LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): LEVEL OF URBAN POVERTY
AND CHANGES IN THE 1990s a/**

Extent of poverty in 1994 b/	Variation from 1990 to 1994	Trend 1995-1996 f/	Current versus previous poverty levels	
			1990	1980
<u>Low (below 15%)</u>				
Argentina Uruguay	downward + downward +	upward + stable	lower lower	higher lower
<u>Average (15% - 30%)</u>				
Chile Costa Rica Panama	downward + downward downward c/	downward stable stable	lower lower lower	lower same lower
<u>High (31% - 50%)</u>				
Brazil Colombia Mexico Peru Venezuela	stable stable downward e/ downward + d/ upward +	downward + stable upward + downward upward +	lower same higher lower higher	lower same higher same higher
<u>Extremely high (above 50%)</u>				
Bolivia Honduras	downward + e/ downward	stable upward	lower higher	... higher

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of household surveys and official country statistics relating to macroeconomic indicators.

a/ The "+" sign indicates a variation in poverty level of over 4 percentage points.

b/ Percentage of households below the poverty line.

c/ 1991-1994.

d/ 1991-1994. Estimates based on results of surveys and living standards.

e/ 1989-1994.

f/ Estimated trend between late 1994 and early 1996, based on variations in macroeconomic indicators closely associated with variations in poverty levels.

Variations in the extent of poverty in Latin America during the first six years of the decade show significant advances in some countries and stagnation or setbacks in many others. The table comparing the current situation with the situation that prevailed in 1990 and at the beginning of the previous decade reveals that Latin American Governments have encountered greater difficulties than expected in their efforts to eradicate poverty, as demonstrated by the divergent results of the last two-year period and the long-term assessment by contrast with 1980.

Indeed, in the longer-term comparison, Chile and Uruguay are the only two countries that stand out as having achieved a significant and sustained reduction in poverty since the middle of the previous decade. Brazil should also be mentioned, although the improvement noted relates mainly to the last two years. These three countries currently have a much lower poverty level than they did in 1980.

In Costa Rica and Peru, poverty currently affects much the same percentage of the population as in 1980, despite improvements in the early 1990s. On the other hand, in Argentina, Honduras, Mexico and Venezuela, the situation has worsened since 1980, although the economic upturn in some of these countries should to be reflected in a substantial decline in the number of households below the poverty line.

Apart from the difficulties mentioned, the overall assessment suggests that significant gains can be made towards the eradication of poverty within a reasonable time-frame in cases where it is possible to combine relatively high growth with macroeconomic stability and rising employment. Chile and Uruguay are excellent examples, although they differ in the extent to which the lower and middle segments of the population have benefited from rising income. In both countries, urban poverty was reduced appreciably between 1990 and 1994. Chile, with somewhat higher growth than Uruguay but without major changes in income distribution, achieved a 9% reduction (from 33% to 24%). In Uruguay, poverty was reduced by 6% (from 12% to 6%), but from a much lower base level than in Chile, and was accompanied by a substantial improvement in income distribution.

3. Features of urban poverty

Poverty in the region is associated with certain household characteristics, a very important consideration in working out policies for its alleviation. Out of every ten poor households, the outstanding feature in seven is the low earned income of the head or principal breadwinner; in two, unemployment of one of its members; and in the rest, the large ratio of minors to adults. Of the seven households with low earned income, in three there are also a high number of dependents in the household, which aggravates the situation.

By analysing the chief determining factors of urban poverty in the mid-1990s, one can arrive at an assessment of the percentage of poor households which would stand to benefit the most from different social and economic policy instruments. For example, policies geared to direct increases in productivity and earned income (wage policies, policies on training and skills upgrading and support policies for micro-enterprises) could help to alleviate poverty for around 70% of urban households in this condition.

On the other hand, job-creation policies designed to reduce unemployment would help approximately 16% of poor households, while for countries with high unemployment rates the percentage could reach 20% or more.

Moreover, analysis of urban poverty shows that in approximately 40% of affected households, there is a relatively large number of minors in relation to the adults who have to support them. All would stand to benefit directly from policies to raise the quality and extend the coverage of general education through their effect on earning power and, indirectly, through their effect on fertility rates.

The above-mentioned figures, corresponding to a simple average for 12 countries that account for over 85% of the region's population, show very similar patterns, with very few exceptions in some of the areas under consideration and minimal variations between countries with very different poverty levels (see table below). This means that while policies for poverty alleviation should be similar in terms of targeted areas and households, policy instruments should be specifically tailored to each case.

For example, countries with similar urban poverty rates attributable to low earned income, but with significant differences in the degree of formality of the employment structure and labour institutions, will have to adopt different priorities and combinations of instruments. In countries with a limited informal sector, wage policies, labour reforms aimed at increasing flexibility and other measures such as the establishment of an unemployment insurance will clearly have a greater impact than in those where wage earners account for only a small proportion of the labour force. Hence, similarity between countries with respect to the incidence of the chief factors associated with urban poverty is no guarantee that government policies will have the same degree of effectiveness.

**LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWN OF POOR URBAN HOUSEHOLDS
BY CHIEF DETERMINING FACTORS a/**

Countries	Low earnings and limited education			One or more members out of work	Large number of minors in relation to adults	Other factors and combinations	Total
	Total	Alone	Combined with large number of dependents				
Argentina	33	13	20	37	10	20 b/	100
Bolivia	67	41	26	10	12	11	100
Brazil	73	46	27	13	9	5	100
Chile	71	47	24	15	10	4	100
Colombia	75	51	24	10	8	6	100
Costa Rica	53	27	26	15	14	18 b/	100
Honduras	74	41	33	10	11	5	100
Mexico	83	48	35	8	7	2	100
Panama	59	32	27	20	13	8	100
Paraguay	72	42	30	11	10	7	100
Uruguay	68	27	41	20	10	2	100
Venezuela	61	29	32	20	9	10	100
Simple average	66	37	29	16	10	8	100

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

a/ Data are from around 1994. See box for definitions of indicators used.

b/ A high percentage of poor households consist of senior adults, including low-income retirees and pensioners.

Despite the overall similarity, there are some atypical patterns that should be mentioned. With respect to unemployment, Argentina is the most obvious exception, since in 1994 four out of every ten households living in poverty had at least one member (either the head of the family or another of its members) out of work, in contrast to the regional average of two out of every ten. Clearly, this is due to the close correlation between high rates of urban unemployment and the probability of falling below the poverty line in that country. A similar, albeit less striking, situation exists with respect to the effect of open unemployment in Panama, Uruguay and Venezuela.

In view of the determining factors of urban poverty in the region, it may be assumed that if the prevailing mode of economic growth and the mechanisms for social distribution of such growth were maintained with sustained per capita GDP growth rates on the order of 5% per annum for a period of no less than five years and if, at the same time, earned income increased by about 3%, poverty levels could decline by 20% to 30%. Naturally, the adoption of policies to increase the number and quality of jobs generated by economic growth or impart a greater spirit of solidarity to government action in a climate of consensus would yield better results in terms of poverty alleviation given the same rates of growth.

The figures mentioned suggest, for example, that under this scenario a country with a 35% poverty index would be in a position to reduce it to a level of between 25% and 28%. This reduction could be achieved by reducing unemployment in poor households with at least one member out of work and, above all, by increasing earned income. In the longer term, a reduction in the number of dependents (especially minors) per household in relation to the number of economically active adults, as a result of the increasing integration of women into the work force, would also contribute to a decline in poverty.

INDICATORS USED TO CHARACTERIZE URBAN POVERTY

Three factors were taken into consideration in analysing the characteristics of urban poverty in the mid-1990s: demographic situation, unemployment and low income associated with limited human capital. For purposes of analysis, a threshold was defined for each factor and the households were classified accordingly.

Demographic situation: this refers to the dependency ratio, i.e., to the number of children and adolescents in the home relative to the total number of adults of a fully economically active age. High-cost households are those where the number of minors aged 0 to 17, divided by the number of persons aged 18 to 59 is greater than or equal to two.

Unemployment factor: this refers only to open unemployment and takes account of the presence in the household of at least one unemployed person, either the head or another member.

Low income and limited education: this is estimated on the basis of earned income and the number of years of education of the head of the household or main breadwinner. The low earning line is to 2.5 times the value of the per capita poverty line of each country, while persons with less than 10 years of schooling completed are considered as having low education levels. Chapter III shows the justification for these indexes.

4. Poverty and occupational category

The high incidence of poverty among government employees and workers in medium-sized and large private-sector businesses is an indication that inadequacy of earned income adds further difficulties, both for modernization of the public sector and for efforts to change production patterns in the private sector. In over half of countries in the region, 30% to 50% of private-sector wage earners, excluding micro-enterprises, live in poor households.

The economic crisis of the 1980s and the structural and macroeconomic reforms carried out in the region produced significant changes in the profile and levels of urban employment and underemployment in the Latin American countries. Nevertheless, in most countries, 70% of employed persons in urban areas are still wage earners.

Clearly, earnings account for a large percentage of household income. In the countries of the region, close to 70% of the income of urban households of all strata is earned income, and of that, wages and salaries account for two thirds. The marked decline in real wages in the formal sector and the increase in the number of wage earners in establishments employing

less than five persons in the 1980s and 1990s produced a closer correlation between household poverty and paid jobs and wages. Hence, at present, policies designed to alleviate poverty should be based more than ever on a study of the factors influencing the new wage levels.

Breakdown of the economically active population in the mid-1990s according to occupational category and analysis of the changes noted in recent years underscore the effects of the type of occupation and levels of wages or self-employment earnings on the extent of and variation in poverty in the region. First, just as there are large differences in the percentage of the population below the poverty line, so there are wide disparities between countries as regards the incidence of poverty among the total urban employed. In 1994, this percentage varied from under 10% in Argentina and Uruguay to over 60% in Honduras. In Chile, Costa Rica and Panama, it ranged between 10% and 20%, while in the other countries (Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, Paraguay and Venezuela) it ranged from about 30% to as much as 40% of total employed persons.¹

¹ In this analysis of the relationship between employment and poverty, no account is taken of what occurs with groups where the incidence of poverty is greater than among employed persons, i.e., the economically inactive who receive payments (retirees and pensioners) and the unemployed. This accounts for the fact that the poverty ratio among employed persons is lower than the ratio for the economically active and inactive population as a whole.

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYED POOR IN EACH OCCUPATIONAL
CATEGORY AND PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POOR a/ b/
Urban areas, 1994
(Percentage)

	Total employed c/	Public-sector wage earners d/	Non-professional, non-technical private-sector wage earners			Non-professional, non-technical own-account workers
			Businesses		Domestic employees	
			With over 5 employees	With up to 5 employees d/		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	5	-	5	7	10	3
	100	-	52	22	10	16
Bolivia	37	30	40	51	30	41
	95	12	19	19	4	41
Brazil	37	-	31	47	55	41
	91	-	27	29	12	23
Chile	18	-	21	28	23	16
	92	-	46	20	8	18
Colombia	34	15	41	-	31	42
	97	4	58	-	5	30
Costa Rica	12	5	11	19	25	20
	94	11	28	18	9	28
Honduras	66	42	71	83	56	79
	96	7	33	14	5	37
Mexico	29	-	33	-	56	27
	95	-	71	-	7	17
Panama	18	6	16	30	28	25
	98	9	30	19	14	26
Paraguay (Asunción)	27	13	38	36	29	33
	90	5	34	15	11	25
Uruguay	6	2	6	7	13	9
	97	8	32	13	16	28
Venezuela	32	38	29	48	41	32
	91	21	26	14	5	25

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

a/ The upper row shows the percentage of those employed in each occupational category who live in households below the poverty line.

b/ The lower row (shaded figures) shows the percentage of poor persons employed in each category in relation to total employed poor.

c/ The total does not usually add up to 100 since figures exclude employers and professional and technical workers.

d/ In Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Mexico, public-sector workers are included among wage earners of establishments with over five employees. For Colombia and Mexico, micro-enterprise wage earners are also included in this category.

One of the hallmarks of urban poverty in the region is that it affects not only those employed in low-productivity segments, but also a high percentage of wage earners in the formal sector of the economy. The percentage of non-professional private-sector wage earners who do not work in medium-sized or large businesses and who are not living below the poverty line does not differ substantially from that of unskilled own-account workers, who in general work in the informal sector. In some countries (Chile, Mexico and Paraguay), poverty is more prevalent among wage earners than among unskilled own-account workers, so that a high percentage of the employed poor are wage earners in the formal sector. In Argentina, Chile and Mexico it is over 40%. In Brazil, Colombia, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay, urban poverty also affects a greater proportion of wage earners than unskilled own-account workers.

The incidence of poverty among public-sector wage earners and the percentage they represent of the total poor remain high, despite the fact that in most countries their wages improved in the first half of the 1990s and their share of urban employment continued to decline.² In Bolivia, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay, around 10% of total employed urban poor are public-sector wage earners. In Venezuela, one out of every five employed persons living in poverty works in the public sector.

The low income and poverty affecting a high proportion of public-sector workers limits the scope for State reform and modernization, which most countries are striving to achieve. Available information on eight Latin American countries indicates that in Bolivia, Honduras and Venezuela between 30% and 40% of public-sector wage earners were below the poverty line in the mid-1990s; in Colombia and Paraguay, the percentage was close to 15%, while in Costa Rica and Panama, it was only 5%. In Uruguay only 2% of wage earners of this category lived in poor households.

In low-productivity sectors, the micro-enterprise wage earners rather than own-account workers are those most affected by low income. The highest poverty indexes relate to these wage earners and to domestic workers. This explains why in most countries the two groups account for between 20% and 40% of total employed poor. Naturally, in Bolivia and Honduras, countries where a high percentage of the work force consists of low-skilled, own-account workers, a very large proportion of urban poor (around 40%) is made up of informal workers of this category.

This pattern of poverty among urban workers is, of course, closely associated with low earned income in different occupational categories. In the mid-1990s, non-professional, non-technical wage earners in the region employed in businesses with over five employees received an average income 3.6 times the per capita poverty line. This figure was 16% lower than the average income of the working population (4.3 times the poverty line) and only 12% higher than the figure for low-skilled, own-account workers. Moreover, wage earners employed in micro-enterprises received a monthly income of only 2.5 times the poverty line, an amount which represents a minimal level for enjoying a certain degree of well-being and a good chance of keeping above the poverty line.³ Domestic workers, who represent 6% of the urban employed, received an average income equivalent to 1.4 times the per capita poverty line. In the mid-1990s, one out of ten employed persons living in poverty belonged to this occupational category (see chapter III, figure III.3).

² Between 1990 and 1994, the percentage of total employed persons corresponding to public-sector employees declined between three and four percentage points in eight countries. In five of them, their average income increased significantly (see tables 4 and 6 of the statistical appendix).

³ In the vast majority of countries, this earned income of 2.5 times the poverty line of the main breadwinner currently represents an amount which, together with other monetary inflows into the household, maintains, in a high percentage of cases, all household members above the poverty line.

From the foregoing, it may be inferred that in a high percentage of cases, being a wage earner remains a precarious occupational category and does not necessarily imply being above the poverty line, not even for workers of medium-sized and large businesses in the formal sector. In 7 of the 12 countries analysed, it was noted that between 30% and 50% of non-professional, non-technical private-sector wage earners working in establishments other than micro-enterprises live in households with income below the poverty line. In three countries, this percentage ranged between 10% and 20%, and only in two (Argentina and Uruguay) did it approach 5%.

INCOME DISTRIBUTION TRENDS

1. *Changes in the first half of the 1990s*
2. *Recent trends in earned income disparity*

1. Changes in the first half of the 1990s

High levels of inequality and rigidity in income distribution in the region have persisted in the 1990s even in countries that have recorded very high growth rates. This situation is a reflection of the ability of the richest 10% of households to hold onto or increase their share of total income and the tendency for the share of the poorest 40% of households to remain at the same levels or even suffer a decline. An assessment of the changes in distribution observed between the middle of the 1980s and 1990s reveals an increase in the inequality of income distribution in most countries.

Expectations that the recovery of previous production levels or the beginning of a new growth process would make it possible to reverse the retrogression in income distribution patterns that developed in the 1980s have not been borne out in fact. It is clear from the trends of the first half of the 1990s (1990-1994) that the dynamic economic growth recorded in various countries of the region has not been reflected in a reduction in income concentration. Of the five countries with annual growth rates of over 5% (the highest for those years), two —Argentina and, to a lesser degree, Costa Rica— saw an increase in income concentration, two others —Chile and Panama— registered a degree of inequality that remained at practically the same high level as at the beginning of the decade, and only one —Uruguay— continued to make marked improvements in income distribution.

Among the countries with lower annual growth rates, on the order of 3% to 4%, changes in income distribution over the period varied significantly. In Bolivia and Honduras and, to a lesser extent, Mexico, there was some moderation in the level of concentration, whereas in Paraguay and Venezuela, it increased and in Colombia, it is thought to have remained the same. In Brazil, despite the fact that the economy displayed virtually zero growth between 1990 and 1993, both the bottom 40% of the distributive structure and the highest-income decile registered an increase in their shares. This was reflected in a slight improvement in urban income distribution, whereas in the rural zones, there was a deterioration (see figures II.1, II.2 and II.3).

Argentina's high growth rate in the first five years of the 1990s (7.7% per year for the period 1991-1994) resulted in a very marked increase in income for the richest 10% of households between 1992 and 1994 and a considerably smaller increase for households in the four poorest deciles.⁴ Thus, the improvement in distribution achieved in the first two years of the decade was lost. The figures for Greater Buenos Aires indicate an increase in the Gini coefficient and in the income gap between the richest 10% and the poorest

⁴ In the first two years of the decade, the share of the richest 10% declined from 34.8% to 31.6% and the share of the poorest 40% rose slightly (from 14.9% to 15.2%). In the following two years, the share of the highest decile rebounded to 34.2% while the share of the poorest 40% fell back to 13.9% (see table 23 of the statistical appendix).

40%. Hence, the decline in urban poverty deriving from economic growth in Argentina was not associated with any positive change in income distribution. Moreover, the sharp deterioration recorded since late 1994 has probably caused a regression on both levels due to the country's high and rising unemployment, which has been concentrated in the households of the first four income-distribution deciles (see chapter III).

In Costa Rica, rapid economic growth between 1992 and 1994 was accompanied by a much greater increase in income for the top decile than for the poorest 40%. By the end of the period, and contrary to the experience of its urban counterpart in Argentina, the bottom 40% had held onto its share of income, and the overall situation was therefore less negative. Nevertheless, in Costa Rica as well, the growth-based decline in urban poverty coincided with an increase in the income gap between the groups at opposite ends of the scale.

The strong and sustained economic growth experienced in the 1990s by Chile has not been accompanied by any improvement in income distribution either. The share of the poorest 40% remained the same during the five-year period in question, while that of the top decile increased. The only other countries in which the richest 10% of households has as large a share as in Chile are Brazil and Colombia; in these three countries, this group receives over 40% of total urban income,⁵ although in Chile the lower stratum has a larger share (see table II.1).

Chile is a particularly interesting case for an analysis of income distribution trends. It was the first country in the region to embark upon a structural reform process, and its reform programme has been the most radical as well. It is also the country that has experienced the most prolonged swiftly-paced growth process since the mid-1980s. At the same time, social expenditure has reached increasingly high levels in recent years. It is interesting to note that, after an initial phase, ending in 1992, during which the shares of the poorest 40% and 25% of the population improved somewhat, there has been a slight decline in the share received by the poorest decile of households and even in the share of the poorest 25%, whereas that of the richest 10% has continued to climb. This accounts for the fact that the high levels of inequality prevalent in the mid-1980s have persisted, while the sharp decline in poverty derives mainly from economic growth. These most recent trends also reflect the difficulties involved in bringing about a more rapid increase in income for households forming what is known as the "hard core" of poverty.

Uruguay remains a noteworthy exception in the region, not only because the level of inequality is low but also because there has been a constant trend towards income deconcentration since the middle of the last decade.⁶ The degree of inequality in urban income distribution, which was already very low in the mid-1980s, continued to decline up to 1992. During that period, the share of the four poorest quartiles grew by almost five percentage points (from 17% to 21.9%), while the richest decile recorded a six-point reduction in its share (from 32.4% to 25.9%). The slowdown in growth seen in the two following years (1992-1994) curbed this trend but did not result in any loss in social equity, since the different strata maintained their respective income shares. Thus, Uruguay has been the only country in the region to reduce poverty appreciably in the 1990s (up to 1994) by combining the positive effect of growth with progressive income distribution, and this has been reflected in a more rapid improvement for households in the lower strata than in the highest stratum.

⁵ In 7 out of the remaining 10 countries for which comparable data are available, the highest decile accounts for close to or less than 35% of urban income; in the other three, the figure is on the order of 37% (see table 23 of the statistical appendix).

⁶ The Gini coefficient for per capita household income distribution in Uruguay. At 0.30 in urban zones, is closer to the indexes of industrialized countries with intermediate degrees of inequality than to those of the other Latin American countries.

In Colombia, there was little change in the country's high levels of inequality between 1986 and 1992. Moderate growth in the 1990-1992 biennium coincided with a loss of income share on the part of the bottom 25% and 40% without any variation in the share of the top decile. The possible effect on income distribution of the acceleration of the growth rate that occurred after 1992 cannot be assessed owing to a lack of data. Nevertheless, estimates for 1993 and 1994 indicate that there may have been a slight decrease in inequality in both urban and rural areas.

No reliable data are available for Brazil beyond 1993 either, so it is not possible to assess the effects of stabilization and growth on changes in the incomes of households in the higher and lower income strata. It is interesting to note, however, that the 15% decline in the income of urban households between 1990 and 1993 did not exacerbate the problem of inequality, whereas the 13% increase in rural zones did do so, with the share of the top decile rising by three percentage points and that of the poorest 40% slipping by one point.

Income distribution patterns in the 1990s in Venezuela attest to the top stratum's ability to secure a larger proportion of incremental income during periods of growth and to avoid losing any ground in recessionary phases. Indeed, during the two-year period 1990-1992, when the annual economic growth rate stood at 8%, the share of the poorest 40% shrank slightly while the share of the highest decile increased. What is more, between 1992 and 1994, when the economy was contracting, the richest 10% again increased its share, but even more substantially (from 28.1% to 31.4%). This heightened the level of inequality, bringing it back up to where it had been in 1986 (see table 23 of the statistical appendix).

A review of changes in income distribution from the mid-1980s to 1994 shows that, with the exception of Uruguay, countries that recorded high growth rates for more or less protracted periods following their recovery from the preceding recession did not make any progress in terms of equality. Changes in the shares of the top decile and the poorest 40% over the decade reveal a worsening pattern of income distribution in Argentina, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay and Venezuela, and a fairly constant level of income disparity between households in the highest and lowest strata in Chile and Costa Rica, although in Chile both groups showed a slight increase in their income shares. In Colombia, too, the level of inequality was similar to what it had been a decade earlier. The rigidity of the structure of income distribution, which makes it so difficult to improve, is brought out by an examination of the eight countries for which comparable information is available for the entire period: in five, the share of the top decile grew, in two it remained unchanged, and only in one was there a decline.

**LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN INCOME DISTRIBUTION
IN URBAN AREAS, 1986-1990-1994 a/**

Country	Gini coefficient b/				Variation in share of total income between 1990 and 1994 c/		Share of income in 1994 compared with share in 1986	
	1986	1990	1992	1994	Poorest 40% of households	Richest 10% of households	Poorest 40% of house- holds	Richest 10% of households
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	0.41	0.42	0.41	0.44	decreased +	unchanged	lower	same
Bolivia	-	0.48	0.47	0.43	increased +	decreased +	-	-
Brazil b/	0.54	0.54	0.51	-	increased	decreased	higher	lower
Chile	0.49	0.47	0.47	0.48	unchanged	increased	higher	higher
Costa Rica	0.36	0.35	0.36	0.36	unchanged	increased +	same	same
Honduras	-	0.49	0.46	0.46	increased	decreased	-	-
Mexico	0.32	0.42	0.41	0.41	increased	decreased	lower	higher
Panama	0.43	0.45	0.45	0.45	increased	increased	lower	higher
Paraguay (Asunción)	0.40	0.36	0.39	0.42	decreased	increased +	same	higher
Uruguay	0.39	0.35	0.30	0.30	increased	decreased +	higher	lower
Venezuela	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.39	unchanged	increased +	same	higher

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

a/ The "+" sign indicates an increase or decrease in share of three percentage points or more.

b/ The Gini coefficients were calculated on the basis of the per capita household income distribution, by decile.

c/ The most recent figure available is for 1993.

Thus, between 1990 and 1994, economic growth, changes in employment and income structures and the effects of government policy engendered a slight reduction in poverty in the region but did not change its income distribution for the better. Even in the countries where there was an appreciable reduction in poverty, there was no improvement in distribution. As already indicated, Uruguay was an exception to this rule.

Some of the characteristics of the job market which have had the greatest impact in this regard are: i) persistently high unemployment rates and the failure to create sufficient productive jobs that provide high enough earnings to stay above the poverty line, ii) the limited bargaining power of many wage earners due to a lack of job security and high levels of open unemployment and underemployment, and iii) an increase in the income gap between workers with differing skill levels owing to the sharp increase in the demand for and wages of the most highly skilled workers. This last aspect is examined in section 2 of this chapter.

Table II.1
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): URBAN INCOME DISTRIBUTION a/

Country	Year	Poorest 40%	Next 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%
Argentina b/	1990	18.0	25.6	26.6	29.8
	1992	15.2	25.0	28.2	31.6
	1994	13.9	23.4	28.6	34.1
	1994 c/	14.4	22.9	28.1	34.6
Bolivia	1989	12.1	21.9	27.8	38.2
	1992	13.3	22.0	26.4	38.3
	1994	15.1	22.3	27.2	35.4
Brazil	1987	9.7	18.1	27.9	44.3
	1990	9.6	19.3	29.4	41.7
	1993	11.8	19.1	26.6	42.5
Chile d/	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
Colombia	1990	13.7	22.5	28.9	34.9
	1992	12.9	23.5	29.1	34.5
	1993 e/	11.2	19.9	25.1	43.8
	1994 e/	11.6	20.4	26.1	41.9
Costa Rica	1990	17.8	28.7	28.9	24.6
	1992	17.0	27.8	28.3	26.9
	1994	17.4	26.8	28.3	27.5
Honduras	1990	12.2	20.8	28.1	38.9
	1992	13.2	22.1	29.3	35.4
	1994	13.3	23.0	26.5	37.2
Mexico f/	1989	16.2	22.0	24.8	36.9
	1992	16.6	22.1	26.5	34.8
	1994	16.8	22.8	26.1	34.3
Panama	1989	13.2	22.7	27.9	36.2
	1991	13.3	24.3	28.2	34.2
	1994	13.8	23.3	25.5	37.4
Paraguay g/	1990	18.6	25.7	26.8	28.9
	1992	16.2	24.8	29.8	29.2
	1994	16.2	23.0	25.6	35.2
	1994 h/	16.1	22.6	26.1	35.2
Uruguay	1990	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2
	1992	21.9	26.2	26.0	25.9
	1994	21.6	26.3	26.7	25.4
Venezuela	1990	16.8	26.1	28.7	28.4
	1992	16.4	26.2	29.3	28.1
	1994	16.7	24.9	27.0	31.4

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

a/ Refers to the percentage share of total urban household income of strata classified by per capita income.

b/ Metropolitan area of Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Urban total.

d/ Special tabulations of data from National Socio-economic Surveys (CASEN) conducted in 1990, 1992 and 1994.

e/ As from 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the entire urban population of the country. Up to that time, the survey had covered about half the urban population.

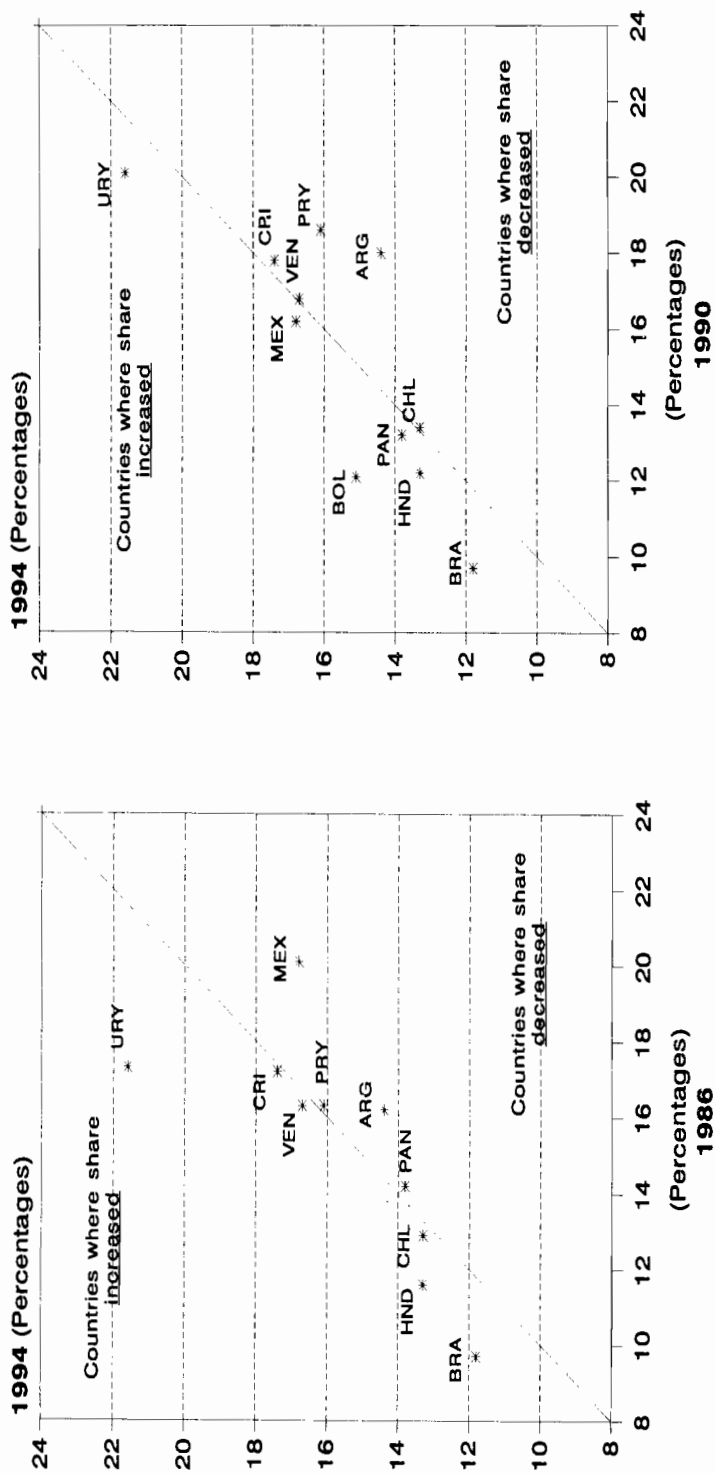
f/ Special tabulations of data from the national household income and expenditure survey (ENIG).

g/ Metropolitan area of Asunción.

h/ Urban total.

Figure II.1
LATIN AMERICA (11 countries)
(Urban areas)

Income share of the poorest 40% a/



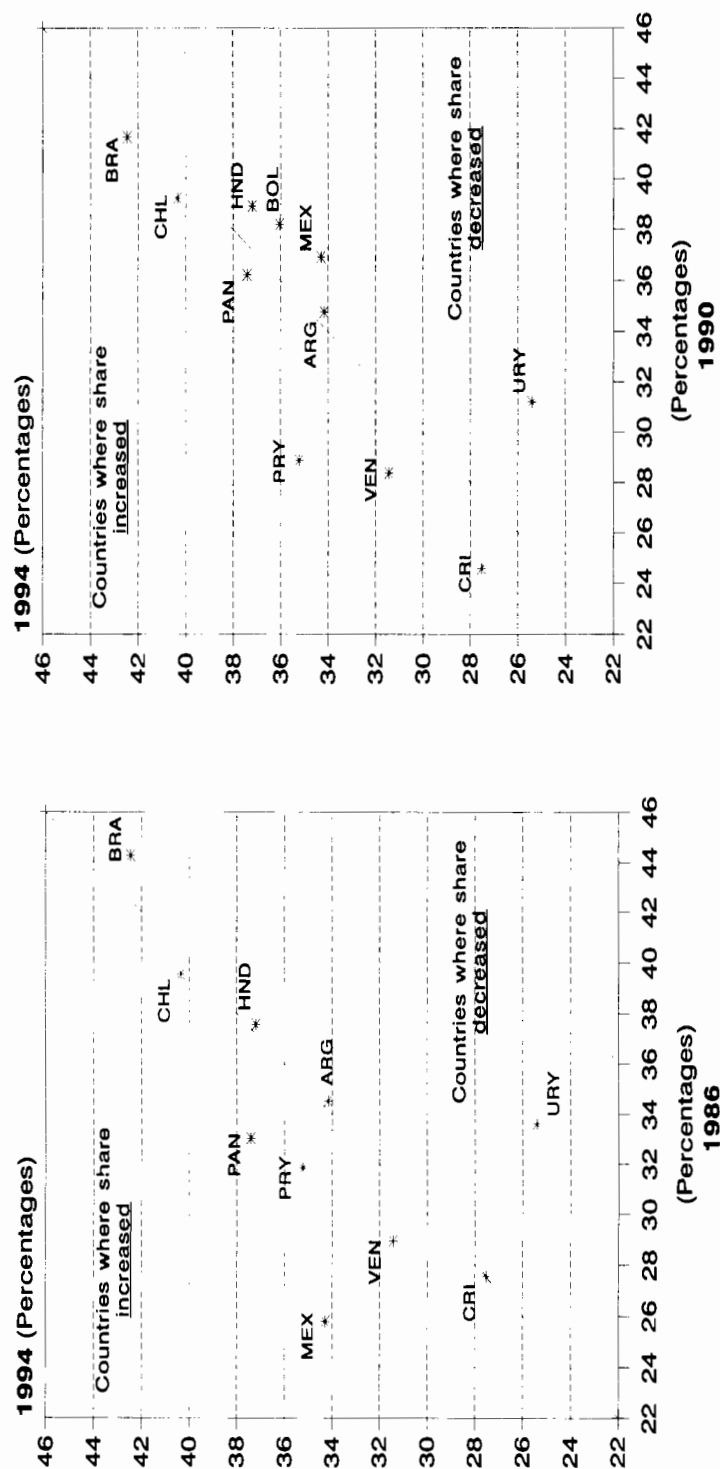
Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

a/ Percentage of total income received by the 40% of households with the lowest incomes.

Figure II.2

LATIN AMERICA (11 countries)
(Urban areas)

Income share of the richest 10% a/

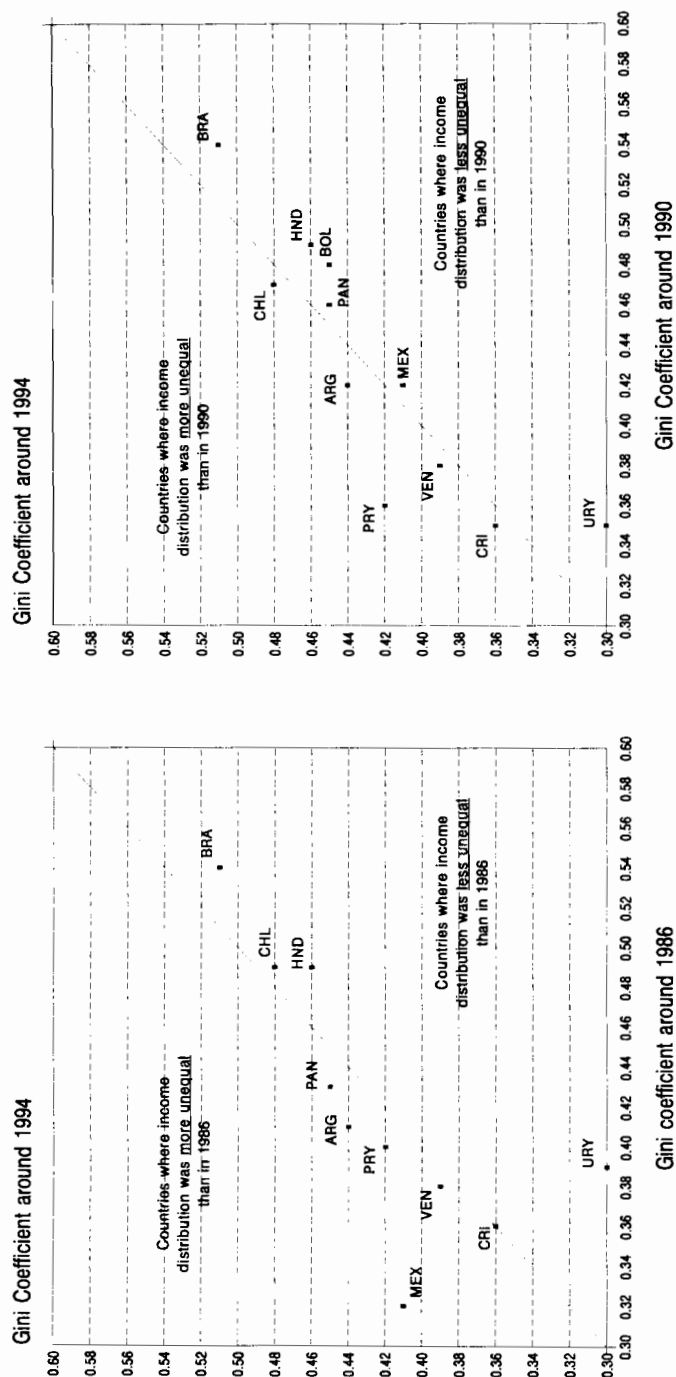


Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the respective countries.

a/ Percentage of total income received by the 10% of households with the highest incomes.

Figure II.3
LATIN AMERICA (11 countries)
(Urban areas)

Changes in income distribution : 1986-1990-1994 a/



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

a/ The Gini coefficients were calculated on the basis of the per capita household income distribution, by decile.

2. Recent trends in earned income disparity

The enormous income gap between highly skilled and relatively unskilled workers—a gap that is actually widening in countries where the economy is growing—remains a major factor contributing to inequality in income distribution in Latin America. The income disparity between workers in professional and technical categories and those in low-productivity sectors increased by 40%-60% between 1990 and 1994. This was due to the fact that wages for highly skilled workers rose quite rapidly while those of workers not involved in modern production processes, who represent a sizeable proportion of the total employed population, either fell or remained constant.

The recovery of production levels and the resumption of economic growth—at rates that are nearing full capacity in some countries—are being achieved with smaller increases in employment than were to be expected given the swift pace of the expansion in some countries. Hence, it has been difficult to reduce open unemployment and underemployment in the lower income strata. The number of employed persons per household is lower in these strata than in middle- and high-income households.

A breakdown of the increase in employment by sector of activity and occupational category also reveals a growing heterogeneity in the types of jobs being created. The use of new business management methods and state-of-the-art machinery and equipment have created pockets of high productivity in the most dynamic sectors which are spearheading growth in some countries. These sectors mainly employ professional, technical or highly specialized

workers, whose wages have begun to rise rapidly, climbing more steeply than the average productivity of the economy and certainly more than the average for the sectors in which they are employed.

On the other hand, a very large proportion of new jobs are being created in low-productivity sectors. The rapid expansion of capital in the most dynamic industries—which attract a huge share of total investment and are often not labour intensive—impedes a greater dissemination of technical progress that would boost the productivity of the economy's technologically backward sectors. This has tended to perpetuate the heterogeneity of productivity levels in the region, one of whose manifestations is a high degree of income dispersion in the labour market, which is in turn an important component of inequality in general.

The maintenance or increase in this scattered distribution of labour income is a major factor in the rigidity of the income distribution structure which has continued to be a feature of recent economic growth in many countries. Wage trends for workers at different skill levels show that in 8 out of 10 countries the gap between the average income of professional and technical workers and that of manual workers employed in low-productivity sectors is widening.

Between 1990 and 1994, real wages in professional and technical categories went up sharply in Chile, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela; with the exception of Paraguay, these countries recorded high GDP growth rates (as much as 8% or even higher in some years) throughout the five-year period.

**LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN AVERAGE INCOME AND EARNED INCOME
DISPARITY IN URBAN AREAS, 1990-1994**
(Indexes: 1990 = 100)

Country	Average income			Income disparity b/	
	Professional and technical workers (1)	Public- and private-sector wage earners in establishments employing over 5 persons (2)	Workers in low-productivity sectors a/ (3)	(1)/(2)*100	(1)/(3)*100
Bolivia c/	95	100	68	95	140
Brazil d/	97	92	68	106	144
Chile	127	117 e/	105 f/	109	121
Colombia (8 major cities)	118	103 e/	82 f/	114	144
Costa Rica	114	102	113	112	101
Honduras	69	69	93	101	74
Mexico c/	115	111 e/	78 f/	103	147
Paraguay (Asunción)	172	123	83	139	206
Uruguay	160	126	115	127	140
Venezuela	150	89	92	167	163

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

a/ Includes wage earners in establishments with up to five workers, non-professional, non-technical own-account workers and domestic employees.

b/ Average incomes ratio.

c/ 1989-1994.

d/ 1987-1993.

e/ Refers to all public- and private-sector wage earners.

f/ Includes non-professional, non-technical own-account workers and domestic employees.

In some countries, the widening gap between the earned incomes of highly-skilled workers and unskilled workers stems from a more marked decline in the incomes of those employed in low productivity sectors. This was the case in the urban areas of Bolivia and Brazil. In both cases, the incomes of unskilled own-account workers and that of wage earners employed in micro-enterprises have fallen by 30% in real terms, whereas the incomes of professionals and technical workers have diminished by as little as 3%-5%.

In Colombia, Mexico, Paraguay and Venezuela, the increase in the incomes of professional and technical personnel has coincided with a steep drop in the incomes of relatively unskilled workers, thereby exacerbating existing inequalities.

The income gap between skilled and unskilled wage earners in the formal sector has also tended to widen. With the exception of Bolivia, the average income of public- and private-sector wage earners working in medium-sized and large establishments increased at a much slower rate than that of professional and technical workers. This greater disparity also contributed to the perpetuation —and, in some countries, exacerbation— of the overall inequality of income distribution.

THE QUALITY OF EMPLOYMENT, UNEMPLOYMENT AND THE USE OF THE LABOUR FORCE

1. *Unemployment and underemployment in terms of hours worked*
2. *The persistent nature of open urban unemployment*
3. *Employed persons with insufficient incomes and compensatory overemployment*
4. *The quality of jobs created*

1. Unemployment and underemployment in terms of hours worked

During the five years from 1990 to 1994, the utilization of the urban labour force improved in the majority of the countries of the region, with reductions being registered both in unemployment and in underemployment in terms of the number of hours worked. The hiatus in growth experienced by a number of countries and the resulting increase in urban unemployment seen during the last two years have reversed this positive trend, however.

The reduction in unemployment between 1990 and 1994 and the rise observed in a large number of countries of the region over the following two years have led to a situation where open unemployment rates are still relatively lower than at the beginning of the decade in 7 out of 13 countries (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Honduras, Panama, Paraguay and Peru).

In Argentina, Mexico and Uruguay, on the other hand, urban unemployment rates are far higher than they were in the early 1990s, while in Brazil, Costa Rica and Venezuela, national rates have fluctuated but have on average remained steady (see table III.1).

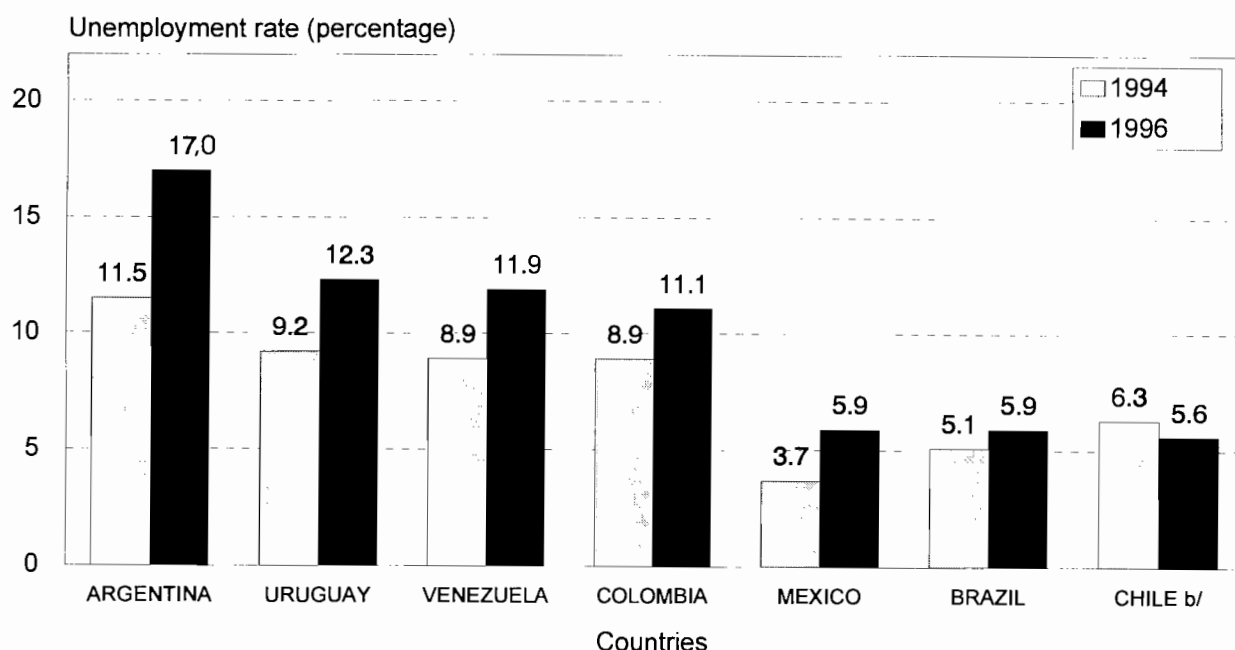
As regards current levels of urban unemployment, the countries fall into one of two broad categories. The first includes 8 of the 13 countries examined, which have moderate to low rates of between 4% and 7%, while the second comprises five countries with rates of over 10% and up to 18%.

The resurgence of unemployment in 1995-1996 (see figure III.1) and its persistent nature indicate just how difficult it has been to create enough quality jobs to absorb the workforce.

Trends in urban areas during the 1990s reveal that whenever economic growth has slowed or GDP has contracted sharply, unemployment rates have risen; however, when growth resumes, unemployment drops rapidly at first, but then declines more slowly, even when high growth rates persist. The marked rise in open unemployment that began in Argentina and Mexico at the end of 1994 and in Venezuela in 1993, and the difficulties experienced by Chile and Peru in making significant inroads on unemployment despite the high GDP growth rates recorded in the last few years, illustrate the asymmetrical response of unemployment to a sharp expansion or contraction in economic activity.

These constant or rising levels of open unemployment are a result not only of the fact that few productive jobs have been created despite the increase in activity in the countries, but also of the increase in the urban labour supply caused by population expansion and the growing rate of economic participation. This is why, in a number of countries, unemployment has not come down despite the increase in the employment rate, i.e., the percentage of the working-age population that is employed.

Figure III.1
URBAN OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES
1994 - 1996 a/



Source: ECLAC, *Economic Survey of Latin America and the Caribbean, 1995 - 1996* (LC/G. 1929 - P), Santiago, Chile, 1996. United Nations publication, sales No. E.96.II.G.2; *Economic Panorama of Latin America, 1996* (LC/G. 1939 - P), Santiago, Chile, 1996. United Nations publication, sales No. E.96.II.G.9.

a/ Figures for 1994 are annual averages and those for 1996 are provisional first-half figures.

b/ Metropolitan areas.

In addition, even though the rate of expansion of the working-age population is slowing in some countries, the participation rate has risen at times of stagnation or contraction of economic activity because of the need to offset reductions in household income. Nevertheless, longer-term trends show that a very high percentage of this increase in the labour supply reflects the entry of women into the labour market. This accounts for the steady increase seen in women's participation rates over the last few decades, which has been associated with, *inter alia*, the rise in women's level of education and the increased demand for female workers generated by the expansion of the commercial activities and services where very large numbers of women find work.

One result of the trend described above, in a context where insufficient productive jobs are being created, is a high level of open unemployment, particularly among young people and women. Thus, even for young people who come from low- and middle-income families that have invested a great deal of effort and money in providing them with a higher level of education, the chances of obtaining relatively well-paid work have deteriorated. This has detracted from the importance of education as a vehicle of social mobility—precisely the aspect underscored in public policy proposals as a means of promoting equality of opportunity.

What is more, since young people's and, especially, women's, potential to contribute to the family income is currently not being fully realized, the increase in the number of persons employed per household has been less effective in bringing down the poverty index.⁷

The underutilization of the urban labour force involves not only open unemployment but also underemployment in terms of the number of hours worked. Although the former continues to be the principal element in the failure to make full use of the human resources available in the countries of the region, the latter is a further manifestation of the current insufficiency of employment opportunities. This phenomenon will be considered in greater detail below. In terms of the quality of the jobs that have been created, the misuse of human resources may also translate into underemployment when workers' skills are underutilized or when full-time employment does not generate sufficient income to provide a minimum of well-being.⁸

Employed people who usually worked fewer hours per week than normal, but who wished to have a longer working week (underemployed in terms of hours worked) accounted for between 2% and 6% of the economically active population in the great majority of the countries analysed in 1994. On average, the percentage of underemployed persons in the working population is equal to roughly half the proportion of the active population that is openly unemployed (see table III.2).

Since the underemployed work an average of around 20 hours per week —i.e., half the number of hours considered to be normal— the equivalent unemployment level is half as much as the level of underemployment. Thus adding together open unemployment and the equivalent unemployment represented by underemployment in terms of hours worked gives a figure for the total fully underutilized labour force that is 25% greater than the figure for unemployment *per se* (see table III.2).

A breakdown of underemployment according to the demographic categories and educational levels of the employed population reveals that it is much more prevalent among women than men, that it is found at all educational levels —although the phenomenon is somewhat more frequent among the less educated— and that there are few differences between age groups (see tables III.3, III.4 and III.5).

With regard to trends in unemployment and underemployment, both phenomena can be seen to follow similar paths owing to their close correlation with the level of economic activity. The relationship between open unemployment and underemployment makes it highly likely that the significant rise in open urban unemployment recorded in 8 out of 13 countries of the region between 1994 and 1996 was accompanied by an increase in underemployment. Moreover, in the group of five countries with high open unemployment in 1996 (10%-18%) —i.e., Argentina, Colombia, Panama, Uruguay and Venezuela— when underemployment in hours worked is taken into account and expressed as equivalent unemployment, it is seen that an estimated 13%-22% of the labour force in those countries was probably underutilized.

⁷ For a quantification of the contribution made by women's earnings to the family income and to the reduction of urban poverty, see ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America. 1995 edition* (LC/G.1886-P), Santiago, Chile, 1995, chap. III.

⁸ Technically, these phenomena are known as "visible underemployment", which refers to an insufficient number of hours worked, and "potential underemployment", which refers to the underutilization of skills and to workers on very low pay.

**CONCEPTUAL AND OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF UNDEREMPLOYMENT
IN TERMS OF HOURS WORKED AND OF THE EQUIVALENT
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE**

The "underemployed in terms of hours worked" are defined as persons who, though employed, work fewer hours than what is considered normal and would like to work additional hours. For the purposes of the estimates presented here, employed persons were considered to work fewer hours than normal if they usually worked less than 40 hours per week, a cut-off point used in all the countries when breaking down the number of employed persons according to the number of hours worked.

These estimates have been based on responses to the employment surveys carried out in each country, in which subjects are asked whether or not they are immediately available for additional work or are in fact seeking additional work. However, even if subjects state that they are available for additional work, they are not counted as underemployed if, in answer to a check question, they say that they are not working more hours for health reasons or because of family commitments or because they are studying.

Thus the term underemployed in hours worked was applied to all employed persons who usually worked less than 40 hours per week, who stated that they were available for or seeking additional work, and whose personal or family circumstances would not prevent them from doing so.

This definition excludes from these estimates people who expressed a desire for additional work but were not in fact available for more work. If the responses had not been screened in this way, an even greater proportion of the labour force would have been classified as underemployed, as has happened in other studies.

Equivalent unemployment, for its part, is defined as referring to the number of unemployed to which the number of underemployed persons corresponds in terms of hours worked. Subtracting the average number of hours worked by the underemployed from 40 hours yields the number of hours which the underemployed would have to work in order to be fully employed. Dividing this figure by 40 gives the extent, in proportional terms, to which they are underemployed. Multiplying this proportion by the percentage of underemployed persons in the economically active population (EAP) yields the equivalent unemployment rate, stated as a percentage of the EAP. For example, if the underemployed work an average of 20 hours per week and are therefore unemployed for the remaining 20 hours, then in terms of the quantitative underutilization of the labour force, the situation is equivalent to one in which one half of their number were unemployed.

2. The persistent nature of open urban unemployment

The members of households in lower-income strata, young people, people with mid-range levels of education and women continue to be those that are hardest hit by unemployment. The concentration of open unemployment in these groups is intensified when urban unemployment rises sharply, which exacerbates its negative effect in terms of social equity.

Among persons who live in households in the first quintile of urban income distribution, that is to say in the poorest 20% of households, unemployment is far more than twice—and in many cases as much as three times—as high as the average rate. The figures are even higher for the active population in the poorest decile of households, where unemployment is four or more times the average.⁹ By contrast, unemployment rates in the 20% of households with the highest incomes fall within a very narrow range (between 1% and 3%), except in Panama, where unemployment in this stratum was 4.7% in 1994 (see table III.1).

Young people are still the group in which open unemployment is the highest; in fact, the rate (which includes first-time job-seekers) is far more than twice the average percentage of unemployed among the economically active population. In 1994, nearly one in every six young people in the region aged 15-24 was openly unemployed.

Moreover, unemployment rates among people with a moderate level of education, i.e., people with between 6 and 12 years of schooling, are considerably higher than the rates both for people with a very low level of education (i.e., who did not complete primary school) and for those with more than 12 years of education. In 1994, in the majority of countries of the region, the unemployment rate among those with one or more years of secondary education was 40%-60% higher than the rate for less well-educated people and nearly twice the rate for the better-educated.

There are a number of reasons why unemployment is higher among those with a mid-range education than among those with fewer years of schooling. In the first place, people with 6-12 years of education are more selective in their search for employment, which means that they may remain unemployed for longer periods. Second, this educational level includes a greater concentration of young people and women, which are the groups with the highest rates of unemployment. By contrast, people with a low educational level who are looking for work are more willing to accept any type of job; this group also includes a large number of own-account workers engaged in unskilled activities, who usually are not seeking employment.

⁹ Some concentration of unemployment in the lower-income strata is to be expected, since if one or more members of a household are unemployed, the family income may be reduced to little or nothing, and the household will therefore slip into one of the low income-distribution deciles.

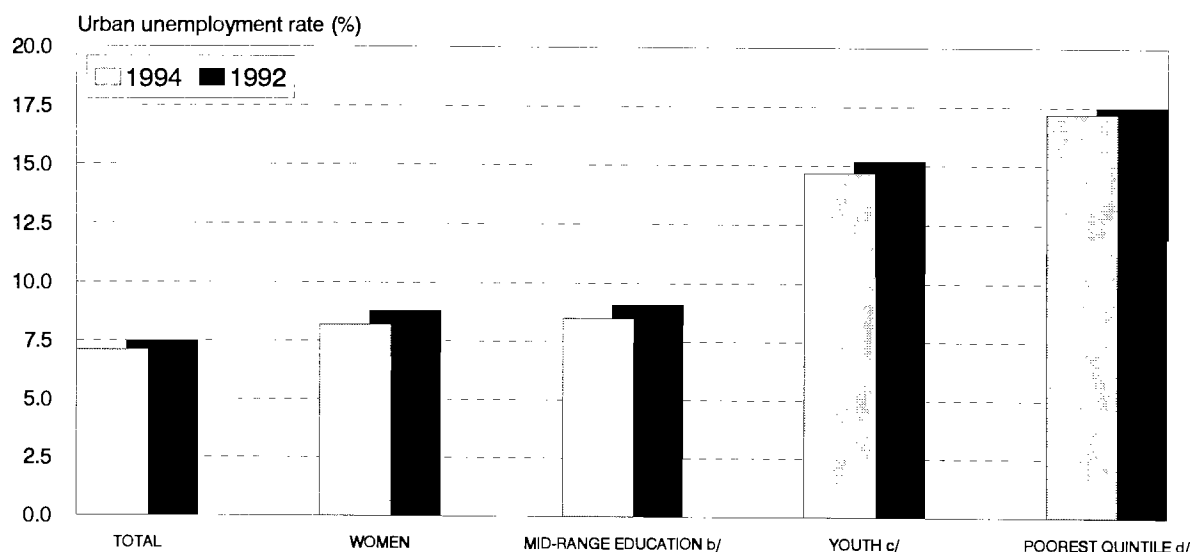
On average, the unemployment rate among women is just over one percentage point higher than the average urban rate and around two points higher than the rate for men (see figure III.2). However, the highest female unemployment rates occur when total unemployment is high. In Argentina, Panama and Uruguay, for example, where urban unemployment in 1994 exceeded 10%, female unemployment was well above male unemployment, with a difference of four percentage points in Argentina, six points in Uruguay and nine points in Panama (see table 15 in the statistical appendix).

This situation arises when more women begin to seek work in order to make up for the fact that one or more members of the household are out of work —often the head of the household or the main breadwinner. The rapid rise of unemployment among young people to above-average levels in contexts of very high unemployment is in part attributable to the same causes.

As is shown in figure III.2, both the marked differences among the urban unemployment levels of the various groups mentioned and the higher rates that prevailed in lower-income strata showed little change during 1992-1994, when significant fluctuations were seen in total rates in a number of countries. This suggests that the phenomenon is essentially a structural feature of the regional labour market.

Figure III.2

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): URBAN OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES FOR SELECTED POPULATION GROUPS *a/* 1992 and 1994



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

a/ Simple averages for 12 countries.

b/ Unemployment rate for persons with 6 - 12 years of education.

c/ Unemployment rate for persons aged 15 - 24.

d/ Unemployment rate for persons living in the 20% of households with the lowest incomes.

3. Employed persons with insufficient incomes and compensatory overemployment

a) Income insufficiency among people who work full-time

At the present time, the earnings of between 20% and 40% of the people who are employed full time in the countries of Latin America are below the minimum threshold for achieving well-being, which is equivalent to 2.5 times the per capita poverty line. The figures for those with less than 10 years of schooling are much higher, ranging between 40% and 60%.

In Latin America, having full-time employment of more than 40 hours per week by no means guarantees an earned income sufficient to avoid poverty. Currently, in the urban areas of a majority of the countries, the percentage of people who work full time and whose income is less than 2.5 times the value of the per capita poverty line ranges between 20% and 40%. These people's earned incomes are too low to afford a minimum degree of well-being in urban areas.

Only three countries have percentages that are significantly lower than this range, and these are precisely the same countries that have the region's lowest poverty indices, namely Argentina, Costa Rica and Uruguay. In these countries, the percentage of the population with full-time employment but with very low labour incomes varies from 10% to 15%. The corresponding figure for Honduras, which has one of the highest poverty indices in the region, is close to 60%.

THE MINIMUM INCOME THRESHOLD FOR ACHIEVING WELL-BEING

The threshold of 2.5 times the poverty line is the minimum acceptable level for attaining well-being, since this level of earnings enables a wage earner to keep a family of two above the poverty line. When both the head of household and the spouse work, they can keep a family of up to four members, including two children who do not work, above that line, but the addition of a third child would put them on the borderline of poverty.

The figure of 2.5 times the per capita poverty line is equivalent, in most countries, to monthly earnings of between US\$ 170 and US\$ 200, depending on the value of that indicator in the urban areas of each country.

As one would expect, the percentage of people who are employed full-time and whose income is very low is much greater in the case of those with lower skill levels; in 7 out of the 12 countries for which

information was available, that percentage ranged between 40% and 60% of all employed persons with less than 10 years of schooling. The figures are quite similar among the less well educated with a maximum of five years of schooling and among those who completed primary education or attended secondary school for one or more years (i.e., a total of six to nine years of schooling). The percentage of persons who manage to exceed the above-mentioned income threshold is substantially lower only in the case of employed people with at least 10 years of schooling. This constitutes additional proof that 10 years of schooling is the basic level of education that a person currently requires in the region in order to have a fairly good chance of attaining a minimum level of well-being.¹⁰

However, this group still includes a very high number of people whose earnings are extremely low. In fact, among people having between 10 and 12 years of schooling—a level of education that can be considered high in the regional context—no less than 20% and as much as 40% or more earn incomes below the minimum threshold. In this case, too, Argentina, Costa Rica and Uruguay are the only countries where the percentage of people in this category is markedly lower (around 10%).

In the first half of the 1990s, only three countries (Argentina, Chile and Uruguay) managed to make a significant reduction in the proportion of persons with full-time employment who had extremely low incomes. This reduction—from 7% to 3% in Argentina, 39% to 29% in Chile and 23% to 16% in Uruguay—coincided with a sharp drop in poverty indices over the same period—from 16% to 10% in Argentina, 33% to 24% in Chile and 12% to 6% in Uruguay. In contrast, in Venezuela, where the magnitude of urban poverty increased from 33% to 41%, the proportion of employed persons with very low incomes rose from 18% to 32% (see table III.6). This attests to the close relationship that exists in the countries of the region between the percentage of people who work more than 40 hours per week but earn less than the equivalent of 2.5 times the poverty line and the incidence of poverty in the aggregate.¹¹

¹⁰ For an analysis of the level of education currently required in the countries of the region in order to ensure a significant probability of avoiding poverty, see ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America*, 1994 edition (LC/G.1844), Santiago, Chile.

¹¹ This also shows that the selected income level constitutes an appropriate minimum threshold.

b) Overemployment in terms of hours worked

A total of 30% or more of the employed population in urban areas works more than 50 hours a week, which is considerably longer than the standard work week. In most of the countries, between one fifth and one third of those who exceed that cut-off point work about 65 hours per week. Without these extra hours, they would not manage to remain above the minimum income threshold required to achieve well-being.

Overemployment in terms of hours worked is also a frequent phenomenon in most of the countries. In urban areas, around 30% of the employed have jobs in which they generally work more than 50 hours per week, which is almost 15% more than what is considered a normal work week.

It is important to note, however, that for a substantial proportion of the urban employed, overemployment —i.e., the performance of jobs which generally entail working many more hours than is considered normal— is the means by which many people remain above the minimum income threshold. This fact is brought out quite clearly by

an examination of the percentages of the employed whose earned incomes would fall below the threshold of 2.5 times the poverty line if they worked the standard 44-hour work week.

In six countries (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Paraguay and Uruguay), the percentage of the urban employed who work more than this standard number of hours in order to earn the above defined minimum income ranges from 6% to 9%. In six other countries (Argentina, Brazil, Honduras, Mexico, Panama and Venezuela), the percentage varies from 3% to 6%. The average for the region is just over 6% (see table III.8).

In all of the countries studied, the overemployed work a far greater number of hours per week than the actual average of 48 hours for the urban working population as a whole: in the 12 countries studied, people who fall into this category work an average of 65 hours per week, which is 17 hours more than the standard work week.

In spite of this extended work week, overemployment generates an income that, on average, exceeds the equivalent of 2.5 times the poverty line by only about 20%. This group of workers' monthly incomes amount to an average of 3 times the value of the poverty line and are approximately 30% lower than the average income of the region's urban employed population as a whole (see table III.8). Workers in this category are either relatively unskilled, and resort to working more hours than the standard work week in order to boost their meagre incomes, or else are employed in poorly-paid jobs in which it is difficult to enforce the statutory provisions regarding the length of the work week. Workers in this category include domestic employees, shop assistants and salespeople and providers of personal and business services, such as drivers, caretakers and security guards.

Clearly, overemployment in terms of hours worked is much more prevalent among employed persons with very little education and tends to be concentrated in this group; in the case of employed persons who failed to complete their primary or secondary education (i.e., those with less than 10 years of schooling), the percentage of those who work far more hours than the standard work week in order to earn more than the minimum income is from 30% to 50% higher than the figure for the overemployed population as a whole.

4. The quality of jobs created

Between 1990 and 1994, the share of low-productivity sectors in total urban employment remained high and even showed a slight increase, despite the fact that employment grew at a rate in excess of 3% per annum. In view of this poor result in terms of the quality of jobs created during a period marked by a significant increase in the number of jobs, it may be assumed that the share of low-productivity jobs in overall employment probably remained constant or even expanded in 1996, given the fact that urban employment grew considerably more slowly in 1995 (by around 1.5%).

As in 1990, in 1994 unskilled own-account workers accounted, on average, for roughly 24% of urban employment, while the share represented by wage earners without professional or technical qualifications employed in microenterprises held steady at about 12%; domestic employees continued to make up around 6% of the urban employed, if the simple average of their share in total employment in 12 countries of the region is considered.

Hence, the combined total for the three occupational categories associated with low levels of productivity remained at approximately 42% of the urban working population. What this means is that, despite significant rates of growth in total employment, which outstripped the growth rates for the working-age population (2.1% per annum), and for the economically active population (2.7% per annum), new jobs include the same proportion of low-productivity jobs as in the past.

THE IMPACT OF THE FEMALE LABOUR SUPPLY

The available data on urban areas in 13 countries indicate that, while the labour participation rate of women rose from 37% to 45% between the early 1980s and the mid-1990s, the corresponding rate for men remained virtually unchanged at around 78%. The increase in women's participation in the labour force was concentrated among women aged 25 to 49 and particularly those who went on to post-secondary or higher education. Among women in the latter category, the activity rate rose from 63% to 71% as a regional average, which, in most of the countries, brought it up to a level very similar to that for men (see table III.9). This factor is becoming such a major determinant of the growth rate for the economically active population (EAP) that, if it were to be factored out, the rate of expansion of the EAP would fall from its present level of 2.7% per annum to close to the 2.1% per annum rate at which the working-age population is growing.

This trend, which will most probably continue in the next few years, is a major factor behind the need to create sufficient jobs both in terms of quantity and quality, and, in addition, translates into a supplementary income, especially for low- and middle-income households.

The situation is worse in the five most populous countries of the region: Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico and Venezuela.¹² In all of these countries, unskilled independent workers increased from 21% of the working population in 1990 to 24% in 1994. The percentage of wage earners without professional or technical qualifications employed in microenterprises rose from 12% to 15% over the same period, while the proportion of those employed in domestic service remained at about 5% of the urban working population. As a consequence, the share of total employment represented by these primarily low-productivity occupations climbed from 38% to 44% in these countries.

**LATIN AMERICA: EMPLOYMENT AND AVERAGE INCOMES IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY
SECTORS IN URBAN AREAS
1990-1994**
(Simple average of 12 countries)

Occupational category a/	Average for countries with information available				Average for large countries c/			
	Percentage of the employed		Average income b/		Percentage of the employed		Average income b/	
	1990	1994	1990	1994	1990	1994	1990	1994
Unskilled workers (12) d/	24	24	3.5	3.2	21	24	3.9	3.2
Non-professional, non-technical wage earners in micro-enterprises (8) e/	12	12	2.5	2.5	12	15	2.6	2.2
Domestic employees (12)	6	6	1.4	1.4	5	5	1.6	1.4
Total	42	42	2.9	2.7	38	44	3.2	2.7

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys (see tables 11 and 12 in the statistical appendix).

- a/ Figures in parentheses refer to the number of countries considered in the calculation of the simple average of the total number of countries for which information is available.
- b/ Average monthly income, given as a multiple of the respective per capita poverty line.
- c/ Includes Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico and Venezuela. Does not include Peru.
- d/ Includes own-account and unpaid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations.
- e/ Includes wage earners who work in firms employing up to 5 persons. In the case of Brazil, refers to workers who do not have an employment contract.

¹² The relevant information was not available for Peru, whose population is actually bigger than Venezuela's.

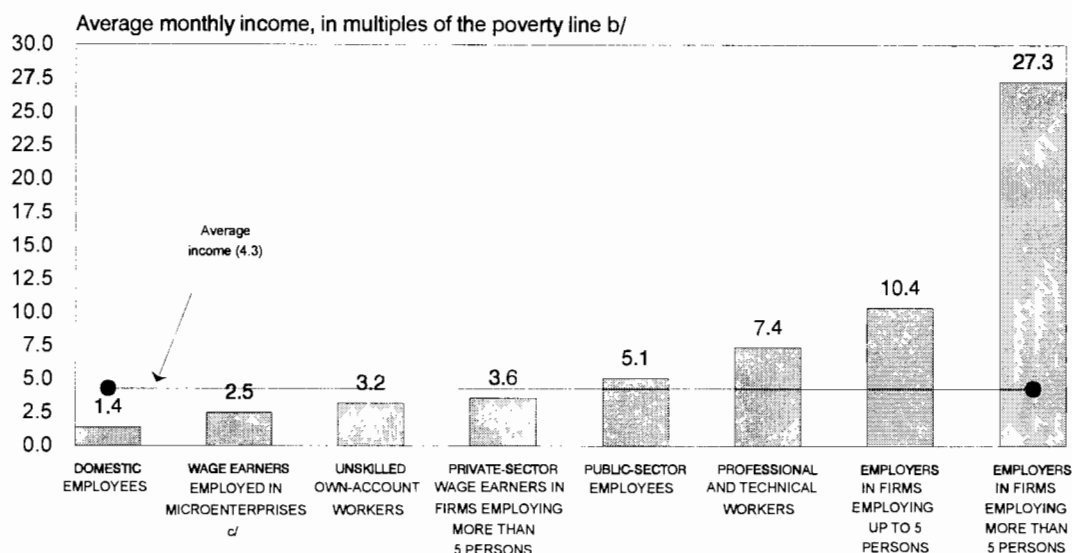
The trend observed in 1990 and 1994 suggests that the share of these low-productivity sectors probably either remained the same or increased slightly in 1996, especially in view of the fact that in 1995 the region's employment growth rate declined precipitously from its level of the previous four years, falling to just on 1.5%.

The countries that recorded some reduction in these sectors' share of the total over the 1990-1994 period were Chile, Honduras, Panama and Paraguay. In contrast, in Bolivia, Costa Rica and Uruguay, the share of these sectors appears to have remained unchanged.

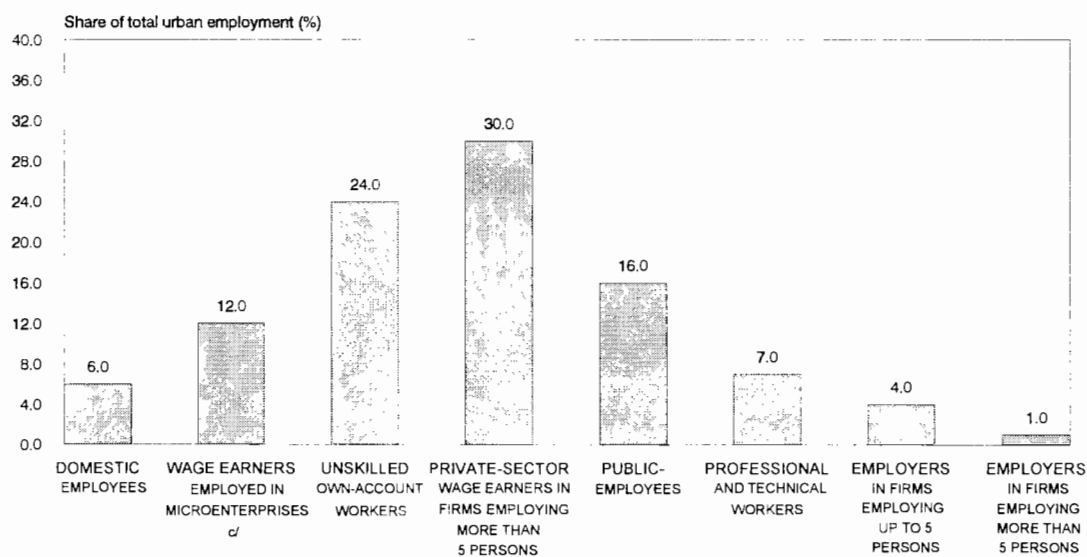
Moreover, since the level of earned income is linked to productivity, it may be seen that the above-mentioned occupational categories are indeed in low-productivity sectors. It should be noted that unskilled own-account workers earned, on average, a monthly income equivalent to 3.2 times the poverty line in 1994, while wage earners without professional or technical qualifications employed in microenterprises received a lower income (2.5 times the poverty line) and domestic employees' earnings averaged even less (1.4 times the urban poverty line).

These income levels, which are actually quite low in terms of the minimum threshold required to attain well-being which was referred to in the previous section, are also low in relative terms, i.e., as compared to other occupational categories, with the possible exception of private-sector wage earners without professional or technical qualifications who work in enterprises employing more than 5 persons, whose monthly income is equivalent to 3.6 times the poverty line. In the remaining categories, average monthly incomes exceed the equivalent of 5 times the poverty line. For example, according to data for the 12 countries studied, public-sector employees earn 5.1 times the value of the poverty line, professional and technical workers employed in the private sector receive 7.4 times that value, and owners of businesses employing more than five persons receive 27.3 times the poverty line (see figure III.3).

Figure III.3
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES a/
(Urban areas, 1994)



LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF THE WORKING POPULATION
IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES a/
(Urban areas, 1994)



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

a/ Refers to the simple average for 12 countries..

b/ Refers to per capita poverty lines in urban areas.

c/ Refers to wage earners who work in enterprises employing up to 5 persons.

Table III.1

URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY INCOME LEVEL a/

Country	Year	Total	First decile	First quintile	Second quintile	Fifth quintile
Argentina b/	1990	5.9	30.2	19.9	7.8	1.3
	1992	6.7	30.0	18.6	5.7	1.2
	1994	13.0	48.0	37.5	18.8	2.4
	1995	17.5	-	-	-	-
Bolivia	1989	9.4	51.7	28.9	10.1	3.3
	1992	5.6	25.3	16.6	5.3	1.8
	1994	3.2	11.9	8.1	4.0	1.4
	1995	3.6	-	-	-	-
Brazil	1990	4.5	17.1	11.9	5.0	1.4
	1993	7.4	20.7	15.5	8.5	2.9
	1995	4.6	-	-	-	-
Chile c/	1990	8.7	30.8	22.5	11.6	2.2
	1992	6.0	21.2	15.4	7.7	1.6
	1994	6.8	23.5	17.4	7.9	1.9
	1995	5.3	-	-	-	-
Colombia	1990	10.3	22.5	19.7	14.1	3.6
	1992	9.1	21.5	19.7	11.4	3.0
	1994 d/	8.0	20.4	16.5	10.6	2.5
	1995	8.9	-	-	-	-
Costa Rica	1992	4.2	22.4	15.5	5.2	0.6
	1994	4.2	16.1	11.9	4.6	1.0
	1995	5.7	-	-	-	-
Honduras	1992	5.1	12.6	11.3	7.2	1.4
	1994	4.1	11.7	8.9	4.4	1.2
	1995	4.6	-	-	-	-
Mexico e/	1992	4.3	6.4	7.1	5.2	2.8
	1994	4.5	9.7	8.5	4.5	2.4
	1995	6.3	-	-	-	-
Panama	1989	19.0	37.5	33.3	24.4	5.7
	1991	18.6	41.7	35.2	24.5	6.1
	1994	15.7	37.5	30.6	20.1	4.7
	1995	16.2	-	-	-	-
Paraguay f/	1992	5.0	22.0	13.5	7.4	1.8
	1994	4.4	18.6	12.8	4.9	1.2
	1995	5.2	-	-	-	-
Uruguay	1990	8.9	20.8	17.4	10.6	3.4
	1992	8.4	19.8	15.9	9.8	3.0
	1994	9.7	22.7	19.4	10.8	3.3
	1995	10.3	-	-	-	-
Venezuela	1990	10.2	44.3	33.9	13.0	2.1
	1992	7.3	37.6	26.0	9.6	1.4
	1994	8.9	25.9	22.4	13.3	2.3
	1995	10.9	-	-	-	-

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

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

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

c/ Special tabulations of data from national economic surveys conducted in

1990, 1992 and 1994.

d/ In 1993 the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey had covered around half the urban population.

e/ Special tabulations of data from income and expenditure surveys.

f/ Asunción metropolitan area

Table III.2

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): LEVEL AND TREND OF UNEMPLOYMENT AND UNDEREMPLOYMENT
IN HOURS WORKED AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION
IN URBAN AREAS

COUNTRY	YEAR	Percentage of underemployed in terms of hours worked (1)	Average hours worked by underemployed (2)	Underemployment in terms of equivalent unemployment (3)	Open unemployment (4)	Percentage of labour force totally underutilized (3)+(4)
Bolivia	1989	7.9	23.2	3.3	9.4	12.7
	1994	6.4	23.6	2.6	3.2	5.8
Colombia	1990	2.9	22.4	1.3	10.3	11.6
	1994	2.4	22.2	1.1	8.0	9.1
Costa Rica	1990	5.2	21.2	2.4	5.4	7.8
	1994	4.8	21.2	2.3	4.2	6.5
Honduras	1990	4.1	23.5	1.7	6.9	8.6
	1994	2.2	24.9	0.8	4.1	4.9
Panama	1989	6.2	21.3	2.9	19.0	21.9
	1994	5.9	21.2	2.8	15.7	18.5
Paraguay	1990	2.1	17.6	1.2	6.3	7.5
	1994	3.8	18.5	2.0	4.4	6.4
Uruguay	1990	4.3	20.5	2.1	8.9	11.0
	1994	6.0	23.2	2.5	9.8	12.3
Venezuela	1990	1.8	22.2	0.8	10.3	11.1
	1994	1.4	24.9	0.5	8.9	9.4

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

Table III.3

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): UNDEREMPLOYMENT IN HOURS WORKED
AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION,
BY SEX, IN URBAN AREAS
1994

COUNTRY	Underemployment in hours worked		
	TOTAL	Sex	
		Male	Female
Bolivia	6.4	4.7	8.7
Colombia	2.4	1.9	3.2
Costa Rica	4.8	4.2	5.9
Honduras	2.2	1.7	2.9
Panama	5.9	6.2	5.5
Paraguay	3.8	2.4	5.5
Uruguay	6.0	4.2	8.5
Venezuela	1.4	1.2	1.9

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

Table III.4
 LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): UNDEREMPLOYMENT IN HOURS WORKED
 AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION,
 BY AGE GROUP, IN URBAN AREAS,
 1994

COUNTRY	Underemployment in hours worked				
	TOTAL	Age group			
		15-24	25-34	35-44	45 and over
Bolivia	6.4	6.9	5.8	5.7	7.6
Colombia	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.5	2.1
Costa Rica	4.8	5.2	4.1	4.5	5.7
Honduras	2.2	2.0	2.5	2.6	1.6
Panama	5.9	4.9	6.1	5.7	7.3
Paraguay	3.8	4.0	4.1	2.6	4.2
Uruguay	6.0	6.9	7.3	6.0	4.6
Venezuela	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.4	0.9

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

Table III.5
 LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): UNDEREMPLOYMENT IN HOURS WORKED
 AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION,
 BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, IN URBAN AREAS,
 1994

COUNTRY	Underemployment in hours worked				
	TOTAL	Number of years of study			
		0 to 5	6 to 9	10 to 12	13 and over
Bolivia	6.4	7.7	6.1	6.7	4.8
Colombia	2.4	2.8	2.9	1.8	2.0
Costa Rica	4.8	8.9	5.3	3.4	3.2
Honduras	2.2	2.8	2.0	1.6	1.9
Panama	5.9	6.8	7.5	5.3	3.7
Paraguay	3.8	5.6	3.0	4.0	3.6
Uruguay	6.0	6.1	6.0	5.1	7.9
Venezuela	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.5

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

Table III.6

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF PERSONS EMPLOYED FULL-TIME WITH INSUFFICIENT INCOMES, a/ AVERAGE NUMBER OF HOURS WORKED AND AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOME, IN URBAN AREAS
1994

COUNTRY	YEAR	Persons employed full-time who have insufficient incomes (as a percentage of all employed persons)						
		TOTAL	Number of years of schooling				Average No. of hours worked	Average monthly income b/
			0 to 5	6 to 9	10 to 12	13 or more		
Argentina	1990	7.3	10.1	9.5	6.1	1.5	49.7	1.7
	1994	2.9	4.7	3.8	2.0	1.1	50.0	1.8
Bolivia	1989	33.6	44.1	40.3	32.2	14.0	57.4	1.5
	1994	35.6	47.5	43.6	33.6	16.7	59.3	1.5
Brazil	1990	40.6	53.0	44.9	22.8	4.1	48.4	1.3
	1993	43.0	54.0	47.3	27.6	6.3	48.2	1.4
Chile	1990	38.6	51.5	49.6	41.2	16.1	54.0	1.7
	1994	28.6	43.9	39.7	29.2	11.1	51.3	1.8
Colombia	1990	42.0	57.2	50.5	35.6	9.6	52.3	1.7
	1994	46.7	62.4	58.5	41.1	9.5	52.0	1.5
Costa Rica	1990	10.3	19.4	14.2	5.9	1.2	52.6	1.7
	1994	10.0	17.8	15.7	4.9	1.3	52.1	1.8
Honduras	1990	51.0	64.4	58.4	24.7	4.8	56.1	1.3
	1994	62.7	72.2	73.4	47.1	17.0	54.2	1.3
Mexico	1989	37.2	43.4	45.1	27.6	9.8	50.4	1.6
	1994	39.3	50.4	48.0	29.6	9.8	52.0	1.5
Panama	1989	19.1	22.3	27.5	16.5	3.8	48.4	1.7
	1994	22.8	29.8	32.5	21.6	5.6	48.8	1.8
Paraguay	1990	41.7	56.1	54.7	31.5	10.6	56.6	1.6
	1994	40.3	52.9	51.0	35.4	10.0	55.7	1.7
Uruguay	1990	23.0	30.9	28.0	19.3	5.0	49.5	1.7
	1994	16.4	24.8	20.4	12.9	3.2	50.6	1.7
Venezuela	1990	17.5	30.5	20.2	10.4	3.4	45.1	1.8
	1994	32.4	43.2	37.0	28.3	13.8	44.5	1.7

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

a/ Persons who regularly work more than 40 hours per week and earn a monthly income of less than 2.5 times the per capita poverty line.

b/ As a multiple of the relevant urban poverty line.

Table III.7

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION, BY HOURS WORKED,
IN URBAN AREAS
1994

COUNTRY	TOTAL	Hours worked						
		less than 20	20 to 29	30 to 34	35 to 39	40 to 44	45 to 49	50 or more
Argentina	100.0	10.1	8.2	5.5	5.7	21.1	16.2	33.2
Bolivia	100.0	6.8	8.8	4.8	4.3	13.0	18.4	43.9
Brazil (1993)	100.0	6.0	6.9	6.2	3.5	34.5	20.1	22.8
Chile	100.0	4.0	3.5	3.4	1.8	17.2	40.9	29.3
Colombia	100.0	2.9	4.0	2.9	2.3	19.3	39.5	29.1
Costa Rica	100.0	5.3	6.2	3.2	2.1	14.7	36.8	31.6
Honduras	100.0	2.8	4.9	3.3	3.8	27.1	19.4	38.7
Mexico	100.0	5.8	6.7	4.7	5.3	17.7	27.3	32.5
Panama	100.0	5.2	5.1	3.6	2.2	36.0	31.1	16.8
Paraguay	100.0	4.0	5.8	6.9	4.5	15.9	19.2	43.7
Uruguay	100.0	5.9	7.9	8.0	6.1	18.8	23.9	29.3
Venezuela	100.0	1.6	2.5	7.0	3.6	51.2	22.6	11.5

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

Table III.8

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): EMPLOYED PERSONS WHO WORK A LARGE NUMBER OF HOURS TO COMPENSATE FOR INSUFFICIENT INCOMES AND TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION, AVERAGE NUMBER OF HOURS WORKED AND MONTHLY INCOMES, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING IN URBAN AREAS
1994

COUNTRY	Years of schooling	Employed persons who work more than 40 hours per week with incomes greater than 2.5 times the poverty line and a CEMIT of less than 2.5 a/			Total employed population	
		Percentage of total employed population	Average number of hours worked	Average monthly income, in multiples of the poverty line	Average number of hours worked	Average monthly income, in multiples of the poverty line
Argentina	TOTAL	3.2	67.9	3.3	43.6	8.8
	0-5	5.7	71.1	3.4	40.0	5.4
	6-9	4.5	67.9	3.3	45.2	6.6
	10-12	1.8	65.9	3.1	45.3	9.5
	13 or more	0.6	62.0	3.0	39.9	14.2
Bolivia	TOTAL	8.7	70.4	3.1	49.8	4.3
	0-5	9.7	72.2	3.2	53.4	2.6
	6-9	10.8	70.7	3.1	53.0	3.2
	10-12	9.4	69.3	3.1	47.9	3.6
	13 or more	4.5	68.8	3.1	44.8	7.8
Brazil (1993)	TOTAL	3.0	62.5	3.0	42.9	4.2
	0-5	3.4	62.1	3.0	43.1	2.4
	6-9	3.5	62.8	3.0	43.7	3.2
	10-12	2.5	62.9	3.0	42.0	5.3
	13 or more	0.8	64.5	3.1	41.0	13.0
Chile	TOTAL	8.5	61.0	2.9	48.0	6.3
	0-5	10.1	61.9	2.9	47.8	3.3
	6-9	11.3	62.7	3.0	49.2	3.8
	10-12	9.4	60.4	2.9	48.7	5.3
	13 or more	3.9	58.4	2.9	45.9	11.3
Colombia	TOTAL	5.9	64.7	3.0	48.2	3.9
	0-5	7.0	67.0	3.0	50.0	2.3
	6-9	7.1	64.6	3.0	49.0	2.6
	10-12	6.0	61.8	3.0	47.4	4.0
	13 or more	2.1	63.6	3.1	44.6	8.8
Costa Rica	TOTAL	6.7	61.8	3.0	46.6	5.8
	0-5	11.0	60.4	3.0	45.0	3.6
	6-9	10.7	62.2	3.0	48.3	4.2
	10-12	3.5	62.7	3.0	46.8	6.0
	13 or more	0.9	60.1	3.0	44.2	9.6
Honduras	TOTAL	4.5	68.0	3.0	49.9	2.4
	0-5	3.2	68.3	3.1	50.5	1.4
	6-9	4.5	70.7	3.0	51.3	1.8
	10-12	6.7	63.8	3.0	47.8	3.1
	13 or more	3.8	69.9	3.2	46.8	7.1

Table III.8 (concluded)

COUNTRY	Years of schooling	Employed persons who work more than 40 hours per week with incomes greater than 2.5 times the poverty line and a CEMIT of less than 2.5 a/			Total employed population	
		Percentage of total employed population	Average number of hours worked	Average monthly income, in multiples of the poverty line	Average number of hours worked	Average monthly income, in multiples of the poverty line
Mexico	TOTAL	5.0	66.3	3.0	46.1	4.4
	0-5	5.5	66.9	3.0	46.4	2.3
	6-9	6.1	67.0	3.0	47.0	3.2
	10-12	3.9	62.8	3.1	44.1	4.6
	13 or more	2.0	64.2	3.0	44.9	10.1
Panama	TOTAL	3.9	61.0	3.0	43.6	5.2
	0-5	5.1	61.1	3.0	43.9	2.8
	6-9	5.0	61.1	2.9	44.2	3.4
	10-12	4.2	62.0	3.0	43.6	4.8
	13 or more	1.3	56.4	3.0	42.7	9.4
Paraguay	TOTAL	9.1	67.9	3.0	49.5	3.8
	0-5	11.9	72.3	3.0	50.2	2.0
	6-9	10.6	66.9	3.0	51.4	2.7
	10-12	8.9	66.1	3.0	48.7	4.0
	13 or more	3.3	69.3	3.3	45.6	8.1
Uruguay	TOTAL	5.7	68.5	3.2	45.7	5.0
	0-5	6.9	66.8	3.1	45.1	3.4
	6-9	7.3	68.5	3.2	46.4	4.0
	10-12	4.6	69.9	3.3	46.3	5.6
	13 or more	1.3	65.8	3.3	42.4	8.3
Venezuela	TOTAL	3.3	55.9	2.8	42.4	3.9
	0-5	3.9	55.6	2.8	42.2	2.8
	6-9	4.3	55.5	2.8	43.3	3.4
	10-12	2.7	57.0	2.8	41.9	4.1
	13 or more	0.8	59.1	3.0	41.0	6.1

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

a/ The CEMIT (monthly labour income capacity equivalent) represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per hour worked and is expressed in terms of the poverty line.

Table III.9

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION RATES *a/*
IN URBAN AREAS
(Percentages)

	1980	1986	1992	1994
M E N				
<u>Total</u>	<u>78</u>	<u>78</u>	<u>78</u>	<u>79</u>
Young people aged 15 to 24	64	62	62	63
Persons with 10 or more years of schoolin	77	79	78	79
W O M E N				
<u>Total</u>	<u>37</u>	<u>40</u>	<u>43</u>	<u>45</u>
Young people aged 15 to 24	38	39	39	40
Persons with 10 or more years of schoolin	50	53	54	55
(With 13 or more years of schooling)	63	65	69	71

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

a/ Refers to the number of economically active persons as a percentage of the population aged 15 and over. The figures are simple averages for 13 countries.

SOCIAL EXPENDITURE IN THE 1990s

- 1. Trends in public social expenditure***
- 2. The level of public social expenditure***
- 3. Social priorities in public expenditure***
- 4. Social expenditure by sector***
- 5. Expenditure on education***

1. Trends in public social expenditure

During the first half of the 1990s, resources allocated to social sectors increased in 11 out of 15 Latin American countries and in many cases exceeded the levels of social spending seen at the beginning of the 1980s.

In the majority of the countries of the region, the level of public expenditure on social sectors rose during the early 1990s. By contrast with developments up to 1993, in 7 out of the 11 cases where spending increased, the levels achieved were even higher than those observed at the beginning of the 1980s.

Comparing the 1994-1995 biennium with 1990-1991, the regional average for per capita public social spending went up in real terms by nearly US\$ 50,¹³ an improvement of 27.5% (see table IV.1).

Particularly substantial increases occurred in Argentina, Mexico, Panama and Uruguay; in these countries social spending rose by more than US\$ 90 per capita during the period in question. Increases in Chile, Colombia and Costa Rica were slightly above the regional average. In Bolivia, Guatemala and Paraguay the rise was smaller in absolute terms. Only in Nicaragua has there been a definite drop in per capita social spending during the 1990s.

During this period public social spending as a percentage of GDP (the measure of its macroeconomic priority) went up by an average of 1.8 percentage points. In 9 out of the 11 cases where an increase was noted, it was equivalent to more than 1% of GDP, with the most significant increases occurring in Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay. By contrast, in Brazil, El Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua, the proportion of GDP allocated to social spending remained unchanged or dropped slightly (see figure IV.1 and table IV.1).

To date in the 1990s, using 1980 as the reference year, three distinct trends in public social spending are observable, and these are described in box IV.1. In addition, trends in per capita spending in each country between 1980 and 1995 are shown in figure IV.1.

Generally speaking, during the first half of the decade, social spending in the majority of countries moved in the same direction as GDP, and generally speaking both tended upwards. GDP growth between 1990-1991 and 1994-1995 was 14.7%, while per capita social expenditure expanded by 27.5% in real terms.

Nevertheless, trends varied from country to country depending on initial levels of social spending; in countries with moderate to low levels, spending rose faster in relation to output. Although real per capita social expenditure in the three groups under consideration went up by nearly 28% during this period, this figure was more than double the growth in output (12%) in countries with moderate to low levels of social spending, but only one and a half times GDP growth (18%) in countries with high levels of social spending (see table IV.1).

¹³ Average figures correspond to the 1990-1991 and 1994-1995 bienniums, except in those cases where only information for 1994 was available. Box IV.2 describes the institutional coverage of series on social expenditure in each of the countries.

Box IV.1

TRENDS IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE IN LATIN AMERICA
DURING THE 1990sTrend

1. Predominantly upward, exceeding levels prevailing at beginning of the 1980s (figures IV.2a and IV.2b)

Countries

Argentina
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Mexico
Panama
Paraguay
Uruguay

2. Predominantly upward but without attaining levels prevailing at beginning of the 1980s (figure IV.2c)

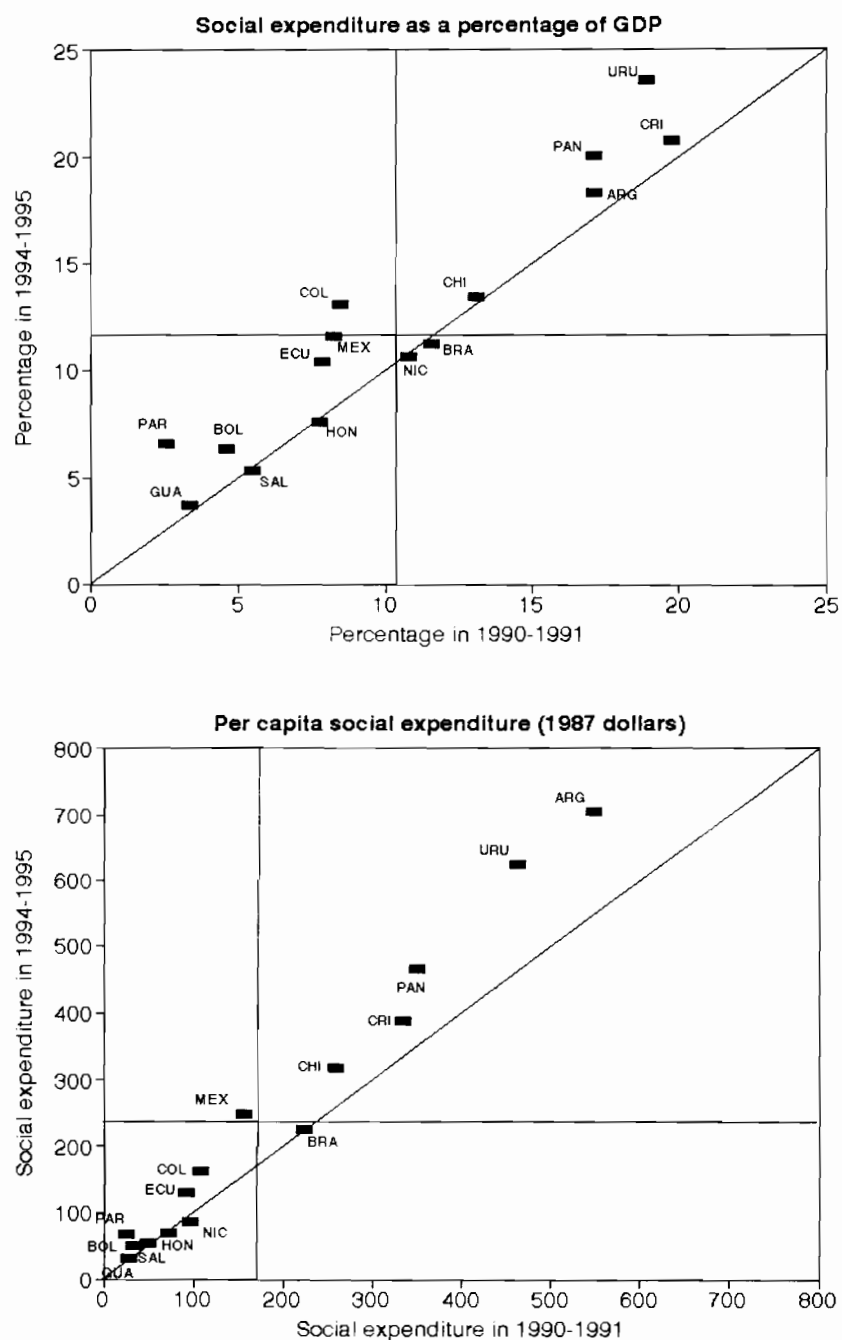
Bolivia
Ecuador
El Salvador

3. Fluctuating or slightly downward (figure IV.2d)

Brazil
Guatemala
Honduras
Nicaragua

The sectors in which social public spending expanded most were education, social security and, to a lesser extent, health. In the case of education, the increase noted in a number of countries was in part a reflection of the demand for more resources for implementing reforms. Social security spending increases, on the other hand, were the result of a number of different factors, including the introduction of mechanisms for adjusting retirement pensions, acknowledgement of accrued obligations to the system's beneficiaries and, in other cases, the extension of coverage within the sector.

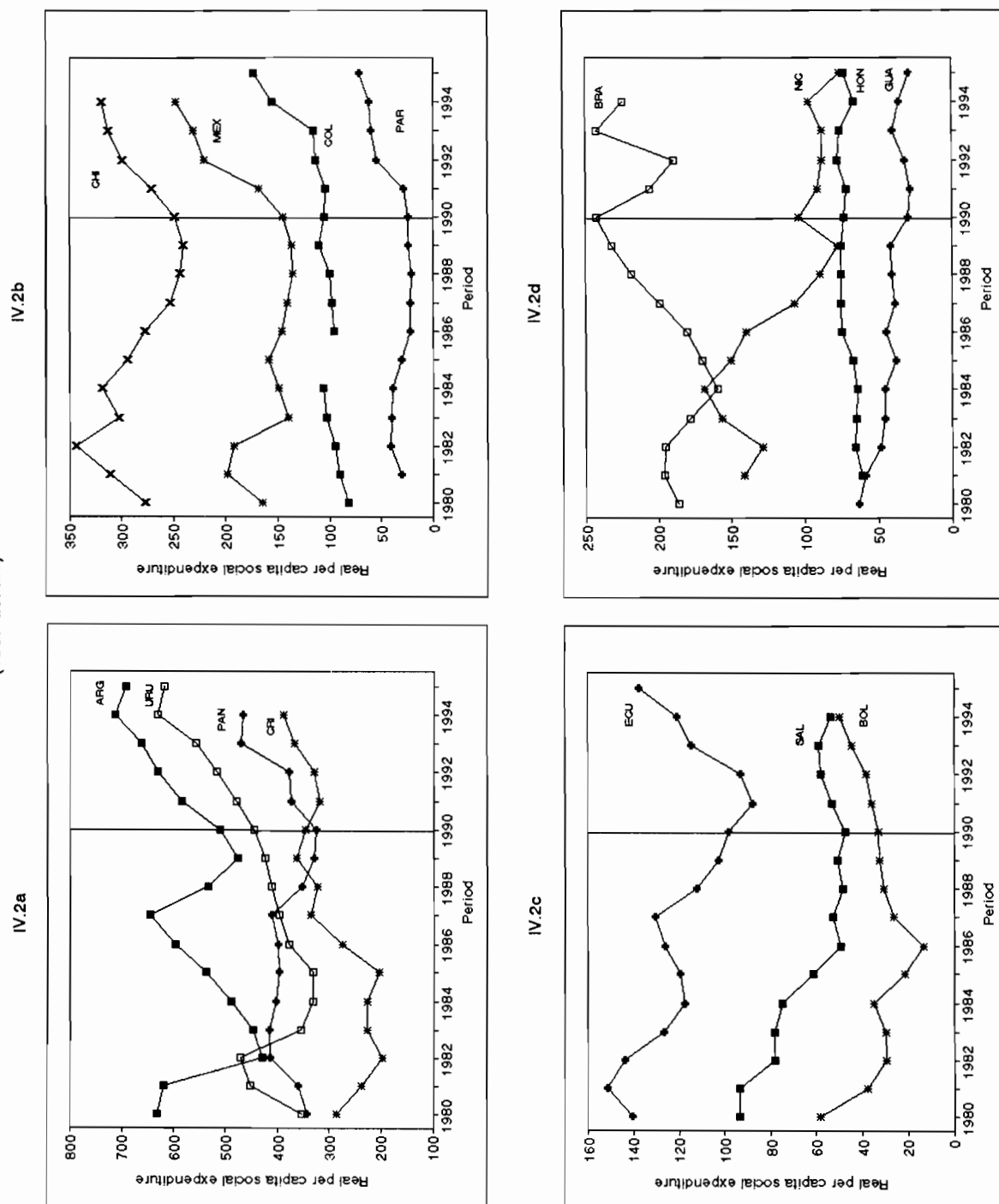
Figure IV.1
LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SOCIAL EXPENDITURE
 1990-1991/1994-1995



Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database (ECLAC/World Bank project).

Note: The vertical and horizontal lines indicate the average for the indicator for the group of countries analysed, in 1990-1991 and 1994-1995 respectively.

Figure IV.2
LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN REAL PER CAPITA SOCIAL EXPENDITURE, 1980-1994 OR 1980-1995
(1987 dollars)



Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database (ECLAC/World Bank project).

2. The level of public social expenditure

The volume of resources allocated to social sectors continued to vary widely from country to country. Although in countries where levels were low, there was faster growth in social spending as a percentage of gross domestic product, the volume was still so low that it was only half the average for Latin America, trailing by six percentage points.

The perceptible differences among the countries of the region as regards the volume of public social expenditure (see figures IV.3 and IV.4) make it possible to group them according to their position in relation to the whole (see table IV.1).

The first group consists of seven countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico, Panama and Uruguay) where public social expenditure equals more than 11% of GDP and in per capita terms exceeds US\$ 200 in 1987 dollars. The second group consists of four countries (Colombia, Ecuador, Nicaragua and Venezuela)

where per capita expenditure varies between US\$ 70 and US\$ 200 and total expenditure equals between 8% and 11% of GDP. In the seven countries that form the group with the lowest levels of social spending (Bolivia, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Paraguay and Peru), per capita expenditure is less than US\$ 70 and total expenditure equal to less than 8% of GDP.

Both the countries where spending levels were high and those where levels were moderate or low increased their volume of spending at a similar rate —around 28%. However, the greatest increases in spending as a percentage of GDP occurred in the countries with moderate and low levels of expenditure, where the proportion increased by 21.5% and 24.6% respectively, as against 13.5% in the group of countries where social spending levels were high.

Despite the efforts of the third group of countries, their average per capita social expenditure during the period 1994-1995 was only US\$ 54, still far below the regional average of US\$ 242.

Two issues arise from these wide variations in social public expenditure levels in Latin America. First, the small amounts involved in countries with low and moderate levels of social spending. Mention has already been made of this deficiency in the third group and of the relative inadequacy of levels in the second group, as compared with industrialized countries and with the countries in the region where social spending levels are higher (see box IV.3). Thus, the most urgent task for countries with moderate and low levels of social spending is to boost per capita spending significantly within a relatively short period, while monitoring the quality of the impact of such spending.

Second, in those countries with the highest per capita social expenditure in the region, where the percentage of GDP allocated to social sectors is comparable to that in some industrialized countries, the most important —and increasingly urgent— challenge is to improve the efficacy and efficiency of social spending. Nevertheless, the amounts these countries spend per capita are still small in relation to the increases in coverage and quality of social services that are needed in order to achieve equitable development. In addition, it is clear that the figures involved are very much lower than those in more developed countries, owing to the vast differences in the size of GDP (see box IV.3). The countries of the region that have higher levels of social expenditure are not necessarily blocked from increasing these levels still further, by, for example, redistributing total public expenditure in favour of the social sectors.

Figure IV.3

**LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): SOCIAL EXPENDITURE
AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP, 1994 - 1995**

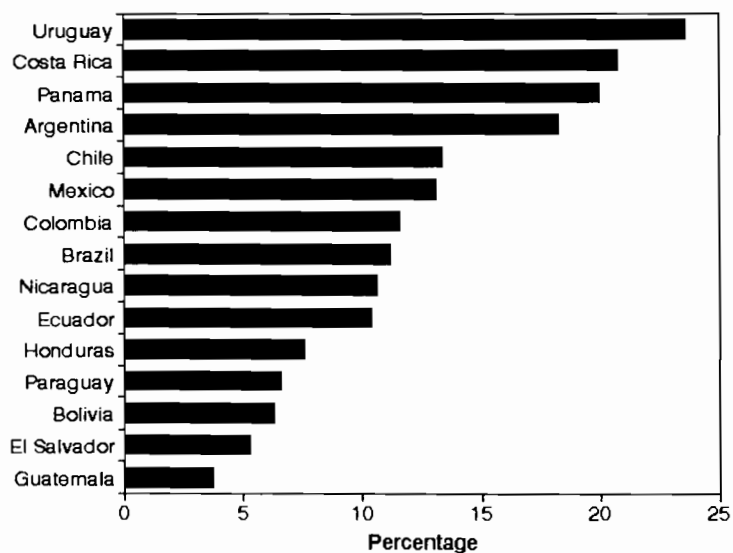
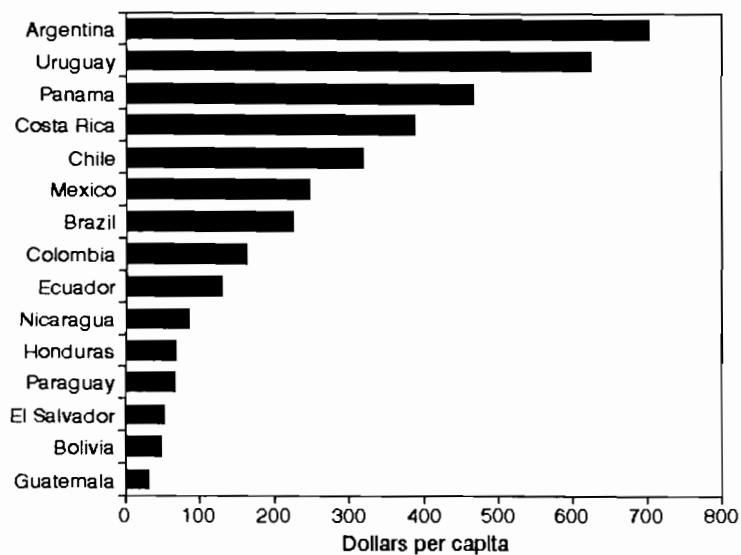


Figure IV.4

**LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): PER CAPITA SOCIAL EXPENDITURE
1994 - 1995**



Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database (ECLAC/World Bank project).

Box IV.2

METHODOLOGICAL NOTE ON SOCIAL EXPENDITURE
STATISTICS

Differences of methodology and institutional coverage make comparative analysis of statistical series on social public expenditure at the regional level difficult. In terms of methodology, the most important differences relate to how expenditure is recorded on the accounts and how social expenditure is defined. In terms of coverage, the differences have to do with how States are structured and whether the figures include local government expenditure.

Public spending can be broken down according to the agencies responsible for it. Thus, a distinction can be made between public expenditure by the financial public sector (FPS) (i.e., the central bank and other State-owned financial agencies) and the non-financial public sector (NFPS) (i.e., central government (CG), public-sector enterprises (PE) and local government (LG)); the latter breakdown applies to two countries.

In 12 of the 18 countries considered, the social expenditure series that have been analysed refer to central government spending. Here again, a distinction can be made between agencies with an autonomous budget structure (AB) and those that depend directly on the treasury (central government budget (CGB)), which is how expenditure is recorded in a further three countries. Lastly, one country takes account of general government spending (GG), which comprises CG and LG.

In sum, by examining the accounting categories used in the available series, it can be stated that in 16 of the 18 countries considered, social spending figures are highly comparable. Strictly speaking, however, the exclusion of social spending at the local level, where there is a significant degree of decentralization of expenditure, result in significant underestimates of total social public spending and thus limits the comparability of figures in cases such as Brazil and Mexico.

The countries are classified below according to the institutional coverage of the available series on social expenditure.

Institutional coverage

NFPS = CG + PE + LG

GG = CG + LG

CG = CGB + AA

CGB

Countries

Argentina and El Salvador

Ecuador

Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia,
Costa Rica, Chile, Dominican Republic,
Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Panama,
Uruguay and Venezuela

Nicaragua, Paraguay and Peru

Box IV.3

PUBLIC SOCIAL EXPENDITURE IN DOLLARS PER CAPITA
AND AS A PERCENTAGE OF GDP

Industrialized countries ^a		Latin American countries ^b	
In dollars per capita	As % of GDP	In dollars per capita	As % of GDP
Countries with high social expenditure (Sweden, France, Austria, Netherlands)			
7 200	31.2	425	17.2
Other countries (United Kingdom, Germany, Spain, Canada, Japan, United States)			
3 600	16.4	127	10.9
		54	5.9

Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database (ECLAC/World Bank project); and Government Finance Statistics Yearbook, International Monetary Fund (1995).

^a Consolidated central government; 1992 figures.

^b Figures for 1994-1995.

3. Social priorities in public expenditure

During the early 1990s, the proportion of public expenditure allocated to social sectors expanded in 12 out of 15 countries of the region. The higher priority accorded to these sectors meant that social spending increased even in countries whose fiscal budget had been drastically cut.

During the 1990s, the ratio of social public expenditure to total public expenditure has increased in most of the countries of the region. The increase was greater (33.6%) in countries with moderate social spending and smaller (14.6%) in those where levels of social expenditure were already high. A substantially smaller percentage increase (6.5%) was observed in the group of countries with low expenditure. In 9 out of the 19 countries which raised the priority of the social components of public

expenditure, the change brought an increase in real per capita social expenditure and in the proportion of GDP allocated to it. This indicates that a large number of Latin American countries made significant efforts to raise the level of priority accorded to social spending.

A positive sign is that, unlike in the 1980s, social public expenditure between 1990 and 1995 was not affected to an appreciable extent by the budget cutbacks experienced by some Governments. Indeed, analysis of the ratios of total public expenditure and social public expenditure to GDP shows that, regardless of the trends observed in total public spending, social spending went up as a percentage of GDP in 11 out of 15 countries. In Bolivia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay and Uruguay the increase in social spending took place against a background of expanding public expenditure as a whole. The countries where social spending as a proportion of GDP expanded while total public expenditure contracted were Argentina, Colombia, Chile, Guatemala and Panama (see figure IV.5).

The foregoing is borne out by the fact that in the eight countries where total public spending fell as a proportion of GDP between 1990 and 1995, the priority accorded social spending within the fiscal budget went up. Only in Honduras, Costa Rica and Bolivia did the priority fall, but this occurred in a context of growth in total public expenditure (see figure IV.6).

Figure IV.5

**LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): COMPARATIVE TRENDS IN PUBLIC
EXPENDITURE/GDP AND SOCIAL EXPENDITURE/GDP**

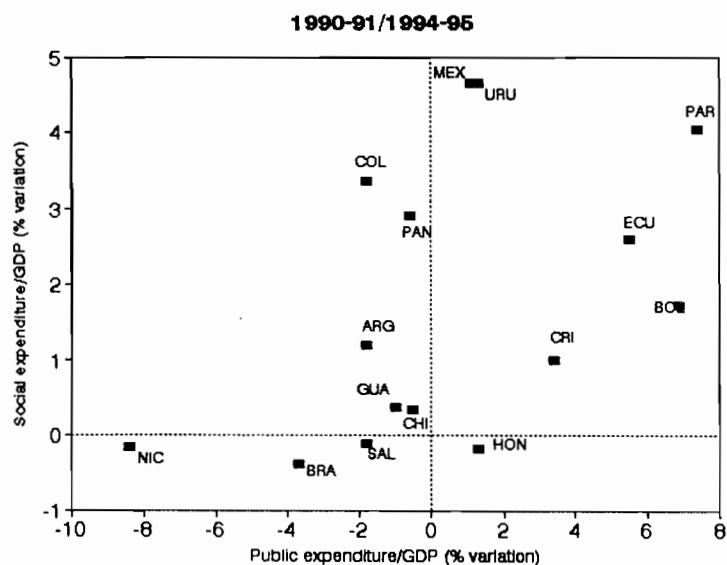
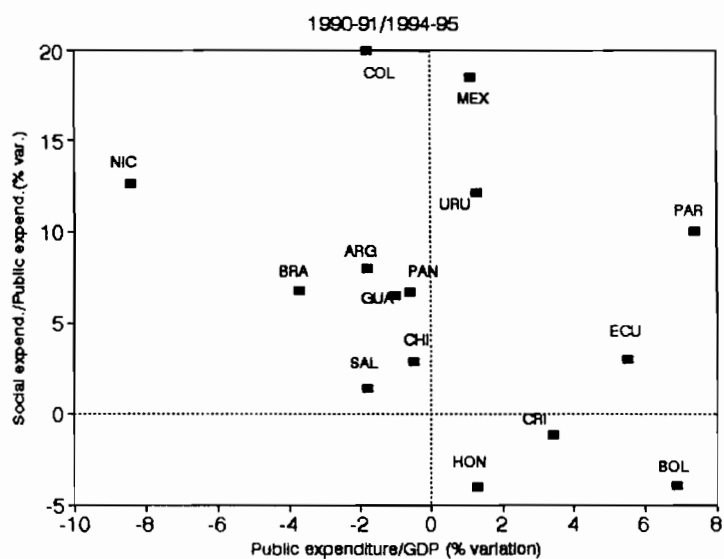


Figure IV.6

**LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): COMPARATIVE TRENDS IN PUBLIC
EXPENDITURE/GDP AND SOCIAL EXPENDITURE/PUBLIC EXPENDITURE**



Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database (ECLAC/World Bank project).

4. Social expenditure by sector

The increase in public social spending was attributable mainly to increased spending on education and social security. As regards education, reforms in a number of countries of the region required large outlays of fiscal resources. The growth in social security spending was due principally to adjustments in retirement and other pensions, amortization of liabilities accumulated by the system or expansion of coverage.

The greatest growth in the share of public social expenditure between 1990 and 1995 occurred in education and social security. Real per capita spending on education went up in 12 out of 15 countries, while public spending on social security increased in 10 out of 12 countries (see box IV.4). Average growth of real per capita spending in the countries of the region in the first half of the 1990s was 24.4% on education and around 50% on social security. These improvements made it possible to make up, at least in part, for the spending cuts in these sectors during the 1980s.

In education, the expansion in investment was again notable in countries with low levels of social spending, such as Paraguay and Bolivia. The strong increase in expenditure in these countries was connected with the implementation of far-reaching reform programmes. In a number of cases, these budget allocations were made in order to match financing provided by international agencies.

There has also been a significant, albeit somewhat smaller, increase in resources allocated—particularly for investment—in countries that have initiated educational reforms in the last few years, among them Argentina, Colombia and Mexico. Reforms in these countries have had a strong decentralizing thrust and have aimed at increasing local government autonomy and responsibility in budget management and implementation.¹⁴ In Chile, most of the increase in education expenditure was attributable to teachers' pay raises and, to a lesser extent, subsidy payments. Chile also instituted a wide-ranging programme for better-quality education with greater social equity. Argentina's programme for evaluating the quality of education and for compensatory action in education absorbed significant fiscal resources, notwithstanding co-financing by multilateral agencies.

In social security, the biggest increases were in Argentina, Ecuador, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay. In Argentina, a large part of the appreciable increase in current spending in this sector was attributable to the pension adjustment that was made to meet the budget objectives of the Retirement and Pensions Act and recognition of obligations of the social security funds to the beneficiaries of the system. In Ecuador and Panama the increase was due to a substantial expansion of loan payments during the period under consideration. In Uruguay, retirement and other pensions were adjusted quarterly in accordance with the

¹⁴ The Federal Education Act in Argentina, for example, transferred some of the responsibility for generating resources for public primary education and, to a lesser extent, secondary education, to the provinces and local governments.

constitutional amendment approved in the late 1980s, and this translated into a substantial increase in absolute terms in per capita spending on this sector between 1990 and 1995.

Colombia allocated large sums to extend social security coverage to indigent sectors under the "Revive" programme initiated in 1994. In addition, the establishment of the Pension Solidarity Fund enabled coverage to be extended to a portion of the working population that had not previously been covered.

Public spending on health also rose in 10 out of 13 countries. However, while in more than two thirds of cases the increase in education and social security spending exceeded the average rise in social spending, only in 40% of cases was this true in relation to health.

An important consequence of the simultaneous expansion of expenditure on health and education was that per capita spending on human capital went up in 9 out of 13 countries (see table IV.3).

Spending on human capital falls in most cases within a range of 20% and 30% of total public expenditure, which means that amounts spent on education and health together vary much less from country to country in the region. Thus, the wide variations in social spending, referred to above, are basically a product of the marked differences in spending on social security.

Nevertheless, the degree of variation is greater when the proportion of GDP allocated to human capital is considered. This means that those countries that devote less than 6% of output to these sectors as a whole have relatively more room to increase the proportion and should be making efforts to do so.

Measured in dollars, per capita spending on human capital is still very low in two thirds of the countries of Latin America, with less than US\$ 100 per person per annum being allocated to health and education (see table IV.3 and figure IV.7). In a number of countries, however, the percentage of GDP and of total public expenditure invested in these sectors is not low in regional terms, which makes it even more essential to ensure adequate management and administration of revenues and to improve the quality of social investment.

Analysis of the outlook for health and education indicates that the low levels of pay that prevail in these sectors, the high percentage of total sectoral expenditure they absorb and the movements towards their improvement already in evidence in a number of countries will increase pressure to boost spending in these sectors. In addition, as a consequence of the social security reforms under way in some countries, which entail incurring future liabilities while revenues progressively decline, the financing needs of this sector will intensify, although the resources allocated to it may not.

Box IV.4

TRENDS IN PER CAPITA PUBLIC SOCIAL
EXPENDITURE, ^a BY SECTOR
1990-1995

Sectoral expenditure relative to total social expenditure	Education	Health (Number of countries)	Social security	Housing
<i>Countries where total social expenditure rose</i>				
- Rise in sectoral expenditure relatively greater than rise in total social expenditure	8	4	7	4
- Rise in sectoral expenditure relatively smaller than rise in total social expenditure	4	6	3	2
- Decline in sectoral expenditure	1	1	1	6
<i>Countries where total social expenditure declined</i>				
- Rise in sectoral expenditure	0	1	0	2
- Decline in sectoral expenditure	2	1	1	0
TOTAL COUNTRIES ^b	15	13	12	14

Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database (ECLAC/World Bank project).

^a In real terms per capita.

^b The total number of countries analysed for each sector varies according to the information available.

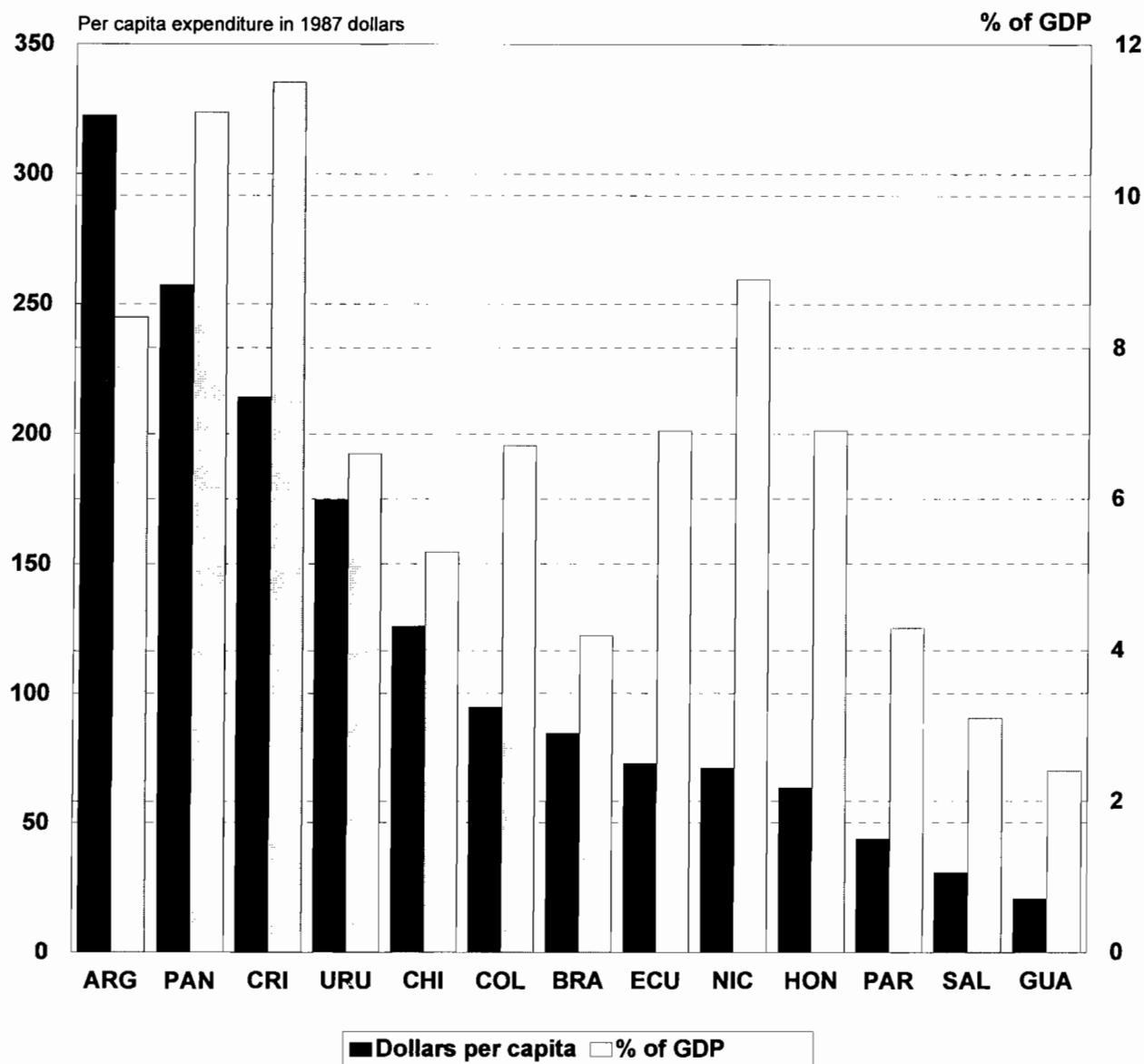
Box IV.5**THE BASIC COMPONENTS OF EXPENDITURE ON HUMAN CAPITAL**

The resources allocated by Governments to social sectors fall into two categories: resources whose purpose is to offset, temporarily or permanently, particular changes in the population's income levels; and resources that represent a medium- or long-term investment in human capital, insofar as they promote individuals' intellectual and physical development and thus their productive potential. Of special importance within the latter category are resources that are used to satisfy basic needs such as nutrition, health and housing, among others. Although it is difficult to identify precisely which components should be considered investment in human capital—indeed, there is no single definition even of the concept of a basic need—a rough approximation would include all or part of the expenditure on education and health. In some studies, for example, investment in basic health and primary education is classified as "expenditure on human development".

Nevertheless, depending on a country's level of social and economic development, it is necessary to find a broader definition of expenditure on human capital, which means including outlays whose purpose is to meet needs beyond the basic, needs such as secondary and higher education and higher levels of health care. Although total investment in education and health includes components that strictly speaking cannot be considered effective expenditure on human capital, for the purposes of this report this broader definition has been adopted rather than the definition restricting such expenditure to basic education and primary health care.

Figure IV.7
LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): EXPENDITURE ON HUMAN CAPITAL
(EDUCATION PLUS HEALTH)

1994 - 95



Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database (ECLAC/World Bank project).

5. Expenditure on education

During the 1990s the downward trend in public spending on education observed in the 1980s has been reversed. Even so, there is still a significant investment deficit in the sector as a result of the low percentage of expenditure allocated to the building and renovation of the educational infrastructure.

During the first five years of the 1990s, per capita resources allocated to the education sector expanded in 11 out of 15 countries to a level that was slightly higher than the pre-debt crisis average. This represents a reversal of the downward trend in education expenditure that had prevailed since the period 1980-1981, becoming critical at the end of the 1980s. In spite of this widespread recovery, however, significant differences between countries persisted.¹⁵

Public spending on education continued to be concentrated on primary education, which in five out of six countries absorbed nearly half of total sectoral expenditure. Although there is no lack of arguments, based on criteria of equity and efficiency, to support allocation of a greater relative share of resources to primary education, the evidence adduced in previous editions of the **Social Panorama** points to a need, based on precisely the same criteria, to accord secondary education the same importance as primary education in determining expenditure, the objective being to ensure that the population completes both levels of education.¹⁶

The countries must make an effort to raise levels of both current and investment expenditure on education. On the one hand, it is still necessary to improve teachers' pay, which in a large number of countries has fallen behind that of other professionals, despite the fact that their salaries consume nearly 90% of the resources allocated to the sector. On the other hand, the low proportion of resources channelled into investment is partly to blame for the inadequate physical infrastructure and the lack of suitable teaching materials in public schools, shortcomings which in turn reduce the opportunities for improving quality and social equity in education.

The reforms under way in a number of countries of the region aim at filling the gaps in the educational infrastructure and at the same time increasing the coverage, quality and equity of the service provided. The reforms are so recent that definitive results have yet to emerge. Nevertheless, expenditure levels in the sector are expected to rise in the next few years.

¹⁵ The countries with the highest levels of spending on education (Argentina, Costa Rica and Panama) allocate US\$ 80-130 per capita per annum. The next group spends US\$ 40-80 per capita (Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Uruguay and Venezuela). The third group consists of the countries where investment in education does not exceed US\$ 40 per capita (Bolivia, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Peru).

¹⁶ Trends in Latin America increasingly indicate that a person should complete secondary education in order to have an 80% chance of not falling below the poverty line.

Table IV.1
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): SOCIAL EXPENDITURE
 (Averages) a/

Countries b/	Real per capita social expenditure (in 1987 dollars)		Social expenditure/GDP		Social expenditure/Total public expenditure	
	1990-1991	1994-1995	1990-1991	1994-1995	1990-1991	1994-1995
Hig social expenditure	333.6	424.9	15.2	17.2	52.7	60.4
Uruguay	463.2	624.9	18.9	23.6	63.0	75.1
Costa Rica	334.0	388.6	19.8	20.8	45.5	44.3
Panama	349.9	466.5	17.1	20.0	37.5	44.2
Argentina	548.5	703.8	17.1	18.3	58.0	66.0
Chile	259.1	318.3	13.1	13.4	60.3	63.3
Mexico	156.4	247.3	8.4	13.1	53.3	71.8
Brazil c/	224.0	224.8	11.6	11.2	51.0	57.8
Moderate social expenditure d/	99.1	126.6	9.0	10.9	35.5	47.4
Colombia	107.2	164.2	8.2	11.6	33.9	54.0
Nicaragua	97.4	86.4	10.8	10.6	36.2	48.8
Ecuador	92.7	129.3	7.8	10.4	36.5	39.5
Venezuela	215.6	...	8.5	...	32.1	...
Low social expenditure e/	42.3	54.3	4.8	5.9	31.1	33.2
Honduras	72.2	69.6	7.8	7.6	33.1	29.1
Paraguay f/	25.9	66.7	2.6	6.6	33.2	43.2
Bolivia	34.4	49.5	4.6	6.3	36.0	32.0
El Salvador	50.1	53.7	5.5	5.3	23.6	25.0
Guatemala	28.7	32.2	3.3	3.7	29.8	36.4
Dominican Republic	36.3	...	4.7	...	36.6	...
Peru	20.6	...	2.1	...	15.9	...
Regional average g/	189.6	241.7	10.4	12.2	42.1	48.7
Countries with high social expenditure						
Percentage variation in social expenditure	...	27.4	...	13.5	...	14.6
Percentage variation in GDP	...	17.7	...	17.7	...	17.7
Countries with moderate social expenditure						
Percentage variation in social expenditure	...	27.7	...	21.5	...	33.6
Percentage variation in GDP	...	11.7	...	11.7	...	11.7
Countries with low social expenditure						
Percentage variation in social expenditure	...	28.4	...	24.6	...	6.5
Percentage variation in GDP	...	12.3	...	12.3	...	12.3

Source ECLAC, social expenditure database (ECLAC/World Bank project).

a/ The countries are listed in descending order according to the percentage of GDP allocated to social expenditure in 1994-1995.

b/ Averages for 1990-1991 and 1994-1995 for all countries except Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Mexico and Panama, figures for which correspond to 1994 only.

c/ Central government expenditure only.

d/ Averages do not include Venezuela.

e/ Averages do not include Peru or the Dominican Republic.

f/ Central government budget expenditure only.

g/ Averages do not include the Dominican Republic, Peru or Venezuela.

Table IV.2
LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES):
TRENDS IN SECTORAL PER CAPITA EXPENDITURE a/

Sector	Real per capita social expenditure (1987 dollars)		Absolute variation (1987 dollars)	Percentage variation
	1990-1991	1994-1995		
Education	46.7	58.1		
Argentina	105.9	145.8	39.9	37.6
Bolivia	22.1	34.6	12.5	56.8
Brazil b/	26.0	27.3	1.3	5.1
Chile	51.1	67.4	16.3	31.8
Colombia	31.0	46.0	15.0	48.4
Costa Rica	80.7	100.9	20.2	25.0
Ecuador	34.7	50.2	15.5	44.8
El Salvador	19.0	15.8	(3.2)	(16.6)
Guatemala	13.7	14.0	0.3	2.3
Honduras	40.4	37.3	(3.1)	(7.6)
Mexico	53.7	76.5	22.7	42.3
Nicaragua	44.7	36.6	(8.0)	(18.0)
Panama	94.1	113.9	19.8	21.1
Paraguay c/	11.1	32.4	21.3	192.4
Peru	15.2	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	9.3 d/	...	...	...
Uruguay	71.7	72.1	0.4	0.6
Venezuela	83.7 d/	...	...	...
Health e/	51.5	62.9		
Argentina	141.4	176.8	35.3	25.0
Bolivia	...	...	...	...
Brazil b/	54.3	57.1	2.8	5.2
Chile	41.2	58.8	17.7	43.0
Colombia	15.5	48.8	33.3	214.6
Costa Rica	105.2	113.5	8.3	7.9
Ecuador	17.6	22.7	5.2	29.6
El Salvador	14.4	15.2	0.8	5.5
Guatemala	7.8	6.9	(0.9)	(11.2)
Honduras	23.6	26.3	2.7	11.2
Mexico	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	41.5	34.5	(7.0)	(16.8)
Panama	123.5	143.6	20.0	16.2
Paraguay c/	3.9	11.2	7.4	188.9
Peru	5.2	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	8.2 d/	...	...	...
Uruguay	79.2	102.4	23.2	29.3
Venezuela	38.1 d/	...	...	...

Table IV.2 (concluded)

Social security f/	82.9	124.3		
Argentina	128.1	331.9	203.8	159.2
Bolivia	...	...	...	...
Brazil b/	119.2	128.8	9.6	8.1
Chile	123.6	137.2	13.6	11.0
Colombia	40.9	51.1	10.2	25.1
Costa Rica	104.5	126.0	21.5	20.6
Ecuador	22.3	39.0	16.7	75.3
El Salvador	13.1	20.3	7.2	54.8
Guatemala	6.4	5.9	(0.5)	(7.1)
Honduras	4.6	3.4	(1.2)	(26.5)
Mexico	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	...	...	...	...
Panama	117.2	177.3	60.1	51.3
Paraguay c/	10.8	23.0	12.1	112.3
Peru	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	3.3 d/	...	...	...
Uruguay	304.1	447.8	143.7	47.3
Venezuela	63.4 d/	...	...	...
Housing g/	13.7	17.2		
Argentina	45.0	49.4	4.3	9.6
Bolivia	0.3	0.2	(0.1)	(29.3)
Brazil b/	7.4	3.4	(4.1)	(54.8)
Chile	21.9	27.2	5.3	24.4
Colombia	6.8	2.2	(4.5)	(66.9)
Costa Rica	39.7	42.9	3.2	8.0
Ecuador	17.9	16.3	(1.7)	(9.3)
El Salvador	1.6	1.1	(0.5)	(31.2)
Guatemala	0.8	5.3	4.4	529.6
Honduras	1.4	1.6	0.2	11.7
Mexico	25.0	56.8	31.7	126.7
Nicaragua	0.1	0.8	0.7	996.5
Panama	15.2	31.7	16.6	109.5
Paraguay c/	...	...	...	...
Peru	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	13.5 d/	...	...	...
Uruguay	8.2	2.6	(5.6)	(68.8)
Venezuela	30.4 d/	...	...	...

Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database (ECLAC/World Bank project).

a/ Averages for 1990-1991 and 1994-1995 for all countries except Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Mexico and Panama, figures for which correspond to 1994 only.

b/ Central government expenditure only.

c/ Central government budget expenditure only.

d/ Includes 1990 only.

e/ Owing to lack of information, averages for the health sector do not include Bolivia or Mexico.

f/ Owing to lack of information, averages for the social security sector do not include Bolivia, Mexico or Nicaragua.

g/ Owing to lack of information, averages for the housing sector do not include Paraguay.

Table IV.3
LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON HUMAN CAPITAL

	In 1987 dollars per capita		As a percentage of GDP		As a percentage of total public expenditure	
	1990-1991 a/	1994-1995 b/	1990-1991 a/	1994-1995 b/	1990-1991 a/	1994-1995 b/
Argentina	247.4	322.6	7.7	8.4	26.2	30.3
Brazil	80.3	84.4	4.1	4.2	18.1	21.7
Chile	92.3	126.2	4.7	5.3	21.5	25.1
Colombia	46.5	94.8	3.9	6.7	15.1	31.0
Costa Rica	185.9	214.4	11.0	11.5	25.3	24.4
Ecuador	52.2	72.9	4.4	5.9	20.5	22.2
El Salvador	33.3	31.0	3.6	3.1	15.6	14.4
Guatemala	21.5	20.9	2.5	2.4	22.3	23.7
Honduras	64.0	63.6	6.9	6.9	29.4	26.6
Nicaragua	86.2	71.1	9.6	8.9	32.0	40.5
Panama	217.6	257.5	10.7	11.1	23.4	24.4
Paraguay	15.0	43.7	1.5	4.3	19.2	28.3
Peru	20.4	...	2.0	...	15.7	...
Dominican Republic	17.5	...	2.3	...	17.6	...
Uruguay	150.9	174.6	6.2	6.6	20.5	21.0
Venezuela	121.8	...	4.8	...	18.1	...

Source: ECLAC, social expenditure database (ECLAC/World Bank project).

a/ Figures for the Dominican Republic and Venezuela correspond to 1990 only.

b/ Figures for Bolivia, Chile, Costa Rica, El Salvador and Panama correspond to 1994 only.

THE STATUS OF CHILDREN: THEIR LEVELS OF WELL-BEING AND VULNERABILITY

Introduction

- A. Achievements in respect of children and social equity***
- B. Children, poverty and risk factors***

Introduction

Childhood and adolescence are decisive stages in life in which many of the opportunities for participation in society are defined; during these stages, individuals acquire basic skills that lead to their successful integration into the production structure and allow them to generate the income required to attain adequate levels of well-being.

The importance of the timely acquisition of these skills for an individual's development received legal recognition with the adoption of the Convention on the Rights of the Child by the United Nations in 1989; the Convention, which contains a number of commitments relating to the survival, protection and participation of children, constitutes the ethical, political and juridical framework binding society as a whole to ensure the fulfillment of the opportunities that determine the personal and social development of its members early on in their lives.

Notwithstanding the tremendous ethical and normative value of the Convention, these opportunities depend essentially on social factors that have either a direct or an indirect impact on children's development, such as their levels of nutrition and general health, the basic sanitary conditions of their dwellings, their educational opportunities and performance, the economic capacity of their households, the educational environment to which they are exposed and the type of family in which they grow up.

The Governments of the region demonstrated their willingness and commitment to safeguard most of the basic aspects of child development at the World Summit for Children, held in New York in 1990; at the Second Meeting on Children and Social Policy in the Americas in Colombia in 1994, at which time they signed the Nariño Accord establishing goals for children to be accomplished by 1995; and, more recently, at the Third Meeting on Children and Social Policy in the Americas in Chile in 1996, which set out goals for the year 2000 in the Santiago Accord.

Within the framework of the commitments made by the Latin American countries and the challenges they have taken up, the present chapter is devoted to examining a range of social factors that are key to the life opportunities and well-being of children and adolescents. The first part reviews the advances and setbacks experienced in areas such as educational performance and attainment, nutritional risk and access to adequate health conditions with regard to drinking water and sanitation. In addition, present trends are analysed in light of the goals set for the mid-1990s, and an assessment is made of the prospects for attaining those goals by the year 2000, based on the progress achieved in the first half of the 1990s; a number of hypotheses about these trends are also presented.

The second part deals with the issue of children and adolescents living in poor households, whose opportunities for development are seriously limited, both by the insufficiency of income inherent in such a situation and the accumulation of other critical shortfalls in terms of basic social conditions. With respect to a group of countries for which data were available, the percentage and number of children living in poverty were quantified, regardless of whether they faced other sorts of critical deficiencies. Additionally, a range of circumstances were studied that increase the vulnerability and limit the development of children and adolescents, including situations in which children have to work when they should be attending school; neither work nor attend school, or live in single-parent households.

In order to carry out this study, information from household surveys of the countries of the region was used; these data permit an analysis to be made of trends—in society as a whole and in different geographical contexts—regarding each social aspect under consideration. Accordingly, the first section looks at the differences between urban and rural areas and the inequalities existing among socio-economic strata; the second section analyses conditions of poverty, together with the impact on children of exposure to a variety of risk factors and types of vulnerability.

The purpose of analysing trends in the first half of the 1990s and their implications is to identify and quantify specific problems and challenges with respect to children, as well as to assess progress towards social equity in terms of the opportunities available to children in different socio-economic strata and geographical contexts; in so doing, the aim is to contribute to the formulation of effective social policies that will benefit children and their families.

A. ACHIEVEMENTS WITH RESPECT TO CHILDREN AND SOCIAL EQUITY

1. Determinants of child development

In the first half of the 1990s, only one third of the countries of the region managed to make progress in each of three areas that are crucial to child development: nutrition, basic sanitary conditions and educational performance. However, more than half of the countries recorded varying degrees of progress in some of these indicators.

Among the situations examined, the one in which most progress has been made is that of children at high nutritional risk, quantified as the percentage of children under five years of age who live in indigent households. Between 1990 and 1994, the percentage of indigent children in urban areas declined in 7 out of 12 countries (Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay). A decrease was also seen in rural areas in four of the seven countries for which information was available (Chile, Costa Rica, Honduras and Panama) (see table V.1).

In some countries, however, the combination of poverty and high fertility rates means that there are still large numbers of children of preschool age living in households whose level of income is not sufficient to cover nutritional requirements. In Honduras, 60% of all children fall into this category; the figure is about 35% in Bolivia, Brazil and Colombia and 25% in Mexico, Panama and Venezuela.

Less extensive progress was made with respect to the proportion of children in households equipped with drinking water and connected to an adequate sewage disposal system: only three of the eight countries studied showed an improvement in these two basic aspects of sanitation; moreover, several of the countries are characterized by significant shortcomings as regards both indicators. For example, in Brazil, Honduras and Paraguay, approximately 60% of the total population and 50% or more of the urban population lack adequate sanitary facilities. About 30% of Brazil's population and 20% of those of Honduras and Mexico lack access to drinking water; in Paraguay, around 30% of the urban population goes without an adequate drinking water supply (see tables V.6 and V.8).

Moreover, in Paraguay, significant numbers of people have migrated to urban areas, in particular the Asunción metropolitan area, and this phenomenon led to a relative worsening of conditions, since the proportion of the urban population with access to a sewerage system decreased, while the situation with respect to drinking water supply showed no change.

The greatest progress on the educational front was the drop in the number of children in the early years of schooling who had fallen behind in their studies. What this implies is that in the first half of the 1990s, various countries succeeded in reducing repetition rates in the first few grades of primary school.¹⁷

Progress was also achieved —though to a lesser degree— in terms of the proportion of children who complete their primary education, irrespective of the number of years they take to do so. This is hardly surprising, bearing in mind the high levels of educational coverage attained for quite some years now in a number of countries in the region. Nevertheless, several countries still face major challenges with respect to coverage and retention, since they still fall far short of the minimum acceptable levels required by current production and social conditions.¹⁸ Moreover, even though the completion of primary schooling may seem like a very low threshold, there are countries, such as Brazil and Honduras, where two or even three out of every five children fail to do so. Even in the countries with the best indicators in this regard, at least one out of every 10 children fails to cross this rudimentary threshold.

¹⁷ It should be noted that while in some countries these results reflect improvements in educational performance in the early grades, in others they may be due in part to a relaxation of criteria for promotion, which in these grades may even allow for automatic promotion.

¹⁸ It is important to bear in mind that primary education should be completed by all pupils. Furthermore, the *Social Panorama of Latin America. 1994 edition* demonstrated conclusively that, in order to have an 80% or better chance of not falling below the poverty line during one's working life, a person needs to complete their secondary education as well.

2. Progress made towards achieving the Goals for Children

At the Second Meeting on Children and Social Policy in the Americas, held in Colombia in 1994, the Governments of the region signed the Nariño Accord, which committed them to the achievement of specific goals for children by 1995. Subsequently, at the Third Meeting on Children and Social Policy in the Americas, in Santiago, Chile, in 1996, the countries signed the Santiago Accord, which revised and complemented those goals, setting the year 2000 as the deadline for their attainment. The following table summarizes some of these goals.

Goals for 1995 set forth in the Nariño Accord	Goals for the year 2000 set forth in the Santiago Accord
"To increase the percentage of children completing primary education to over 50% by 1995."	"Increase to more than 80% and 70% of 1990 levels, the percentage of boys and girls that complete fourth grade and primary education, respectively."
"To reduce repetition by 10% in grades 1 and 2..."	"Reduce repetition rates to half in the first two grades."
"... to promote action to reduce light, moderate and heavy protein energy malnutrition, by 20%, principally among children under 5..."	"To reduce by 50% severe and moderate malnutrition incidence rate among under-fives."
"To reduce the difference between the population with access to drinking water and the population without it by 25%, and to reduce the difference for those with and without basic sanitation by 17%."	"Reduce lack of drinking water and basic sanitation by 25% and 17%, respectively."
Source: <i>Nariño Accord</i> , signed by the ministers and representatives of Governments participating in the Second Meeting on Children and Social Policy in the Americas, Bogotá, Colombia, April 1994.	Source: <i>Santiago Accord</i> , signed by the ministers and representatives of Governments participating in the Third Ministerial Meeting on Children and Social Policy in the Americas, Santiago, Chile, August 1996.

The picture that emerges from an examination of the progress made towards the mid-decade Goals for Children adopted in the Nariño Accord contains both encouraging and discouraging elements. Whereas the goals relating to education were attained in the overwhelming majority of Latin American countries, those concerning malnutrition were achieved only in just over half of the countries, and efforts to ensure access to adequate drinking water and sanitation met with even less success.

With respect to educational performance, seven of the eight countries studied succeeded in ensuring that more than 50% of boys and girls completed their basic primary education (see table V.3). Similarly, almost all countries attained the goal of reducing repetition by at least 10% in grades 1 and 2 (see table V.5).

As regards child nutrition as measured by the percentage of children living in indigent households, five of the eight countries examined showed a decline of at least 20% in malnutrition, which was the general objective (see table V.1).

In relation to access to drinking water, only three of the nine countries for which information is available appear to have succeeded in reducing the proportion of the population without this service by at least 25%; meanwhile, only two out of six countries appear to have met the goal of providing access to a suitable sewage disposal system to at least 17% of the population which had previously gone without basic sanitation (see tables V.7 and V.9).

With respect to this subgroup, and in light of the new goals for the year 2000 that were revised and supplemented in 1996 in the Santiago Accord, it is plausible that at least two thirds of the countries will succeed in ensuring that over 70% of all children complete their primary education. However, very few countries appear to be in a position to halve the repetition rate in the first two grades, since this rate was reduced by only about 15% in the first half of the 1990s.

As regards drinking water and basic sanitation, if it is borne in mind that the goals established for 1995 were held over to the year 2000 and that progress in the first period was quite modest, it is to be expected that only between one half and two thirds of the countries will achieve the stated objectives before the turn of the century.

3. The social equity dimension

In their efforts to achieve the Goals for Children, the Governments of the region have displayed a growing interest in reducing the disparities among children from families of very different socio-economic strata; nevertheless, much remains to be done if this objective is to be attained, as an analysis of progress in this area reveals.

Social equity is one of the principles underlying the goals laid down in the plans of action referred to above, although it does not figure explicitly among the indicators selected for follow-up. The countries which come close to, attain or exceed these goals frequently make insufficient progress—or none at all—towards the equalization of opportunities for children and young people from different socio-economic strata. In many cases, the increase in overall averages is mainly due to progress in sectors of society whose situation would improve even if no goals had been set at all.

In light of this reality, which differs from one country to the next, it is vital that the issue of social equity be tackled explicitly, not only because of its ethical, social and economic implications, but also because, in many cases, the progress achieved by society as a whole has not translated into a decline in this type of inequality in spite of the efforts and resources that have been invested. Moreover, the commitment entered into by Heads of State at the World Summit for Children emphasizes the need to give priority attention to the most disadvantaged groups in society so that progress towards these goals on behalf of society as a whole will help to reduce inequality among social strata.¹⁹ Thus far, however, not enough information has been available to evaluate the progress made in each area by the different strata of the population.

A comparative analysis of two objectives, namely the attainment of the goals for 1995 and the reduction of disparities among urban socio-economic strata, shows that, with respect to the educational sphere, a considerable number of countries managed to do both. In contrast, a large number of the countries were not only unable to achieve the overall stated aims in the area of basic sanitation, but were also unable to reduce the lag affecting the poorest groups.

These considerations will serve as a starting point for an analysis of the countries' performance in promoting social equity as it relates to the above goals during the first half of the 1990s.

The goal of increasing the percentage of children completing primary education to over 50%, which was set for 1995, had already been exceeded by all the countries analysed, except Brazil, at the outset of the decade (see box V.1). Furthermore, at the urban level, the vast majority of the countries studied currently exhibit indicators that greatly surpass this overall goal, since the percentage of children who complete six or more years of study ranges from 75% to 90%, with the exception of Brazil.

¹⁹ Paragraph 20 (10) of the World Declaration on the Survival, Protection and Development of Children states that: "We will work for a global attack on poverty, which would have immediate benefits for children's welfare."

Box V.1

OVERVIEW OF PROGRESS BY SOME COUNTRIES TOWARDS
SELECTED GOALS FOR CHILDREN ^a

Overall performance and performance with respect to the poorest quartile	Increase the percentage of children completing primary education to over 50%	Reduce repetition by 10% in grades 1 and 2	Reduce the difference between the population with access to drinking water and the population without it by 25%	Reduce the difference between the population with and without basic sanitation by 17%
1. The goal is achieved both at the global level and with respect to the poorest quartile	Chile (*) Colombia (*) Costa Rica (*) Honduras Paraguay Uruguay (*) Venezuela	Brazil (*) Chile (*) Costa Rica (*) Honduras Uruguay (*)	Argentina (*) Chile (*)	
2. The goal is achieved at the global level, but not with respect to the poorest quartile			Honduras	Chile
3. The goal is not achieved at the global level, but is achieved with respect to the poorest quartile				
4. The goal is achieved neither at the global level nor with respect to the poorest quartile	Brazil	Colombia (*) Venezuela	Brazil (*) Colombia (*) Mexico Paraguay Uruguay Venezuela (*)	Brazil (*) Colombia Honduras Mexico Paraguay

^a Asterisks indicate that the gains made by the poorest quartile were proportionately greater than those made by the population as a whole, or that their losses were proportionately less, which in either case denotes a reduction in inequality.

An explicit examination of social equity, especially with regard to the gains made by children of different socio-economic strata, reveals that at least two out of every three children belonging to the poorest 25% of urban households complete their primary education;²⁰ this means that the 50% target was met even in countries where this group's situation worsened during the first five years of the 1990s, as was the case in Honduras (see table V.3).

Further, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica and Uruguay all showed signs of improved social equity in respect of repetition and drop-out rates in the first two years of primary school (see table V.5). Thus, the goals with respect to educational lag were met in urban areas in two out of every three countries which collect data on the subject in their surveys (Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Honduras and Uruguay). Even more importantly, these advances benefited both children as a group and those belonging to the poorest 25% of households. It is also interesting to note that in two thirds of these countries, the percentage of children who were behind in their studies declined at an even greater rate in the poorest stratum.

The situation with respect to access to drinking water and adequate sewage disposal systems presents an altogether different picture. As regards access to drinking water, six of the nine countries (Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela) did not manage to reduce the percentage of the urban population without this service by 25%; however, three of them (Brazil, Colombia and Venezuela) did see an improvement in the situation of the poorest quartile of households. Of the three countries that had achieved this goal by the mid-1990s (Argentina, Chile and Honduras), the first two managed to bring about a proportionately greater improvement in respect of the poorest 25% of their urban populations. In Honduras, the overall objective was attained, but it was the 50% of urban households in the second and third quartiles which recorded the most notable improvements (see table V.7).

Looking ahead to the year 2000, the countries that can be said to stand in need of making the greatest efforts to reach the stipulated goals are Brazil, Honduras and Paraguay, given the fact that between 15% and 30% of their urban populations currently lack adequate access to a drinking water supply and that the figure rises to 25% or even 50% for the poorest quartile of households.

In contrast, although a number of countries made headway in the area of basic sanitation, the vast majority did not achieve the goal for 1995 of reducing the percentage of households without access to adequate means of sewage disposal by 17%. Moreover, only two countries—Chile and Honduras—managed to increase the coverage of this service for the poorest 25% of households (see table V.9 and box V.1).

Box V.1 presents an overview of recent trends in respect of both social equity and overall goals in those countries for which information is available.

As a means of substantiating the continued existence of significant differences among socio-economic strata in Latin America, even though progress has indeed been made towards the stated goals, figures V.1-V.4 illustrate such disparities in selected countries.

²⁰ In order to analyse the differences among socio-economic strata, four groups of households are considered, each belonging to one of the quartiles of the distribution of per capita family income. Generally speaking, the first quartile comprises poor households; the second, a percentage of households living in poverty, the vulnerable and a portion of those in the lower strata; the third, households in the lower middle and middle strata; and the fourth, households in the upper middle and upper strata.

Figure V.1

COMPLETION OF PRIMARY SCHOOLING

Percentage of 15 year olds who have completed at least six years of schooling, regardless of whether or not they are currently attending school

COLOMBIA
(Urban areas)

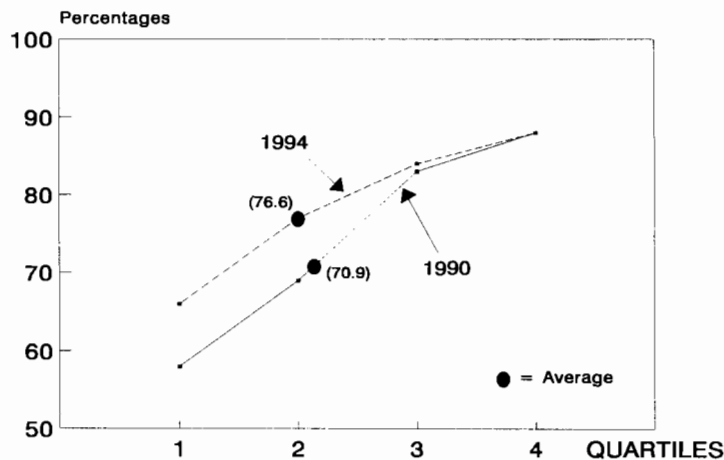
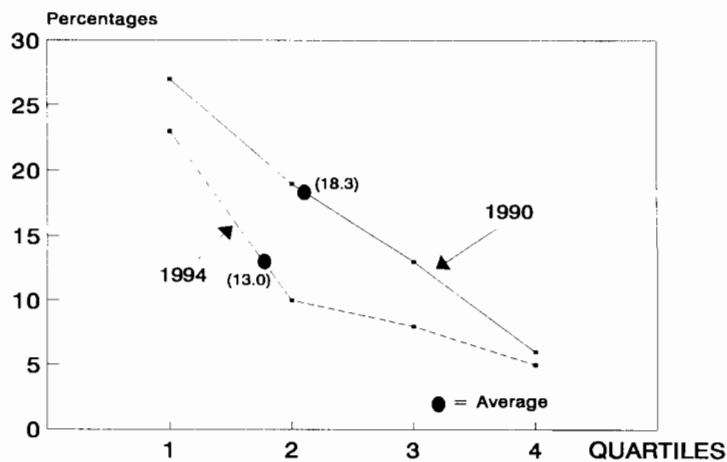


Figure V.2

REDUCTION OF REPETITION IN GRADES 1 AND 2

Percentage of 10 year olds who attend school and who have not yet completed at least two years of schooling

HONDURAS
(Urban areas)



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

Figure V.3

REDUCTION IN THE POPULATION LACKING ACCESS TO DRINKING WATER

Percentage of the population residing in dwellings to which drinking water is not supplied through either a public or private distribution network to an on-site connection inside or outside the dwelling

MEXICO
(Urban areas)

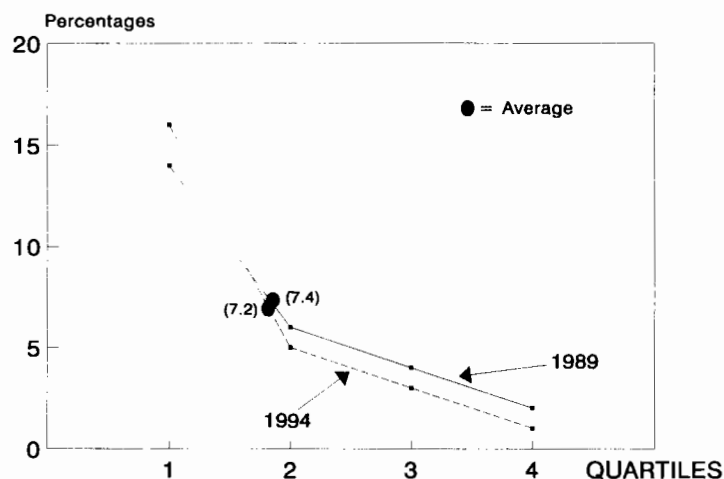
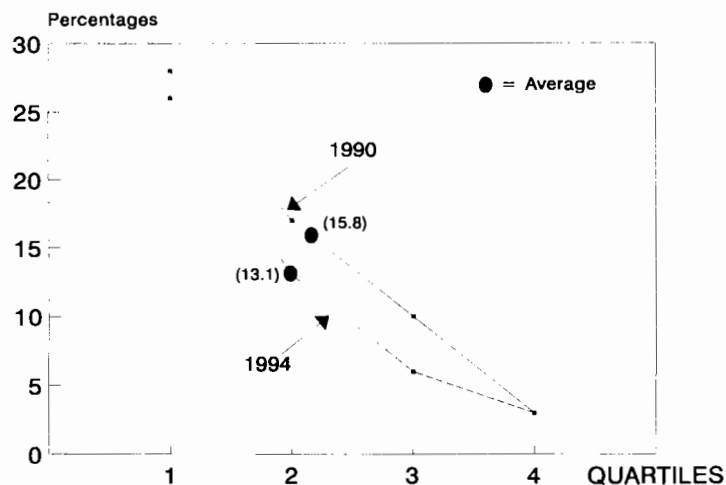


Figure V.4

REDUCTION IN THE POPULATION LACKING BASIC SANITATION

Percentage of the population residing in dwellings that lack a sewage disposal system

CHILE
(Urban areas)



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

From the analysis, it is clear that unless minimum goals for low-income strata are set and progress towards their achievement is monitored, or unless courses of action for reducing the gap between strata are stipulated, then there is a risk that the stated objectives may be met in a way that does not fulfil one of the principal aims underlying their formulation, i.e., to improve the situation of the most disadvantaged groups more rapidly.

As is indicated in box V.1, conditions in the countries are extremely varied; however, the fact that the poorest quartile has experienced a greater improvement or a lesser decline than the population as a whole in only half the countries that were examined confirms the need for the State to continue striving to ensure that policies primarily benefit the most vulnerable groups, in particular through initiatives which offset the disadvantages faced by the children and young people in such groups. It is interesting to note in this regard that in many countries of the region more than 35% of all children and young people are concentrated in the poorest quartile of households.

It must be emphasized that the objective of increasing social equity goes beyond the associated ethical considerations, since it also has a bearing on productivity, well-being and social integration, as is set forth in the ECLAC proposal for changing production patterns with social equity. Consequently, priority should be given to equity-enhancing social policies that will interact with economic policies synergistically, as occurs in the case of policies designed to correct disparities in respect of human capital.

Equally as striking as the inequalities which exist among socio-economic strata, if not more so, are the disparities to be observed between children in urban and rural areas. These differences highlight the need for a vast improvement in the situation of children living in rural areas, in order, *inter alia*, to equalize their opportunities for achieving an acceptable level of well-being and, in so doing, eliminate one of the most intractable obstacles to social integration (see box V.2 and tables V.1, V.2, V.4, V.6 and V.8).

In figure V.5 and in boxes V.6, V.7 and V.8, which appear at the end of this chapter, an overview is provided of the goals for 1995 and of the indicators, based on data obtained from household surveys, that are used to gauge the progress made towards these goals.

Box V.2**URBAN/RURAL DISPARITIES**

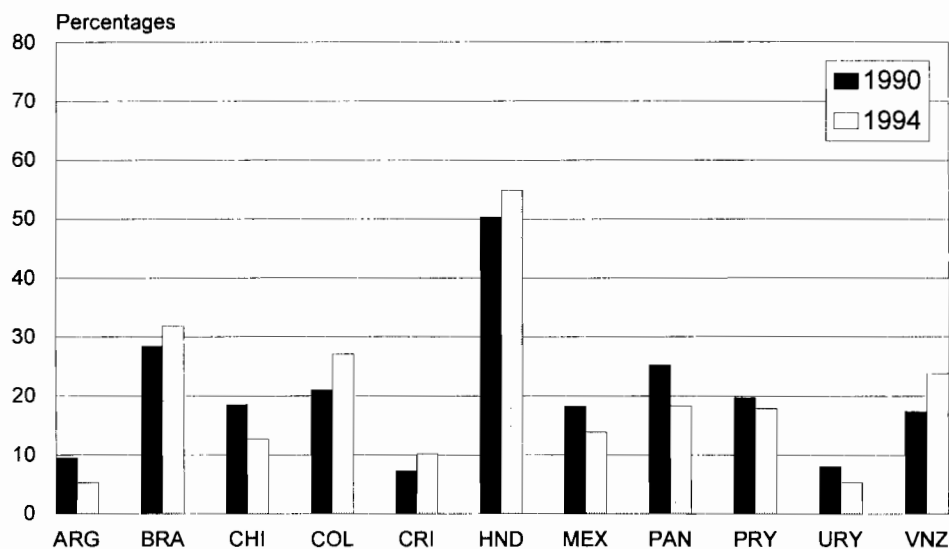
As of the mid-1990s, the children living in rural areas of Latin America still lag far behind their urban peers as regards their well-being and access to a better quality of life. This aspect of inequality shows up clearly in the analysis of the social dimensions dealt with in this chapter: educational opportunities, nutritional status and access to adequate sanitary conditions. In respect of the first two of these three factors, the proportion of children who complete primary education, do not fall behind in their studies in grades 1 and 2 and do not live in indigent households—which reduces their degree of nutritional risk—is in almost all cases 20% higher in urban areas than in rural areas. In terms of the trends in this respect, nutritional disparities were reduced in half of the countries during the first five years of the 1990s, although they are still quite striking in most cases (see figure V.5). On the other hand, urban/rural disparities with respect to the above-mentioned education indicators showed practically no reduction.

Inequalities in access to drinking water and sanitation are even more pronounced (see tables V.6 and V.8). In fact, the proportion of people who live in households with access to adequate sanitation systems is between 30% and 40% greater in urban areas than in rural areas; during the first half of the 1990s, these differences in coverage diminished somewhat in most of the countries, however.

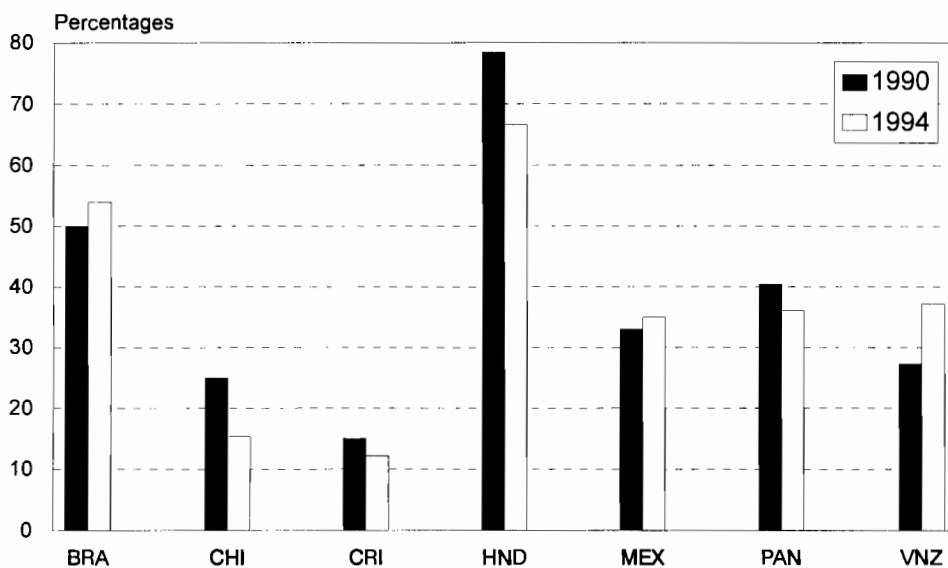
Figure V.5

CHILDREN UNDER 5 YEARS OF AGE WHO RESIDE IN INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS a/
(Percentages)

URBAN AREAS



RURAL AREAS



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

a/ Households whose per capita income is less than the value of shopping basket of staple foods.

B. CHILDREN, POVERTY AND RISK FACTORS

1. Children who live in households with insufficient incomes and other deficiencies

The first half of the 1990s was marked by a decline in both the percentage and number of poor children in the countries of the region with the lowest levels of poverty; in the countries with higher levels of poverty, however, the number of poor children measured in absolute and relative terms either showed no change or actually increased. The same trend was also seen in respect of children living in households suffering from critical deficiencies in infrastructure and basic services, as well as insufficient incomes.

During the first five years of this decade, the countries of Latin America that exhibit lower levels of overall poverty —Argentina, Chile and Uruguay— managed to reduce both the percentage and the number of poor children in the 0-5 and 6-14 age groups. In contrast, in the countries among those examined that have higher poverty indexes, the proportion of poor children either remained the same (Mexico and Paraguay) or even rose (Honduras and Venezuela) (see tables III.10 and III.11).

Hence, a large percentage of preschool and school-age children in the region still live in a home environment marked by cumulative deficiencies which jeopardize their development, their opportunities in life and their access to a minimum

level of well-being. These deficiencies are reflected in at least one of the following aspects: the children live in poor-quality dwellings with insufficient space, and are therefore subject to overcrowding; the dwellings are without access to drinking water and basic sanitation; and the children's prospects of acquiring a minimum level of educational capital are very limited (see figure V.6 and box V.5).

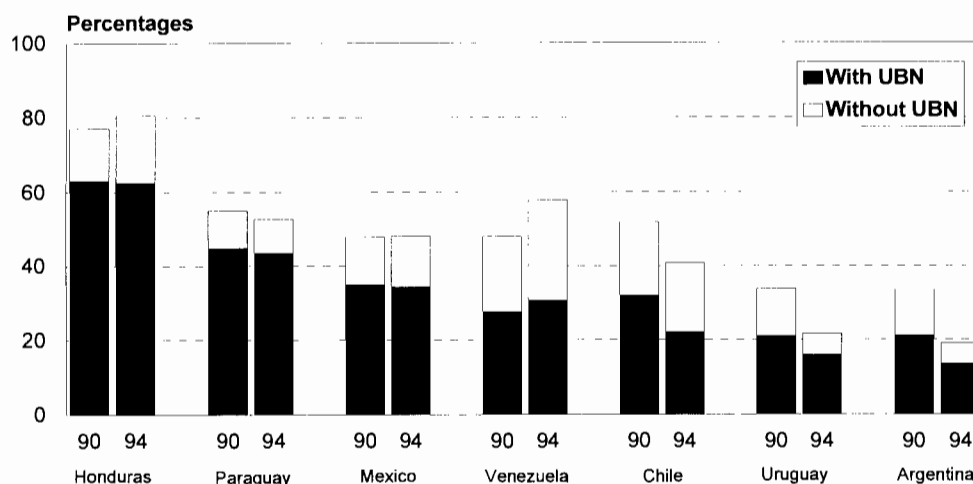
It is important to note that one in every five children still lives in a poor household, even in countries such as Argentina and Uruguay which have very low levels of poverty by the standards of the region; moreover, in these same countries, one in every six minors resides in a household that not only has an insufficient income but also faces critical situations in respect of the other aspects mentioned.

In Mexico, Paraguay and Venezuela, one out of every two children under the age of 5 lives in a poor household, and one in three lives in a household that is subject to extreme deficiencies. The figures for children between 6 and 14 years of age are very similar in each of the countries examined.

One situation which merits special attention is that of children who, in addition to residing in households suffering from multiple material deficits associated with poverty, live in households where either the mother or father is absent, a factor which has an even stronger negative impact on their future prospects (see table III.14 and box V.3).

Figure V.6
CHILDREN FROM 0 TO 5 YEARS OF AGE WHO ARE LIVING IN POVERTY
 (Urban areas), 1990 - 1994

(Percentages)

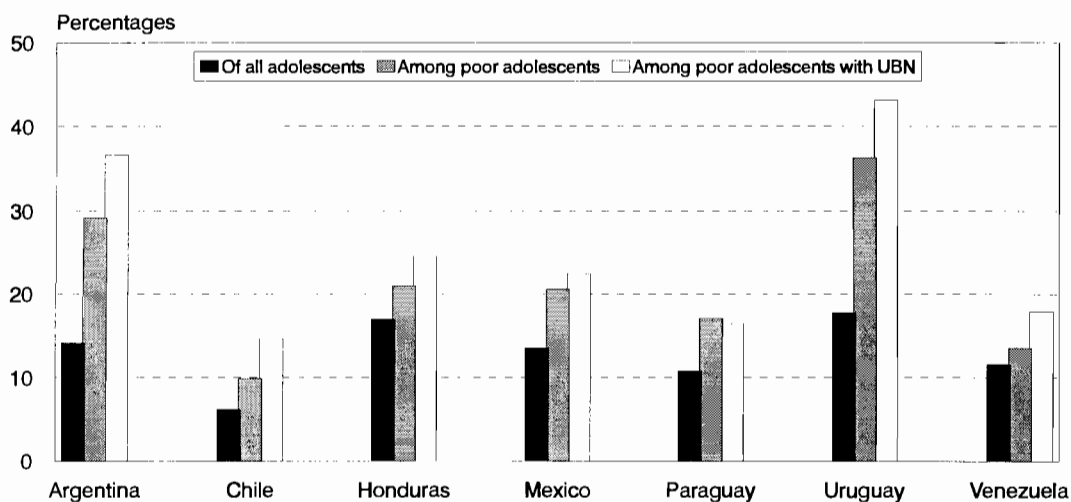


Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the countries.

UBN = Unmet Basic Needs

Figure V.7
ADOLESCENTS FROM 13 TO 17 YEARS OF AGE WHO NEITHER ATTEND SCHOOL NOR WORK
 (Urban areas), 1994

(Percentages)



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

Box V.3**THE VULNERABILITY OF CHILDREN IN SINGLE-PARENT HOUSEHOLDS**

The situation facing poor children who live in households where one of the parents is absent (almost always the father) is one of extreme vulnerability: not only is the problem of insufficient income magnified, but the socialization context is also incomplete, and this has strong negative implications for children's development, since they then generally receive less support from adults. In fact, this is so much the case that, in almost all of the countries for which information is available, nearly two out of every three children between the ages of 0 and 14 who live in poor, single-parent households also suffer from critical deficiencies in terms of their living conditions.

During the first half of the 1990s, a number of countries saw a reduction in both the proportion and absolute number of children and adolescents that are in this type of vulnerable position. Such decreases were registered in Argentina, Chile and Uruguay. In Mexico, Paraguay and Venezuela, however, the absolute number of children in this situation increased, as did the proportion in some cases, while in others it remained unchanged.

In most cases, no change was seen in the number of children in households free of the above-mentioned deficiencies in infrastructure and basic services, measured as a proportion of the total number of children, or in the percentage of children in single-parent households.

Economic growth has led to a decrease in poverty in several countries in the 1990s. Nonetheless, a substantial proportion of children still live in situations marked by a series of cumulative deficiencies in some very basic respects. This fact greatly reduces the chances of breaking the inter-generational cycle by which poverty is perpetuated, since it makes it even more difficult to eradicate hard-core poverty, which is an explicit social policy objective in various countries of the region.

2. Child labour as a risk factor

Child and adolescent labour shows no signs of decreasing in the countries of Latin America and continues to affect the lives of a substantial proportion of children who should be devoting their energies exclusively to their schooling. In the first half of the 1990s, this phenomenon showed no decline among the region's adolescents as a group and actually increased in some countries among children between the ages of 13 and 17 who live in poor households.

This section provides an assessment of trends in child labour in view of the importance of this phenomenon as a risk factor and its obvious adverse effects on the present and future well-being of children and adolescents. Studies show that children and adolescents between the ages of 13 and 17 who have to work: i) end up with two or more years of education less than those who enter the workforce at the age of 18 or later; ii) earn, in consequence about 20% less during their adult working life; and iii) contribute a level of income that enables between 10% and 20% of the households in which they live to escape indigence or poverty, although the impact of this contribution in terms of the total number of poor and indigent households is negligible, since

it translates into a reduction of only 0.5%-1.5% (see ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America, 1995 Edition* (LC/G.1886-P), 1995, chapter II).

A comparative study of the percentage of minors who work shows that this variable remained constant among extremely needy households. In contrast, the numbers of working children and adolescents who live in households unaffected by such deficiencies actually increased in most of the countries. In all cases, however, the percentage of children who work is vastly greater in households with extreme deficiencies. As of 1994, some 10% of children and adolescents in such households worked in Argentina, Chile and Venezuela, while in Honduras, Mexico and Paraguay, the corresponding figure ranged between 20% and 30%.

Since three out of every four adolescents who work do not attend school, this group's level of educational attainment is considerably lower; this reduces these adolescents' chances of achieving a state of well-being as adults and transforms them into agents for the transmission of poverty.

Furthermore, while in most countries approximately two thirds of all adolescents devote their time exclusively to their studies, as befits their age and the need to ensure their future, the remaining one third is generally divided equally between those who work and those who neither work nor study; the adolescents who fall into this last category are making the least use of their capabilities and constitute a high-risk social group (see table III.13 and box V.4).

Box V.4**YOUNG PEOPLE WHO NEITHER STUDY NOR WORK**

The fact that there is a very direct relationship between poverty and the proportion of children and adolescents who neither study nor work is a cause of great concern. In 1994, in most cases this percentage was somewhere between 20% and 30% of the minors living in poor households, and the figure was even higher among those who reside in households subject to critical deficiencies (see figure V.7). The persistence of these negative situations serves to reinforce inequality of opportunity in the present and unequal income distribution in the future.

Box V.5**HOUSEHOLDS WITH UNMET BASIC NEEDS:
Indicators**

For the purposes of this study, a household with unmet basic needs was defined on the basis of the following criteria: i) in the case of countries equipped with a "map of unmet basic needs" based on census data, an attempt was made to use information from household surveys to reproduce the definitions employed in those maps; ii) in cases where no such maps were available, the definitions used most frequently by countries that do have them were chosen in order to facilitate comparability as far as practicable.

Unmet basic needs were identified on the basis of the following factors: i) poor-quality housing (determined by type of dwelling and materials used for walls, roofs and floors); ii) degree of overcrowding (based on the number of people per room, excluding bathrooms and kitchen); iii) lack of access to drinking water and to a suitable sewage disposal system (distinguishing between urban and rural settings); iv) presence in the household of minors of school age who do not attend school; and v) insufficient subsistence capacity (due to the low level of education of the head of household as the primary breadwinner in households with a high dependency ratio).

The thresholds set in respect of all these factors were very low, and they therefore denote very critical levels of deprivation. On this basis, a household is defined as having unmet basic needs if at least one of the above needs goes unmet.

Box V.6
EDUCATION GOALS ADOPTED IN THE NARIÑO ACCORD
AND INDICATORS TO BE USED

GOAL: "To increase the percentage of children completing primary education to over 50% by 1995"

INDICATOR: Percentage of children aged 14 or 15 (depending on whether the age of school entry in the country in question is 6 or 7) who have completed at least six years of schooling, regardless of whether or not they are attending school.

Although in some countries of the region the primary cycle comprises 7, 8 or even 9 years of schooling, it was decided to calculate the percentage of children having completed at least 6 years of schooling because this is the length of the primary cycle in most of the countries. In addition, the decision to set the limit for completion of primary education at age 14 or 15 is based on the assumption that in most cases this cycle is completed no more than two years after the usual age. This definition also includes minors who complete their primary education on time, i.e., without any lag as measured from the official age of school entry.

GOAL: "To reduce repetition by 10% in grades 1 and 2..."

INDICATOR: Percentage of children aged 9 or 10 (depending on whether the age of school entry in the country in question is 6 or 7) who attend school and who at that age have not yet completed at least two years of schooling.

This is a proxy for repetition, since it gauges one of its consequences (i.e., educational lag). The reason for the use of this indicator is that, unlike administrative records, the multi-purpose household surveys needed to monitor the progress made towards social equity in relation to the stated goals do not collect data on repetition. The chosen indicator measures children's performance in the first two years of the primary cycle, allowing for a lag of no more than one year with respect to the official age of school entry. This approach is appropriate for monitoring progress towards an efficiency-based goal as opposed to the preceding target, which refers to a stock variable.

The indicator was defined for the subgroup of children who are currently attending school rather than with respect to all children, since a child's failure to have completed two years of schooling by the indicated age may also be due to the fact that he or she has never attended school in the first place. If this eventuality is not taken into consideration, the performance indicator will be contaminated by a measure of coverage or access to basic education and will have the added disadvantage of exaggerating inter-strata disparities due to the more limited coverage of primary education in lower-income strata.

Box V.7**A CHILD NUTRITION GOAL ADOPTED IN THE NARIÑO ACCORD
AND THE INDICATOR TO BE USED**

- GOAL:** "... to reduce light, moderate and severe protein energy malnutrition by 20%, principally among children under 5..."
- INDICATOR:** Percentage of children under 5 years of age who live in indigent households, defined as those households whose per capita income is less than the value of the shopping basket of staple foods.

In order to calculate direct indicators of child malnutrition, it would be necessary to obtain information on children's weight and height. As already observed in connection with the subject of academic repetition, the need to rely on multi-purpose household surveys in order to examine the social equity issue as it relates to this goal made it necessary to choose this indirect indicator.

Children who belong to households that lack the resources required to cover the cost of the shopping basket of staple foods (i.e., indigent households) run a high risk of some degree of malnutrition, since a family budget that is insufficient to meet basic nutritional needs is even less so if part of the budget must go towards satisfying other basic needs. Therefore, the risk of malnutrition, whether light, moderate or severe in magnitude, is very high in such households, which means that, even though it is a measurement of probability rather than of certainty, this estimate of the phenomenon to be measured is likely to be highly reliable.

Another reason why it is highly likely that children in indigent households will be malnourished is that, in addition to the insufficient supply of food associated with low educational levels, it is precisely these same households which most often suffer from a lack of drinking water and sanitation. It is an established fact that an insufficient water supply or level of water quality is usually associated with the presence of vectors for the transmission of contagious diseases which produce diarrhea, one of the main causes of child malnutrition.

Box V.8

DRINKING WATER AND BASIC SANITATION GOALS ADOPTED IN THE NARIÑO ACCORD AND INDICATORS TO BE USED

GOAL: "To reduce the difference between the population with access to drinking water and the population without it by 25%..."

INDICATOR: In **urban areas**, the percentage of the population residing in dwellings to which drinking water is supplied through either a public or a private distribution network; the connection may be inside or outside the dwelling, but must be on-site. In **rural areas**, the percentage of the population residing in dwellings to which drinking water is supplied through either a public or a private distribution network, or from a well of suitable depth and quality; the water must be piped to a connection either inside or outside the building, it must be on-site.

Generally speaking, the formulation of an indicator to measure access to an unpolluted water supply in urban areas is not a particularly difficult task, since the coverage of public or private distribution networks can be used as a guide. Therefore, the segment of the population which obtains its water supply from that source (inside or outside the dwelling, but on the site) is deemed to have achieved the goal.

In contrast, a number of problems arise when attempts are made to formulate an appropriate indicator for rural areas and smaller urban centres, since in such areas access to a water distribution network is not a viable option for a large section of the population, but a significant percentage of households nonetheless have access to water of an acceptable quality. Despite the fact that available sources of information do not tell us, for example, if water obtained from wells or waterwheels meets minimum drinking-water standards, it can be assumed to be of suitable quality; this makes it possible to obtain a reasonable approximation, although it will slightly underestimate the population without access to such a water supply.

GOAL: "... to reduce the difference for those with and without basic sanitation by 17%..."

INDICATOR: In **urban areas**, the percentage of the population residing in dwellings connected to a sewerage network.

In **rural areas**, the percentage of the population residing in dwellings connected to a sewerage network or to a septic tank.

As in the case of water supply, it is not overly difficult to formulate an indicator of access to a suitable sewage disposal system in urban areas, since this condition is met when the dwelling is connected to a sewerage network.

It is more difficult to define an appropriate indicator for the rural population because in rural areas a connection to a sewerage network is simply not feasible in most cases; this makes it necessary to consider as suitable a connection to a septic tank, as opposed to a cesspit or cesspool.

Table V.1

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN UNDER 5 YEARS OF AGE
WHO RESIDE IN INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS a/
(Percentages)

Country		Total	Urban	Rural
Argentina b/	1990	...	9.5	...
	1994	...	5.3	...
Bolivia	1989	...	27.0	...
	1994	...	22.1	...
Brazil	1990	35.0	28.4	50.0
	1993	37.6	31.9	54.0
Chile	1990	19.8	18.5	25.1
	1994	13.2	12.7	15.4
Colombia c/	1990	...	21.0	...
	1994	36.7	27.1	47.9
Costa Rica	1990	12.0	7.3	15.0
	1994	11.5	10.2	12.2
Honduras	1990	68.2	50.4	78.4
	1994	62.0	54.9	66.6
Mexico	1989	24.8	18.3	33.0
	1994	24.0	13.9	35.0
Panama	1989	30.0	25.2	40.4
	1994	24.0	18.3	36.1
Paraguay d/	1990	...	19.7	...
	1994	...	17.9	...
Uruguay	1990	...	8.1	...
	1994	...	5.3	...
Venezuela	1990	19.3	17.4	27.3
	1994	26.9	23.8	37.2

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

a/ Households whose per capita income is less than the value of the shopping basket of staple foods.

b/ Data refer to Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the entire urban population. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

d/ Data refer to Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

... = No information.

Table V.2

LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 14 OR 15 a/ WHO HAVE COMPLETED
AT LEAST SIX YEARS OF SCHOOLING, REGARDLESS OF WHETHER OR NOT
THEY ARE CURRENTLY ATTENDING SCHOOL
(Percentages)

Country		Total	Urban	Rural
Brazil	1990	35.6	44.1	15.0
	1993	39.5	46.1	17.6
Chile	1990	88.2	90.7	78.7
	1994	88.5	90.8	77.1
Costa Rica	1990	77.6	88.3	70.5
	1994	79.5	89.2	71.9
Honduras	1990	54.3	73.2	40.1
	1994	63.3	75.6	52.1
Venezuela	1990	77.8	83.1	51.9
	1994	81.2	86.1	57.5

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

a/ Depending on whether the official age of entry into primary school in the country in question is 6 or 7.

Table V.3

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 14 OR 15 a/ WHO HAVE COMPLETED
AT LEAST SIX YEARS OF SCHOOLING, REGARDLESS OF WHETHER OR NOT
THEY ARE CURRENTLY ATTENDING SCHOOL
URBAN AREAS
(Percentages)

Country		Total	Income quartile			
			1	2	3	4
Brazil	1990	44.1	22.4	39.9	60.2	76.8
	1993	46.1	26.3	44.5	62.0	77.3
Chile	1990	90.7	84.2	90.5	95.2	96.9
	1994	90.8	86.4	92.5	95.3	96.0
Colombia b/	1990	70.9	58.1	69.0	82.9	88.5
	1994	76.6	66.4	76.8	84.4	88.0
Costa Rica	1990	88.3	75.4	91.8	91.2	97.4
	1994	89.2	80.3	94.7	91.6	98.0
Honduras	1990	73.2	69.1	69.8	78.5	87.1
	1994	75.6	62.5	71.2	81.0	91.1
Paraguay c/	1990	84.8	82.0	90.9	90.3	93.6
	1994	85.2	80.8	89.4	89.8	90.7
Uruguay	1990	89.1	82.2	93.6	94.5	95.0
	1994	90.0	87.0	93.0	94.9	95.1
Venezuela	1990	83.1	77.3	83.4	86.4	90.7
	1994	86.1	79.2	87.7	91.8	91.6

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

a/ Depending on whether the official age of entry into primary school in the country in question is 6 or 7.

b/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the entire urban population. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Data refer to Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.4

LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 9 OR 10 ^{a/} WHO
ATTEND SCHOOL AND WHO HAVE FAILED TO COMPLETE AT LEAST
TWO YEARS OF SCHOOLING

Country		Total	Urban	Rural
Brazil	1990	40.5	32.9	60.6
	1993	36.4	29.6	60.5
Chile	1990	14.1	12.3	20.9
	1994	12.1	10.3	19.8
Costa Rica	1990	25.4	20.2	29.2
	1994	21.3	13.5	26.6
Honduras	1990	32.8	18.3	42.3
	1994	20.9	13.0	26.0
Venezuela	1990	10.6	8.1	22.6
	1994	15.0	12.2	28.1

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

^{a/} Depending on whether the official age of entry into primary school in the country in question is 6 or 7.

Table V.5

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 9 OR 10 a/ WHO ATTEND SCHOOL
AND WHO HAVE FAILED TO COMPLETE AT LEAST TWO YEARS OF SCHOOLING
(URBAN AREAS)
(Percentages)

Country		Total	Income quartile			
			1	2	3	4
Brazil	1990	32.9	53.8	31.2	17.1	8.2
	1993	29.6	46.9	25.5	14.1	5.3
Chile	1990	12.3	17.8	9.2	7.7	7.7
	1994	10.3	13.3	9.1	6.8	7.8
Colombia b/	1990	16.7	26.5	15.5	8.4	8.0
	1994	16.1	24.7	12.8	8.7	8.4
Costa Rica	1990	20.2	34.7	24.3	12.7	3.1
	1994	13.5	20.5	13.3	10.8	3.0
Honduras	1990	18.3	27.3	19.1	13.3	6.0
	1994	13.0	22.8	10.3	8.2	5.5
Uruguay	1990	9.7	15.9	6.7	4.2	1.4
	1994	8.3	12.4	6.5	4.2	1.0
Venezuela	1990	8.1	12.5	6.6	4.5	3.4
	1994	12.2	17.0	11.6	9.7	2.0

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

a/ Depending on whether the official age of entry into primary school in the country in question is 6 or 7.

b/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the entire urban population. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

Table V.6

LATIN AMERICA (6 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF THE POPULATION RESIDING
IN DWELLINGS THAT LACK A DRINKING WATER SUPPLY

Country		Total	Urban	Rural
Brazil	1990	31.1	18.7	65.6
	1993	27.5	17.1	64.9
Chile	1990	12.8	2.7	55.3
	1994	9.3	1.5	49.2
Colombia a/	1990	...	1.7	...
	1994	5.3	1.7	10.4
Honduras	1990	36.0	19.3	47.7
	1994	20.0	14.7	23.9
Mexico	1989	16.7	7.4	31.7
	1994	19.1	7.2	35.4
Venezuela	1990	8.8	3.5	33.9
	1994	9.3	3.1	35.1

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

a/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the entire urban population. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

... = No information.

Table V.7

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF THE POPULATION RESIDING IN DWELLINGS THAT LACK A DRINKING WATER SUPPLY (URBAN AREAS)

Country		Total	Income quartile			
			1	2	3	4
Argentina a/	1990	3.8	7.3	4.1	1.4	0.6
	1994	2.4	5.2	2.1	1.6	0.3
Brazil	1990	18.7	40.0	17.3	7.7	3.1
	1993	17.1	33.1	15.5	8.6	4.0
Chile	1990	2.7	6.0	2.5	1.2	0.1
	1994	1.5	3.4	1.3	0.5	0.2
Colombia b/	1990	1.7	4.1	1.5	0.5	0.1
	1994	1.7	3.3	1.7	0.8	0.6
Honduras	1990	19.3	24.8	23.9	18.9	6.7
	1994	14.7	23.4	18.8	9.9	3.4
Mexico	1989	7.4	14.4	6.6	3.5	1.6
	1994	7.2	16.0	4.9	2.5	1.0
Paraguay c/	1990	33.3	52.9	35.2	27.6	9.0
	1994	34.0	51.5	39.5	27.0	10.5
Uruguay	1990	6.0	13.6	3.3	1.9	1.2
	1994	7.6	17.3	4.6	2.0	0.6
Venezuela	1990	3.5	5.8	3.4	2.3	0.8
	1994	3.1	4.9	2.7	2.2	1.2

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

a/ Data refer to Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the entire urban population. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Data refer to Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.8

LATIN AMERICA (5 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF THE POPULATION RESIDING
IN DWELLINGS THAT LACK BASIC SANITATION

Country		Total	Urban	Rural
Brazil	1990	60.0	49.9	88.0
	1993	62.2	54.7	89.3
Chile	1990	28.5	15.8	82.2
	1994	23.4	13.1	75.9
Colombia a/	1990	...	6.6	...
	1994	19.7	6.5	38.4
Honduras	1990	74.9	52.0	91.0
	1994	61.1	45.5	72.8
Mexico	1989	40.4	22.4	69.5
	1994	37.0	20.3	60.1

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

a/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the entire urban population. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

... = No information.

Table V.9

LATIN AMERICA (6 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF THE POPULATION RESIDING IN DWELLINGS THAT LACK BASIC SANITATION (URBAN AREAS)

Country		Total	Income quartile			
			1	2	3	4
Brazil	1990	49.9	72.6	54.3	39.0	25.0
	1993	54.7	73.9	56.8	44.9	33.0
Chile	1990	15.8	28.4	17.0	9.7	3.4
	1994	13.1	26.0	12.9	6.1	3.1
Colombia a/	1990	6.6	14.6	6.7	2.5	0.3
	1994	6.5	14.4	6.1	2.9	0.8
Honduras	1990	52.0	73.0	61.8	47.1	17.4
	1994	45.5	70.8	52.4	33.7	16.1
Mexico	1989	22.4	35.4	21.8	16.0	9.7
	1994	20.3	35.9	18.0	12.4	6.8
Paraguay b/	1990	63.7	85.6	71.4	54.9	32.3
	1994	72.8	91.7	81.1	67.9	41.4

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

a/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to include virtually the entire urban population. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

b/ Data refer to Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.10

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN FROM 0 TO 5 YEARS OF AGE WHO RESIDE IN POOR HOUSEHOLDS
(URBAN AREAS)

Country	Year	Incidence (%)			All children aged 0 to 5 (in thousands)		
		All children aged 0 to 5			In the population	Poor children aged 0 to 5	
		Poor	With UBN a/	Without UBN		Poor	Without UBN
Argentina b/	1990	33.5	21.2	12.3	1250.4	418.3	153.3
	1994	19.1	13.6	5.5	1055.0	201.0	57.9
Chile	1990	51.8	32.0	19.8	1273.5	660.4	252.4
	1994	40.8	22.1	18.7	1326.6	540.5	247.6
Honduras	1990	77.2	63.2	14.0	338.8	261.6	47.4
	1994	80.7	62.6	18.1	370.3	299.1	67.2
Mexico	1990	47.8	35.1	12.7	6317.1	3022.9	804.2
	1994	48.0	34.4	13.6	6449.6	3096.9	875.5
Paraguay c/	1990	55.0	44.8	10.2	148.4	81.6	15.2
	1994	52.6	43.6	9.0	209.3	110.2	18.9
Uruguay	1990	33.9	21.1	12.8	243.4	82.7	31.3
	1994	21.7	16.0	5.7	239.5	52.0	13.6
Venezuela	1990	47.9	27.7	20.2	2588.0	1239.9	522.8
	1994	57.8	30.8	27.0	2531.1	1464.0	684.4

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

a/ Unmet basic needs (UBN).

b/ Data refer to Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Data refer to Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.11

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN FROM 6 TO 14 YEARS OF AGE WHO RESIDE IN POOR HOUSEHOLDS (URBAN AREAS)

Country	Year	Incidence (%)			All children aged 6 to 14 (in thousands)			
		All children aged 6 to 14			In the population	Poor children aged 6 to 14		
		Poor	With UBN a/	Without UBN		Poor	With UBN	Without UBN
Argentina b/	1990	31.3	17.6	13.7	1908.3	597.2	335.2	262.0
	1994	21.3	13.7	7.6	1844.4	392.4	252.0	140.4
Chile	1990	51.0	31.2	19.8	1686.4	859.4	525.3	334.1
	1994	38.7	20.5	18.2	1831.3	709.4	376.1	333.3
Honduras	1990	79.0	66.4	12.6	474.4	374.7	314.9	59.8
	1994	81.1	64.4	16.7	540.9	439.0	348.6	90.4
Mexico	1990	52.8	39.1	13.7	10422.5	5502.7	4073.5	1429.2
	1994	45.6	32.5	13.1	10484.1	4779.1	3404.7	1374.4
Paraguay c/	1990	50.4	37.3	13.1	230.4	116.2	85.9	30.3
	1994	54.5	42.9	11.6	284.6	155.3	122.2	33.1
Uruguay	1990	21.2	13.5	7.7	185.6	39.4	25.1	14.3
	1994	15.3	11.0	4.3	181.7	27.7	19.9	7.8
Venezuela	1990	49.3	26.4	22.9	3467.3	1709.6	915.7	793.9
	1994	58.9	27.1	31.8	3707.8	2185.4	1005.5	1179.9

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

a/ Unmet basic needs (UBN).

b/ Data refer to Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Data refer to Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

Table V.12

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): ADOLESCENTS FROM 13 TO 17 YEARS OF AGE WHO WORK
(URBAN AREAS)

Country	Year	Incidence (%)				All adolescents (in thousands)				
		Among all adolescents	Among poor adolescents			In the population	Who work	Who are both poor and who work		
			Poor	With UBN a/	Without UBN			Poor	With UBN	Without UBN
Argentina b/	1990	12.9	9.5	12.1	7.2	952.9	123.3	22.6	13.4	9.2
	1994	9.6	6.6	10.4	1.9	1037.9	99.6	11.6	10.1	1.5
Chile	1990	4.7	4.5	6.6	2.1	975.1	45.7	20.4	16.1	4.3
	1994	4.9	4.7	6.9	3.0	989.4	48.2	16.0	10.3	5.7
Honduras	1990	21.6	21.9	24.0	14.0	232.6	50.2	36.4	31.4	5.0
	1994	22.6	23.7	26.3	17.1	300.6	68.1	53.4	42.7	10.7
Mexico	1989	15.4	16.9	19.8	9.6	6128.2	941.6	491.0	412.9	78.1
	1994	15.4	18.5	21.1	12.4	5834.3	896.4	456.4	363.7	92.7
Paraguay c/	1990	24.1	22.9	25.6	16.3	120.7	29.1	13.3	10.6	2.7
	1994	28.2	25.8	27.7	20.4	145.1	40.9	17.2	13.7	3.5
Uruguay d/	1990	16.2	18.5	22.2	14.6	200.7	32.6	9.6	5.9	3.7
	1994	19.5	18.1	18.9	16.7	194.4	37.9	4.9	3.3	1.6
Venezuela	1990	9.9	7.2	10.1	4.5	1857.2	183.1	59.1	39.8	19.3
	1994	10.7	8.7	12.9	5.6	1976.4	211.4	92.9	58.7	34.2

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

a/ Unmet basic needs (UBN).

b/ Data refer to Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Data refer to Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

d/ Estimates refer to adolescents aged 14 to 17.

Table V.13
LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): ADOLESCENTS 13-17 YEARS OF AGE WHO NEITHER ATTEND SCHOOL NOR WORK
(URBAN AREAS)

Country	Year	Incidence (%)			In the population	All adolescents (in thousands)			
		Among all adolescents	Among poor adolescents			Who neither attend school nor work	Who are poor and who neither attend school nor work		Without UBN
			Poor	With UBN a/			Without UBN	Poor	
Argentina b/	1990	12.7	20.4	25.0	16.3	952.9	48.4	27.6	20.8
	1994	14.2	29.2	36.6	20.1	1037.9	51.8	35.7	16.1
Chile	1990	8.6	12.4	17.1	7.0	975.1	56.2	41.6	14.6
	1994	6.2	9.9	14.7	6.1	989.4	33.6	22.1	11.5
Honduras	1990	18.5	22.1	24.8	12.0	232.6	36.7	32.4	4.3
	1994	17.0	21.0	24.6	11.7	300.6	47.2	39.9	7.3
Mexico	1990	13.8	19.1	21.1	13.9	6128.2	553.3	440.4	112.9
	1994	13.6	20.6	22.5	16.1	5834.3	509.2	388.9	120.3
Paraguay c/	1990	29.1	33.1	30.3	40.1	120.7	19.3	12.6	6.7
	1994	10.8	17.1	16.5	19.2	145.1	11.5	8.2	3.3
Uruguay d/	1990	14.1	25.6	33.9	16.8	200.7	13.2	9.0	4.2
	1994	17.8	36.3	43.1	23.6	194.4	9.7	7.5	2.2
Venezuela	1990	15.5	17.8	23.1	13.0	1857.2	146.5	90.7	55.8
	1994	11.6	13.6	17.9	10.4	1976.4	144.3	81.2	63.1

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

a/ Unmet basic needs (UBN).

b/ Data refer to Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Data refer to Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

d/ Estimates refer to adolescents aged 14 to 17.

Table V.14

LATIN AMERICA (7 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN FROM 0 TO 14 YEARS OF AGE WHO RESIDE IN SINGLE-PARENT HOUSEHOLDS (URBAN AREAS)

Country	Year	Among all children aged 0 to 14 (%)				Children aged 0 to 14 (in thousands)			
		In single-parent households	In poor single-parent households			In single-parent households	In poor single-parent households		
			Poor	With UBN a/	Without UBN		Poor	With UBN	Without UBN
Argentina b/	1990	9.5	3.4	2.0	1.3	301.6	106.1	63.7	42.4
	1994	11.8	2.7	1.4	1.3	341.5	78.9	42.0	36.9
Chile	1990	16.4	9.5	4.4	5.0	484.8	280.7	131.4	149.3
	1994	17.0	7.7	3.1	4.6	537.2	244.4	98.8	145.6
Honduras	1990	25.9	22.2	18.5	3.7	210.3	180.7	150.3	30.4
	1994	24.0	20.5	15.5	5.0	218.3	187.2	141.4	45.8
Mexico	1989	12.1	6.3	4.6	1.7	2029.4	1050.6	764.1	286.5
	1994	13.2	6.7	4.8	1.9	2235.3	1132.7	806.6	326.1
Paraguay c/	1990	14.8	8.2	6.3	2.0	55.9	31.2	23.7	7.5
	1994	15.9	9.6	7.7	1.8	78.3	47.2	38.2	9.0
Uruguay	1990	15.8	6.3	3.8	2.5	105.8	42.5	25.5	17.0
	1994	15.5	4.5	3.3	1.3	100.0	29.2	21.1	8.1
Venezuela	1990	21.4	13.2	7.4	5.8	1298.4	798.2	448.4	349.8
	1994	22.6	15.5	7.8	7.7	1413.1	966.6	483.6	483.0

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

a/ Unmet basic needs (UBN).

b/ Data refer to Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Data refer to Asunción and urban areas of the Central Department.

SOCIAL AGENDA

Introduction

- A. The labour situation and job creation programmes***
- B. Anti-poverty programmes***
- C. Social issues exercising public opinion in the region***
- D. The international social agenda***

Introduction

The bolstering of democracy, regional integration and economic growth, the strengthening of financial systems and the reduction of poverty in Latin America were the main issues of concern to Governments of the region during the past year. The attention given to growth reflected the fact that the region's gross domestic product rose by just 0.4% in 1995 and that the 3.4% growth recorded in 1996 went only half way towards meeting the target proposed by ECLAC in order to counteract the increase in poverty. In addition, the focus of public opinion was on poverty, low wages, unemployment, violence and corruption in all its forms.

One of the recurrent issues on the political and economic agenda of Latin America has been regional integration within the framework of Mercosur, the Andean Pact, the North American Free Trade Agreement and the proposed creation of the Free Trade Area of the Americas by the year 2005. Some of the less traditional objectives of these agreements include the alignment of social security systems as a means of ensuring true competitiveness (labour costs), and the evaluation of their social consequences and possible political costs.

The situation is one of complex transition, in which attempts at State modernization and economic adjustment generate a climate of uncertainty, and this affects governability in a variety of ways, depending on the rate and intensity of the process in each particular country. The present chapter focuses on poverty, employment and social integration, these being the issues addressed at the World Summit for Social Development, held in Copenhagen in 1995.

The crisis of the 1980s prompted Governments to formulate and implement a series of programmes, related, among other things, to the establishment of social investment funds and job creation. The first and second sections will be devoted to analysing these topics, while the third will focus on the public's perception of problems; the section on the international agenda provides a summary of the agreements signed at the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II) and the Hemispheric Conference on the Eradication of Poverty and Discrimination, both of which took place in 1996.

A. THE LABOUR SITUATION AND JOB CREATION PROGRAMMES

In recent years the labour situation in the region has undergone a series of changes. In several countries, labour regulations have been amended in an effort to make the labour market more flexible, with a view to enhancing national competitiveness and reducing unemployment. In addition, programmes have been devised to create jobs by building public works and to provide training and skills-upgrading for the unemployed.

Essentially, the way to combat poverty is by generating productive jobs of a suitable nature. The countries of Latin America have traditionally found it difficult to absorb productively the ever-growing numbers of people entering the labour market, and in some cases this situation has been made worse by structural adjustment. In a bid to tackle unemployment, underemployment and the decline in the quality of jobs, Governments have undertaken legislative reforms and specific programmes, which are examined below on the basis of an ECLAC survey sent to the pertinent national institutions (see annex for sources of information).

1. The labour situation

a) Legislative changes

In the past five years, all the countries in the region, with the exception of Mexico, have introduced changes in their existing labour legislation, with the aim of making the labour market more flexible, improving labour conditions for workers in general and protecting workers in specific categories or sectors (see table VI.1). A number of countries, have attempted to reduce labour costs and ease rules on unemployment benefits (Colombia has introduced "double retroactivity"), adopted regulations making it easier to hire and fire workers, and revamped the rules governing collective bargaining (Argentina, Chile, Colombia and Peru). Some countries have increased the protection provided to certain groups of workers and have overhauled their social security systems (Colombia, Uruguay and Venezuela) with a view to eliminating discriminatory practices (Brazil) and regulating the hiring of women, temporary staff, domestic employees (Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Venezuela) and wage earners in small and medium-sized enterprises (Chile). Among other developments, laws have been enacted concerning workers' compensation insurance in general (Argentina) and for specific groups (public-sector employees, Chile); mandatory severance pay has been raised in Colombia; sanctions have been introduced concerning sexual harassment at work; and ordinances on smoking in the workplace have been adopted (Costa Rica). Brazil and Chile have adapted some of their laws to bring them into line with conventions adopted within the International Labour Organization (ILO).

b) Minimum legal working age

The minimum legal working age is 18 in most of the countries (see table VI.2). In some, however, the minimum age is 14 years (Argentina, Brazil and Venezuela), 15 years (Uruguay) or 16 years (Mexico). It can be as low as 12 years under certain conditions: when authorization is given by parents or guardians, school attendance is maintained (Chile, Mexico) or the work in question is deemed light and not dangerous and involves limited hours. The biggest problem in this area is the failure to comply with the regulations, and this failure translates into a large and growing number of children in the region who work.

c) Minimum wage

In all the countries, the minimum wage is established by law and in general applies to the whole country, although in some instances it varies according to geographical area (Mexico and Venezuela) or age group (Chile) (see table VI.2). In this study, the amount of the minimum wage was converted into dollars, in order to facilitate comparisons, although this method does not reflect its real purchasing power in each country. However, according to ILO, in 1995 the monthly minimum wage was only enough to buy 3 kg of bread a day in Peru, Brazil, Honduras, Venezuela, Nicaragua and Guatemala and 4 kg in Ecuador, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Mexico and Chile, while the situation was somewhat better in Uruguay and Panama.²¹ It needs to be pointed out, however, that the minimum wage has in most countries ceased to be a measure of wage earners' real income.

d) Employment contracts

An employment contract, whether oral or written, is only mandatory in a few countries in the region (see table VI.2). Moreover, there is a gap between what the regulations stipulate and what actually occurs, since even in countries where an employment contract is mandatory the proportion of workers without one can be quite high, as is the case in Argentina (30%) and Peru (13%). In Brazil, where an employment contract is not required, 38.7% of workers do not benefit from such a contract. No information is available regarding the other countries.

Employment contracts cover a variety of benefits, including vacations and health insurance (illness maternity). Contracts in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela also make provision for overtime, with unemployment insurance an additional feature in Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay. Costa Rica and Chile provide an unemployment benefit, and workers are entitled to two annual bonuses, together with life and accident insurance.²²

²¹International Labour Organization (ILO), *News. 1995 Labour Overview*, No. 2, Lima, Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean.

²²In Chile, unemployment insurance is one of the subjects under study in tripartite talks at the Productive Development Forum.

e) Dismissal

All the countries recognize the right to severance pay when dismissal is not for cause, i.e., when termination is not voluntary, not part of an agreement between employer and employee and there has been neither dishonesty nor breach of contract on the part of the employee. There are also specific grounds for severance pay, such as a lay-off due to the requirements of the firm, or grounds related to the type of job; a case in point is that of private domestic employees in Chile, who receive compensation in the event of dismissal. Grounds for dismissal are defined by law and fall into two broad categories: dishonesty and failure to comply with the terms of the contract on the part of the employee. They may include theft, burglary, disclosure of industrial secrets, putting the security or the property of the business at risk, absence without excuse for over six days (Bolivia, Colombia) or even for two Mondays or three days in a month (Chile), immoral conduct, defamation or insult (Costa Rica, Chile), appearance at work under the influence of alcohol or drugs, or performance below individual capacity (Peru). The actual amount of compensation is specified by law, except in Argentina, where it is negotiable between employer and employee, and in Brazil, where the formula used to calculate it is currently the subject of talks between the parties concerned (see table VI.3).

All the countries have set up some body to hear appeals, except Argentina and Peru, where dismissal is considered a prerogative of the employer. It is possible to appeal to ordinary courts to determine whether the employee is entitled to compensation and, if so, in what amount. In Peru, an employee is not entitled to contest dismissal before an administrative body, but may file a judicial appeal within a period of 30 days. In other countries, the body that hears appeals may be a labour tribunal, a conciliation and arbitration board or a labour inspector's office (see table VI.3).

f) Collective bargaining

In all the countries, the right to form a trade union and the right to strike are stipulated by the constitution or the labour code; however, the exercise of the first of these rights is in practice very restricted, and in the countries for which information is available on the subject, only 7% to 17% of the labour force is unionized; rural workers are the least unionized of all categories (see table VI.3). Collective bargaining negotiations may take a variety of forms: they may be entered into by mutual consent between the parties (Argentina); they may be conducted at the level of the enterprise and the industry (Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia and Uruguay) or the enterprise only (Chile); or, as in Venezuela, agreements may be negotiated either for a specific industry or enterprise, or by sector and region.

Many of the topics examined in the previous sections are included on the labour reform agenda currently being implemented or under discussion in legislatures or in tripartite talks. Proposals have been put forward to prohibit child labour under 15 years of age. Attention has also been drawn to the advisability of setting lower minimum wages for the youngest workers, making hiring and firing easier and the work week more flexible, and setting up unemployment insurance. There has been debate over social security contributions and their coverage, but the most controversial issues have been those that concern setting limits and striking a balance between the enterprise's need for flexibility and the worker's need for stability.

2. Job creation programmes

There are problems concerning both the quantity and quality of jobs available. The experts consulted identified the following problems, listed in descending order of importance according to frequency: unemployment (general, female and youth), underemployment and lack of job security (general and female) and the increase in the numbers of children and young people who are working. The problem of finding productive jobs for people would appear to be a reflection of certain weaknesses in the economy, involving such elements as exchange-rate policy (Uruguay), an undynamic private sector, inflation and liberalization, the elimination of jobs as a result of corporate modernization, insufficient growth and economic recession. Specific problems were also pointed out, such as the lack of up-to-date legislation (Bolivia) and industrial disputes over social benefits (Venezuela).

In response to some of these problems, job creation programmes have been instituted that have certain common features. Most of these programmes seek to provide training to young people and the unemployed and to create independent jobs, with incentives to private enterprise, particularly small-businesses. Such programmes are targeted at specific groups, such as owners of small businesses, female heads of household, the unemployed or young people. Some are financed through social investment funds and experience the same problems the latter have. Institutional coordination is the responsibility of a variety of ministries (Labour, Agriculture or Education, according to the nature of the programme) or the national employment service.

Many of those surveyed referred to the importance of having future-oriented information on the labour market and emphasized that programmes should provide participants with the kind of training required by the labour market and by businesses. Some also highlighted the need for appropriate selection of the target group. The lack of intersectoral coordination in some countries was underlined, and problems such as scattering of resources and lack of programme monitoring and supervision were mentioned.

Some of the positive aspects of job programmes most often cited included: increased understanding of the relationship between the labour supply and the needs of the labour market; training of target groups and the creation of jobs for the more vulnerable groups in society; participation of non-governmental organizations; training given to instructors; the attention paid to gender dimension in training; efforts to improve the self-esteem of those undergoing training; and the design of flexible programmes that can be tailored to different social and labour contexts.

THE MAIN PROBLEMS IN THE AREA OF EMPLOYMENT	
Country	The main problems identified by training course managers
Argentina	- Unemployment - Underemployment - The increasing lack of job security and growth of the informal sector
Bolivia	- Failure of legislation to keep pace with the structural changes recorded in Bolivia - High rates of economic activity among children and young people (10-19 years of age) - Low quality employment
Brazil	- Elimination of jobs due to modernization of firms and globalization of the economy - Higher level of skills required in the labour market - Insufficient economic growth to absorb new entrants to the labour market
Chile	- Unemployment among young people - Women's uncertain foothold in the labour market - Loss of competitiveness by workers in depressed industries
Colombia	- Mismatch between skills of the workforce and the requirements of the labour market - Stagnant job growth in the modern sector of the economy - Increase in own-account work under substandard conditions
Costa Rica	- Women and employment: segmentation, wage discrimination and unemployment - Young people's entry into the job market - Private sector's inability to absorb labour: unemployment and growth of the informal sector
Mexico	- Unemployment - Low productivity - Lack of job security
Nicaragua	- Unemployment - Underemployment - High proportion of the economically active population having difficulties finding employment
Paraguay	- Lack of job opportunities for rural youth - Lack of educational and training opportunities for young people as well as opportunities to retrain for other jobs - Inflexible labour laws
Peru	- Lack of job security - Mismatch between education and needs of the labour market - Lack of social security and worker protection systems
Uruguay	- Exchange-rate policy that has generated substantial inflation in dollar terms - Aggressive policy of trade liberalization - Inflexibility of public expenditure
Venezuela	- Economic recession - Accelerated entry of young people into workforce - Politicized industrial conflict over reform of the social benefit system
Source: ECLAC, on the basis of the countries' responses to the survey on problems in the area of employment.	

B. ANTI-POVERTY PROGRAMMES

In the 1990s, most of the countries in the region have developed anti-poverty programmes, which are either sectoral in nature or targeted at specific groups. Most have established social investment funds, which use external resources to finance infrastructure projects. Programmes in the areas of education, health and nutrition have also received backing, but have not had the necessary monitoring and evaluation; they have suffered from a lack of continuity, due to the shortage of local funds, and have not been channelled effectively to the poorest segments of the population.

A number of Latin American Governments have made fighting poverty an explicit, priority goal. The increasing incidence of poverty in the 1980s made it necessary to develop new kinds of programmes, starting with emergency programmes aimed at mitigating extreme deficiencies rapidly. Later, the emphasis shifted to longer-term programmes focusing on specific forms of poverty—among them urban, rural, recent and long-term poverty—and on vulnerable groups, such as children, female heads of household, indigenous peoples, young people and the unemployed. Undoubtedly, the focus on children and young people has been sharper than that on gender or on other age groups.

The box below presents a summary of recent proposals by Chile's National Council for the Elimination of Poverty, which are innovative in that they mobilize civil society in activities to combat poverty.

A survey by ECLAC of the national institutions responsible for the main anti-poverty programmes showed that a total of 16 countries created social investment funds in the early 1990s (see table VI.4). Other programmes begun by the countries were of a sectoral nature, or were in areas such as job creation, support for productive management, and the promotion of the social organization of the various sectors; in addition, emergency programmes were set up, notably involving food distribution.

There are currently a wide variety of anti-poverty programmes in existence; some are palliative while others provide incentives; they may be permanent or medium- or short-term in scope; and they may have their own regular resources or receive external funding, reimbursable or otherwise.

PROPOSALS FOR OVERCOMING POVERTY IN CHILE

Chile's National Council for the Elimination of Poverty is comprised of representatives from the business community, academia and the professions, the churches, community organizations and unions, non-governmental organizations and foundations and was conceived as a way of mobilizing civil society in the fight against poverty. After deliberating for two years, the Council, whose role is to advise the Government on poverty issues, presented a series of eight proposals, which are summarized below:

The essential values of culture. There is a need for changes that contribute to the attainment of the stated objective; such changes include the strengthening of solidarity and cooperation, and the promotion of cultural and social means of expression.

Role of the State. The State should act as the coordinator, regulator and backer; it should formulate appropriate public policies aimed at fostering social equity and efficiency; it should also play a role in creating a public entity to guide and coordinate social development.

Economic growth and the role of work labour. Growth is a pre-condition of development, but it should not generate social, spatial, regional or ecological imbalances. It is important to recognize the contribution made by workers and to set a minimum level of income and working conditions in accordance with Chile's macroeconomic development.

The contribution of women. One of the main focuses of plans and programmes to eradicate poverty should be on women. Activities should be undertaken in the health and legal fields that are designed specifically for women, in view of the challenges associated with raising children; it is also necessary to ensure equal access to gainful employment, productive resources and job training and to foster cultural change with respect to the roles of men and women in society.

Change in the emphasis of social policies. Social policies should be redirected so that they promote the development and realization of the potential, skills and knowledge of people living in poverty ("an enabling approach"). As regards targeting, results should be evaluated to see whether they are tending to either over- or under-protection, in view of the sectoral approach and lack of coordination of programmes. A territorial approach to targeting and greater programme flexibility are recommended. The municipality should play a key role in social development.

The role of civil society. Civil society and especially non-profit organizations, have a contribution to make.

Resources and tools for overcoming poverty. In spite of the increase in social policy resources, these remain insufficient to meet the needs of the fight against poverty; hence, a social development fund should be created with responsibility for managing, administering and allocating public and private resources for the execution of plans, programmes and projects in the social development and poverty alleviation.

Information. There is a need for information on social development, poverty, inequality and social exclusion and for a conceptual schema that takes into account the characteristics and types of poverty.

Source: National Council for the Elimination of Poverty, *La pobreza en Chile: un desafío de equidad e integración social*, Santiago, Chile, August 1996.

Most anti-poverty programmes have been designed without provision for impact indicators. As a general rule, programmes do not feature on-going mechanisms for evaluation of outcomes and impacts (though in exceptional cases there is provision for external assessment). While it is not hard to ascertain the outputs, e.g., the number of schools, roads and health centres that have been built, it is harder to evaluate the impact of a programme on the target population, specifically the intended impact, i.e., whether the programme actually achieved its objective, and if so, to what extent. Several countries are in the initial phase of designing tools for monitoring and evaluation; these include Argentina's Social Programme Information, Monitoring and Evaluation System (SIEMPRO) and Colombia's Management Outcomes Evaluation System (SINERGIA) and Project Monitoring and Evaluation System (SEMRED). Other countries are in the process of seeking funding to implement an information system for carrying out evaluations, such as Costa Rica's Fund for Social Development and Social Allowances (FODESAF).

Survey responses show that the problem of evaluation has not yet been resolved, but also that Governments are making efforts to formulate suitable impact indicators and measurement systems. Mechanisms for monitoring use of resources exist in most cases. For some projects, appraisals are conducted prior to approval, but no impact evaluation is done; in still other cases, the results are evaluated after project execution, but since an evaluation was not originally envisaged, there is a lack of baseline data that would facilitate a comparison. In some countries, the evaluation is based on completion of stages of the process or fulfilment of the project's stated goals, rather than on any actual benefits. Agreeing with this diagnostic assessment, experts from the countries pointed to the need to reformulate the methods used to evaluate a programme's impact (Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, Guatemala and Nicaragua). Some also referred to the need to improve intersectoral coordination (Argentina, Costa Rica, Ecuador); structure the participation of beneficiaries (Argentina, Mexico); improve management (Colombia, Ecuador, Uruguay and Venezuela); improve the quality of services (Colombia); achieve effective decentralization (Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico); question the input of financial organizations in setting programme objectives (Guatemala); streamline the transfer of resources (Costa Rica and Venezuela); and develop a methodology for allocating resources (Mexico) and targeting activities (Venezuela).

Some of the good points of anti-poverty programmes identified by the experts include: actual participation of the beneficiaries (Brazil, Costa Rica, Guatemala); the fact that they benefit the poorest sectors of the population (Argentina, Costa Rica, Nicaragua and Venezuela); the shift in emphasis from programmes of assistance to programme enabling the poor to realize their potential (Costa Rica, Colombia); and the design of flexible systems of administration and management, which have increased both the efficiency and effectiveness of programmes (Guatemala, Brazil, Uruguay).

Social investment funds

The funds originated as mechanisms for alleviating the social effects of stabilization and adjustment policies, and hence they were initially a short-term emergency measure. They subsequently underwent modification and were eventually incorporated into medium- and long-term social policies; in point of fact, the social investment funds operating in Chile, Panama and Venezuela are on-going in nature. These funds are a relatively new development in the region, since they were modelled on the Emergency Social Welfare Fund set up in Bolivia in 1986 (see table VI.4). Costa Rica's Fund for Social Development and Family Allowances, established in 1975, constitutes an exception.

The general aim of the funds is to collect resources, primarily from foreign organizations, and to channel them to specific social programmes and projects, which the institution is not responsible for executing. The role of the funds, then, is one of financial intermediation, and this role presupposes the selection, financing and oversight of projects. The sources of funding are varied and may include national (Colombia) or multilateral (Bolivia) institutions, government agencies (Chile) or non-governmental organizations, either national (Peru) or international (Ecuador). Financing may also be derived from external debt conversion operations (Chile). Among the unresolved problems associated with social investment funds are sustainability over time, for which a constant flow of external resources is required, and skill-building in project planning.²³

The funds promote decentralization, social participation and complementarity between the public and private sectors by involving non-governmental organizations, community associations and municipalities in the implementation of activities and sometimes even in their design. Ideally, the funds should be autonomous and operate in a transparent, efficient, rapid and flexible manner. The main strategy used to transfer resources to the poor segments of society has been the creation of temporary jobs in social and economic infrastructure projects (these originally accounted for between 79% and 88% of funding), in addition to social and loan assistance. A smaller proportion of resources has been earmarked for directly productive activities, generally via non-governmental organizations. Now that the flow of funds has begun to stabilize, there is a trend towards a reduction in infrastructure investment and an increase in resources allocated to human resource training. The officials in charge of the funds need to coordinate their activities with those of the traditional sectoral ministries and other public entities that finance social projects.

Social investment funds were conceived as an attempt to generate new methods for channelling direct assistance and to break away from the centralization typical of Latin America countries, rather than as a solution to poverty. Unfortunately, they have had only minor impact because of the limited resources at their disposal.

A major challenge for social investment funds is to sharpen their focus, since they often benefit neither the poorest groups in society nor those furthest from urban centres. In addition, the indigent lack the skills to formulate projects and to organize themselves, and this is a major problem in demand-oriented programmes. Moreover, in the execution of infrastructure projects, there is clear discrimination between beneficiaries: men are offered employment, while women and children, groups that show a high incidence of poverty when they reside in female-headed households, receive instead social assistance and services. It is also important to note that job creation projects generate only temporary positions, which do not always meet normal labour standards

²³ See ECLAC, *Social Panorama of Latin America*. 1994 edition (LC/G.1844), Santiago, Chile, 1994, p. 114.

in the countries; hence, they should merely be viewed as complementary to a more comprehensive social policy.

As has been mentioned, the lack of impact evaluation of the social investment funds is still a problem; this situation is heightened by the current emphasis on reducing administrative costs, which has led to the elimination of oversight mechanisms. Lastly, in order for the funds to acquire a more permanent status, they need to become an integral part of public policies and programmes, on the basis of an analysis of the opportunity costs of the resources assigned to them. In addition, steps should be taken to avoid excessive red tape and to provide for stable financing by the countries themselves.

Perhaps the most important achievement of the social investment funds lies in the fact that they show how, with the necessary political will, it is possible to put an end to the vicious circle of donor distrust, bureaucratic incompetence and low motivation on the part of the poor, while at the same time developing a new "social technology" that expands the opportunities of the extremely needy.

C. SOCIAL ISSUES EXERCISING PUBLIC OPINION IN THE REGION

The issues that arouse the most interest, judging from articles published in the regional press and from opinion polls, are precisely those addressed by the World Summit for Social Development: employment, poverty and social integration. Governments have recognized the need to achieve a higher level of regional integration and economic growth in order to reduce the level of poverty. Also of great concern are unemployment and drug trafficking, which often breeds uncontrollable corruption and jeopardizes social integration. Some of the topics exercising public opinion include unemployment, poverty, low wages, violence and corruption in all its forms.

Two sources have been examined in order to gauge public opinion: a survey undertaken by independent firms in eight countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela) and an analysis of the press, considered as a forum of public debate, where members of society can express their opinions and topics of interest receive coverage. The social issues that kept reappearing in the region's press during the year turned out to be the same issues addressed at the World Summit for Social Development: poverty, employment and social integration. In the above-mentioned survey, those polled cited unemployment as the most serious problem facing Latin America, followed by low wages, inflation and poverty.²⁴

The information provided in this section represents the subjective views of the public, as a complement to the data presented in the other chapters. Employment, poverty and social

disintegration are all examined, with a particular focus on phenomena that have a major impact on the well-being of the population.

"Latinobarómetro" is an instrument used to measure surveys of public opinion in eight Latin American countries. It divides issues into three categories: political, social and economic (see table VI.5). Economic issues are the primary concern of those polled, with social and political issues of secondary importance. In Mexico, Argentina, Uruguay and Peru, public opinion is greatly concerned with economic issues. In contrast, in Paraguay and Venezuela, which have both experienced substantial economic problems, attention has nevertheless centred on political issues. Public opinion in Chile puts the main emphasis on economic matters, in spite of the fact that the country has achieved consistently high growth rates and brought inflation under control. In Brazil, Chile and Venezuela, social problems arouse major interest.

²⁴ Information obtained from the survey conducted in May and June 1995.

1. Employment

Concern over employment centres on two aspects: the number of jobs available, particularly for young people and women, and the quality of jobs, in light of the magnitude of non-traditional, substandard or informal jobs generated by micro-enterprises.

The Latinobarómetro survey reveals that employment and unemployment are regarded as the two most pressing problems in Argentina, Peru, Uruguay and Mexico. Most people in Peru, Argentina, Brazil and Chile believe the employment outlook will improve, while Mexicans and Venezuelans take a more pessimistic view (see table VI.6).

Unemployment has become a matter of major concern. There is a great deal of discontent in Argentina and Venezuela over high rates of unemployment, which are blamed for increasing poverty, a deteriorating social climate and the expansion of the informal sector.

According to official figures, Venezuela has seen an increase in both unemployment and the informal sector, and there is widespread concern that this trend will continue. Public-sector employees have been laid off in an effort to reduce the fiscal deficit, and this has led to political conflict. Demand for jobs has risen considerably, due to the large numbers of young people entering the workforce.

In Peru, unemployment and underemployment affect approximately two thirds of the population, while in Colombia the unemployment rate has risen sharply. In Bolivia, the Government declared 1995 the "Year of Employment", but efforts to hold tripartite talks between representatives of Government, employers and workers bore no fruit, despite the fact that the employment rate had outstripped GDP. In Chile, there was concern over the labour disputes that broke out over the course of the year and over unemployment, especially of young people.

The past year also saw an upsurge in protests by workers' organizations. Their agenda is very broad, ranging from demands for higher wages to protests against economic policies. Workers took industrial action in Argentina, Bolivia, Venezuela and Uruguay; and farmers and workers recently staged a national protest, in Paraguay, where unions are demanding wage hikes in line with price increases, legal recognition of land tenure, the reformulation of economic policy and compliance with labour laws. In Argentina, too, there have been general strikes by the General Confederation of Labour (CGT) in protest at recent fiscal measures.

Teachers were the category most apt to take action in pursuit of better pay in Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador, Honduras, Mexico, Peru and Venezuela. Public-sector employees also made pay demands in Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Paraguay, Peru and Venezuela. In Peru, oil workers protested against the privatization of their industry. In Chile, copper workers, coal miners, teachers, primary health-care workers and municipal employees all went on strike. In Honduras, there were strikes and protests by government employees, teachers in public schools and health-care workers. Venezuela witnessed a wave of social protests involving government employees and teachers belonging to the Workers Confederation of Venezuela (CTV), the country's main labour union.

The press in Brazil has reported extensively on the demands and marches by peasants and indigenous peoples, led by the Movement of Landless Rural Workers, among other groups. In Bolivia, coca growers organized a mass march on La Paz, while the Bolivian Workers Union (COB) and citizens' committees in the various departments called for strikes at the national and regional levels.

2. Poverty

Poverty is an issue of concern to citizens and Governments alike. This is true to such an extent that, as has been said elsewhere,²⁵ the most important challenge facing Latin American Governments in the next 10 years will be to ensure that the poorest segments of society actually receive some benefit from the adjustment programmes.

The survey responses²⁶ highlight the population's concern not only with the quality of life of the poor, but also with the income level and lifestyles of the rich. The disparities between the two groups have a bearing on how the poor perceive their own situation. Hence, it is evident that even though growth rates may be high and social policies appropriate, these facts will not change public opinion, if at the same time social gaps do not narrow and individuals' prospects improve. Generally speaking, in all of the countries surveyed apart from Chile and Peru, there is great dissatisfaction with the action so far taken to overcome poverty; indeed, the majority of those surveyed think that poverty has risen markedly in the past five years.

Coverage of the poverty issue by the region's press often takes the form of reports on the sharp increase in the number of poor people or poor households. In countries that have recorded a decline in poverty, the focus has shifted to the efficiency and effectiveness of programmes as well as the problems posed by "hard-core poverty", a term that refers to the marginal urban and rural poor and female-headed households, whose living conditions are substandard.

In the social arena, the issues that aroused the greatest interest among those surveyed were health and education (see table VI.7). The way in which these areas have been administered in the past five years was judged unfavourable in Argentina, Brazil, Venezuela and Uruguay, while the administration of education and housing was viewed in positive terms in Peru, Chile, Mexico and Paraguay. Survey respondents in Venezuela, Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay were highly critical of health-sector management, while those in Mexico, Paraguay and Peru judged the measures adopted in this area to be satisfactory (see table VI.8).

3. Social (dis)integration

Among the factors that undermine governability and prevent greater social equity are marginalization and unequal access to social goods and services,²⁷ the declining credibility of the political system, the need for State reform, and the failure of political parties to mobilize and articulate people's views.

In the political sphere, the problems of greatest concern to the public are drug addiction, corruption and crime. In seven of the eight countries where surveys were conducted, these problems, together with drug trafficking, are considered to have grown markedly worse in the past five years (see table VI.9). In Peru, despite the actual extent of these problems, people do not feel they have worsened significantly. The perception

²⁵ Statement by the Executive Secretary of ECLAC, Mr. Gert Rosenthal, in an interview with the Reuters news agency in Caracas, 12 August 1996.

²⁶ *Latinobarómetro*.

²⁷ See ECLAC, *Social Panorama. 1995 edition*, chapter VII, which presents an analysis of reforms in the education and health sectors.

that crime is on the rise finds support in the large number of people who fell victim to assault in the past year. Opinion polls show that people are worried about the upsurge in drug addiction and drug trafficking, and increasingly, corruption. Newspapers and opinion polls frequently cite a loss of confidence in institutions and political leaders.

Corruption is perceived as a very serious problem in Paraguay, and also, though to a lesser degree, in Venezuela and Argentina, where it arouses much concern, and in Uruguay and Chile. In Brazil and Chile, drug consumption is considered to have reached alarming proportions.

Urban violence and the lack of personal safety have begun to arouse greater concern. Among lower-income people, this concern takes the form of a fear of physical violence, whereas those with higher incomes are more worried about the threat to property. The media usually attribute this insecurity to increased poverty, drug trafficking, the harmful effect on children of the violence they see on television, and lack of confidence in the police and in the effectiveness of the justice system. In many instances, violent crime prompts public calls for judicial mechanisms that would provide for stiffer and more effective penalties against criminals.

The Peruvian press expresses fears of a possible resurgence of urban violence by terrorist groups, fears that were borne out by the hostage-taking at the Japanese ambassador's residence in late December. Mexico is faced with the expansion of armed groups in rural areas, while in Colombia there are reports of activities by various revolutionary movements.

The press in Venezuela has reported a new wave of urban violence taking the form of sensational crimes, which have received comprehensive live coverage on television; the Government has said that it will step up police patrols and operations to combat the problem, and this only underscores the insecurity felt by the general populace. Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Honduras, Costa Rica and Mexico have all witnessed cases of kidnapping for ransom. In Guatemala, the number of reported cases of human rights violations has decreased and trials have begun of those responsible; on the other hand, there has been an increase in common crime and in kidnappings for purely financial motives, which the police began to bring under control midway through the year.

The Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) has reported that the homicide rate in a number of Latin American countries (Argentina, Chile and Uruguay excepted), is as high as 17 per 100,000 inhabitants and stands at 27 in Central America and 39 in the Andean countries. Colombia has one of the highest homicide rates in the world, at 77.5 killings per 100,000 inhabitants, a level comparable to countries at war.²⁸ The press examines the consequences of these high rates of violence and is a forum for views on a social system of incentives and punishments that distorts the behaviour and ethics of young people. According to some studies, education's reduced role as a springboard to social mobility, in view of the easy profits offered by illegal activities, serves to discourage children from attending school. In Colombia, violence is also very common in rural areas, due to a combination of illicit crops and the actions of armed groups, and this has caused a flow of migrants to medium-sized towns and cities, as well as the capital.

Crime rates have risen in many of the countries of the region, as measured in terms of robberies of banks and businesses, burglaries, muggings and unsolved crimes. The press often attributes this phenomenon to the decline in the general standard of living, impunity and the large number of firearms in the hands of private individuals. Proposed solutions include the introduction of curfews, reform of the education system,

²⁸ Some regions of Colombia have experienced extreme violence: in Urabá, 1,155 people were murdered, 30,000 displaced and 500 made orphans in 1995.

strengthening of the family unit and enforcement of standards that prohibit the sale of alcohol to minors under 18 years of age.

Domestic violence and child abuse have come in for much scrutiny in the Latin American press, where it is noted that both phenomena are accepted and frequent occurrences. Regular reports on child abuse impress readers with the scope and severity of the problem.

The media have given full coverage to riots at a number of jails in the region, demands for improved prison conditions and complaints about the inadequacies of the judicial system. The riots have focused attention on the wretched environment and physical conditions that prevail in many penal institutions.

On the drug front, the press is reporting an intensification of the political debate surrounding drug consumption, trafficking and production and their economic, social and psychological consequences, including the economic impact of money laundering, a topic discussed at a conference of finance ministers held early in the year. Attention has been drawn to the need to shift the emphasis of drug policy by adopting stricter rules on money laundering, improving the efficiency of the justice system and stripping the drug trade of any social legitimacy. Peru approved a new legal set of laws to fight drug trafficking, which includes the creation of a special anti-drug commission, responsible for defining a clear strategy. The strategy adopted by Peru includes promoting development through coca crop replacement and reducing consumption by the population.

With respect to drug production, the press has also pointed out that lack of progress in meeting farmers' demands has been the factor inducing most of them to plant illicit crops. In this regard, significant steps have been taken in Colombia, Peru and Bolivia to implement programmes for the eradication and replacement of such crops; among the measures taken are talks with farmers, subsidies, health-care initiatives, shifting part of the population to other areas, setting up reserved areas, and agrarian reform.

Corruption in its various forms has been a major cause for concern to Governments and citizens in Latin America. In March 1996, the Organization of American States approved the Inter-American Convention against Corruption, which contains guidelines on the subject applicable throughout Latin America. The Convention, which requires ratification by the legislatures of signatory countries, will take effect once a minimum of two countries have given it their approval.

POLICIES TO COMBAT CORRUPTION

The upsurge in corruption and allegations of corruption in recent years, which has received coverage in all the region's news media and reaches into the highest levels of the decision-making hierarchy, underscores the need to adopt policies to curb the phenomenon.

Three approaches have been suggested. The first is to pass new legislation and ensure compliance with existing laws, which entails checking on the activities of politicians and civil servants, and to establish rules of procedure that facilitate judicial investigations into corruption allegations. The second approach involves paying decent salaries to government administrators and public-sector employees, in order to encourage greater professionalism among civil servants, thus reducing the likelihood of their using their authority to benefit themselves, or accepting bribes or perks for making decisions that benefit particular individuals. The third approach entails intensifying competition in the society, in order to reduce the scope for government officials and politicians to levy "surtaxes" on economic activity, since the more openly the market can function the less potential there is for corruption.

In countries with low levels of corruption, the strategy that has shown the best results over the short and medium terms has been to combine the three above-mentioned approaches. Comparative studies show that corruption diminishes over the long term when parties and candidates compete in the political arena, when the population's average per capita level of income rises and when the average number of years of schooling completed by citizens increases. The well-being that results from economic growth and improvements in general education serves to restrain the "culture of corruption".

Source: José Luis Castagnola, *Revista Tres*, Montevideo, 19 July 1996.

D. THE INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL AGENDA

In 1996, two important international conferences concerning social issues were conducted. The United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II) examined, among other topics, the situation of human settlements in a world undergoing rapid urbanization, urban development and housing, poverty and population growth. The Hemispheric Conference on the Eradication of Poverty and Discrimination focused on the integration of social and economic policies, together with the modernization and decentralization of social policies for combating poverty. Both conferences were attended by a large number of non-governmental organizations, whose activities in the social arena were discussed in the debates.

During 1996, two international conferences with a bearing on social issues were held: the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat II) and the Hemispheric Conference on the Eradication of Poverty and Discrimination (see boxes).

Habitat II focused on sustainable human settlements development, especially trends in urbanization and housing, but was also marked by the reappearance of controversial topics such as reproductive and health-care rights discussed earlier at the International Conference on Population and Development and the Fourth World Conference on Women. A Global Plan of Action was adopted, and for the first time non-governmental organizations concerned with housing participated fully in the discussions. The most appropriate methods for protecting the environment were examined, with consideration given to proposals by Governments, local authorities, and grass-roots and community-based organizations that have successively resolved some of the problems stemming from urbanization.

The Hemispheric Conference on the Eradication of Poverty and Discrimination was held as a follow-up to the Summit of the Americas, which took place in Miami in December 1994. As indicated in the final report, the Conference broke new ground by bringing together official representatives from Governments, organizations of civil society and multilateral agencies for a joint examination of the challenges posed by social development. The main topics discussed were the interrelationship between economic and social policies, the modernization and decentralization of social policies and the activities of countries and international and intraregional institutions in support of the fight against poverty and discrimination.

Both conferences conducted an in-depth examination of a range of alternatives for combating poverty, unemployment and the unequal distribution of income, and progress was made in the search for ways for the State, civil society and the market to collaborate. Action now needs to be taken to implement the agreements reached at the conferences and to determine their political and economic viability and the appropriate role for Governments, non-governmental organizations and international bodies in turning the proposals into reality.

**THE UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON HUMAN SETTLEMENTS
(HABITAT II)**

Place and date:	Istanbul, Turkey, 3 to 14 June 1996
Participants:	Representatives of 189 States and a large number of non-governmental organizations
Slogan:	"For a better life in the twenty-first century"
Agreements adopted:	Global Plan of Action or the Habitat Agenda
Background:	Habitat: United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Vancouver, 1976) Latin American and Caribbean Regional Meeting Preparatory to the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements Regional Plan of Action ECLAC, Human Settlements: the Shelter of Development

The Global Plan of Action to guide national and international efforts through the first two decades of the twenty-first century comprises an introduction and sections outlining goals and principles, commitments and specific actions relating to the following subject areas:

1. Adequate shelter for all: identifies ways to integrate shelter policies into economic, social and environmental policies, taking gender-specific and age-specific factors into account.
2. Sustainable human settlements development in an urbanizing world, through sustainable land-use, and adequate planning; social development: eradication of poverty, creation of productive employment and social integration; population and sustainable human settlements development; environmentally sustainable, healthy and liveable human settlements; sustainable energy use; sustainable transport and communication systems; conservation and rehabilitation of the historical and cultural heritage; improving urban economies; balanced development of settlements in rural regions; disaster prevention, mitigation and preparedness, and post-disaster rehabilitation capabilities.
3. Capacity-building and institutional development through decentralization and strengthening of local authorities and their associations/networks; popular participation and civic engagement; human settlements management; metropolitan planning and management; domestic financial resources and economic instruments; information and communications.
4. International cooperation and coordination through an enabling international context; financial resources and economic instruments; technology transfer and information exchange; technical cooperation; institutional cooperation.
5. Implementation at the national and international levels; involvement of local authorities and civil society, including the private sector.
6. Follow-up: performance evaluation, indicators and best practices.

HEMISPHERIC CONFERENCE ON THE ERADICATION OF POVERTY AND DISCRIMINATION

Place and date: Santiago, Chile, 18-19 January 1996

Participants: Official delegations from 31 States, and representatives from non-governmental and inter-governmental organizations, and organizations of the United Nations system

Organized by: Government of Chile, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Planning and Cooperation

Background: Declaration of Principles and Plan of Action of the Summit of the Americas (Miami, December 1994).

Objectives: To move forward on the regional level towards the eradication of poverty and discrimination in follow-up to the agreements signed by the Heads of State and Government at the Summit of the Americas

Main agreements

In accordance with the aim of the Conference, the agreements seek to reinforce the mechanisms of regional cooperation with a view to collectively combating poverty and discrimination.

It was decided to define jointly the priority tasks for the region, in order to sharpen the focus of activities and improve the mechanisms for implementing cooperation programmes among developing countries, so that they combine harmoniously with social policies.

It was proposed that a regional project bank should be set up to back social development initiatives, promote private-sector participation and harmonize the various forms of technical and economic cooperation.

Also highlighted was the need to extend regional activities in training and improving the skills of the people taking part in social development programmes.

A proposal was put forward to establish an information clearing house on anti-poverty programmes and prepare a register of programmes already under way in the hemisphere.

Lastly, the hope was expressed that an open dialogue could be maintained with donor countries in the industrialized world, with a view to their raising the share of GDP they earmark for cooperation programmes.

Table VI.1
ISSUES COVERED IN LABOUR REFORMS, BY COUNTRY, 1990-1995

Issue	Argentina	Bolivia	Brazil	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Paraguay	Peru	Uruguay	Venezuela
Contracts	X	X		X	X			X		
Dismissal				X	X	X	X	X		
Collective bargaining	X		X	X				X		X
Minimum wage			X							X
Size of pensions				X	X					
Vacation							X	X		
Maternity leave						X				X
Rights of nursing mothers						X	X			
Gender-based discrimination			X							
Sexual harassment						X	X			
Youth labour								X		
Unions				X				X		
Union rights			X			X	X			
Strikes								X		
Social security				X	X				X	X
Accident insurance	X			X						
Unemployment insurance					X					
Occupational safety				X					X	
Forced labour			X							
Smoking in the workplace						X				
Special regimes									X	X
Public-sector workers' associations				X						X

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of countries' responses to the survey on the labour situation and job creation programmes, 1996.

Table VI.2
LABOUR SITUATION IN LATIN AMERICA

Country	Legislative change a/	Minimum working age stipulated by law	Monthly minimum wage	Equivalent in US\$ b/	Employment contract obligatory
Argentina	Yes	14 years	200 pesos	200	Yes
Bolivia	Yes	18 years 14-18 years with authorization of parents or labour inspector	223 bolivianos	43	No
Brazil	Yes	14 years	112 reais	112	No
Chile	Yes	18 years 14-15 years, with authorization; school attendance required 15-18 years, with authorization of legal representatives	65,500 pesos, over 18 years; 56,370 pesos, less than 18 and over 65 c/	159 137	Yes, written
Colombia	Yes	18 years 14-18 years with authorization of Ministry of Labour and legal representatives 12-14 years only for work in a family context	142,125.50 pesos	136	Yes, written and oral
Costa Rica	Yes	18 years 12-15 except for hazardous work and no more than 30 hours per week 15-18 years, less than 42 hours per week	43,860 colones; 1,462 colones per day	207 6.9	Yes, written or oral in the case of workers in agricultural, livestock and domestic sectors; and in the case of temporary work of less than 90 days duration or for which payment is less than 250 colones per month
Mexico	No	16 years 14-16 years, up to a maximum of 6 hours per day, completion of schooling required, authorization of parent or guardian	22.60, 20.95 or 19.05 pesos per day	90 83 76	Yes
Peru	Yes	12 years 12-14 years, up to a maximum of 24 hours per week 15-17 years, up to a maximum of 36 hours per week, night work up to a maximum of 24 hours per week with authorization	215 soles	85	Yes, oral or written in the case of indefinite employment; written in the case of a fixed-term contract
Uruguay	No	15 years 12-15 years, for work with other family members and in jobs in industry not considered hazardous 13-15 years, for light work in jobs other than industry	720 pesos	87	No

Table VI.2 (concl.)

Country	Legislative change a/	Minimum working age stipulated by law	Monthly minimum wage	Equivalent in US\$ b/	Employment contract obligatory
Venezuela	Yes 1990	14 years 12-14 years, with special authorization of the National Institute for Minors or the Labour Inspection Office	15,000 bolívares (urban areas) 12,500 bolívares (rural areas)	32 26	Yes, oral or written

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of countries' responses to the survey on the labour situation and job creation programmes, 1996.

a/ Changes in legislation during the period 1990-1995.

b/ The conversion into dollars was calculated at the buy rate in New York on 10 September 1996. It does not reflect the countries' real purchasing power.

c/ Wages vary by geographical area.

Table VI.3
WORKERS' RIGHTS IN LATIN AMERICA

Country	Unionization	Rate of unionization a/	Right to strike	Compensation for lay-off	Dismissal may be appealed to
Argentina	Yes	35% urban	Yes, stipulated in the Constitution	Yes	No
Bolivia	Yes	no data	Yes, stipulated in the Constitution	Yes	Labour inspector Conciliation board Arbitration tribunal
Brazil	Yes	16.6% overall 14.2% rural 17.4% urban 18.9% men 12.9% women	Yes, stipulated in the Federal Constitution	Yes	Labour court
Chile	Yes	13.2% overall	Yes, stipulated in the Labour Laws	Yes	Labour court
Colombia	Yes	10.4% overall 10.4% urban	Yes, stipulated in the Constitution	Yes	Labour magistrate
Costa Rica	Yes	14.7% overall 57.8% public sector 7.3% private sector	Yes, stipulated in the Constitution	Yes	Department of Labour Relations, within the Ministry of Labour
Mexico	Yes	no data	no data	Yes	Conciliation and arbitration board
Peru	Yes	7.1% overall 35% Lima metropolitan area	Yes, stipulated in the Constitution	Yes	No
Uruguay	Yes	no data	Yes, stipulated in the Constitution	Yes	Labour court
Venezuela	no data	no data	Yes, stipulated in the Constitution	Yes	Labour tribunals

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of countries' responses to the survey on the labour situation and job creation programmes, 1996.

a/ For Argentina, data are for the second quarter of 1995; for Brazil, Colombia and Peru, 1993; for Costa Rica, not specified; for Chile, december 1995.

Table VI.4
SOCIAL INVESTMENT AND EMERGENCY FUNDS FOR THE ALLEVIATION OF POVERTY IN LATIN AMERICA

Country	Name of fund	Year established/ended	Administering agency	Sector(s)	Target population	Source of funding
Argentina	Participatory Social Investment Fund	1995-1999	Social Policy Cabinet, Office of the President	Comprehensive programmes	People with unmet basic needs living in working-class areas	World Bank National and provincial budgets
Bolivia	Emergency Social Welfare Fund, Social Investment Fund (FIS)	1986-1990 on-going	Office of the President, Ministry of Sustainable Development and the Environment	Comprehensive programmes covering education, health and nutrition, training and basic sanitation in municipalities accorded priority	Poor people, especially in rural areas	Budget, municipalities, communities, World Bank, Government of the Netherlands
Chile	Solidarity and Social Investment Fund (FOSIS)	1990 on-going	Ministry of Planning and Cooperation	Comprehensive programmes providing training, employment, technical assistance, credit and social advancement	Poor sectors of the population, small businesspeople, women heads of household, young people, farmers and indigenous people	Budget, foreign donors, Government of the Netherlands
Colombia	Co-financing Fund for Social Investment (FIS)	1992	National Council on Economic and Social Planning (CONPES)	Comprehensive programmes offering assistance in the areas of health, education, culture, recreation and sports	Vulnerable groups	Budget
Costa Rica	Fund for Social Development and Family Allowances (FODESAF)	1974 on-going	Autonomous body	Comprehensive programmes for children and adolescents, women, farmers, the elderly and the disabled	Groups targeted by the Plan to Combat Poverty	National budget through a special-purpose tax
Dominican Republic	Fund for the Promotion of Community Initiatives (PROCOMUNIDAD)	1993-1999	Office of the President	Health, education and sanitation infrastructure	Low-income groups with unmet basic needs	Budget, IDB
Ecuador	Emergency Social Investment (FISE)	1993-1997	Office of the President	Sanitation, education, health, day care centres, orphanages and shelters, production and assistance in production, road improvements and flood protection	784 urban and rural parishes in 191 cantons of the 21 provinces	Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), World Bank, Andean Development Corporation, Government of the Netherlands
El Salvador	Social Investment Fund (FIS)	1990	Office of the President	Projects directed at basic needs, productive management and general education	The poor and the extremely poor	IDB World Bank
Guatemala	Social Investment Fund (FIS)	1993-2001	Office of the President	Education, health and nutrition, water and sanitation, economic infrastructure and the environment and production projects, especially in indigenous communities	Rural population	Budget, soft loans, World Bank, IDB, KfW, Central American Bank for Economic Integration
Guyana	Social Impact Amelioration Program (SIMAP)	1990	Autonomous body	Infrastructure, health and nutrition	Poor people, especially undernourished women	IDB World Bank

Table VI.4 (concl.)

Country	Name of fund	Year established/ended	Administering agency	Sector(s)	Target population	Source of funding
Haiti	Economic and Social Assistance Fund (FAES)	1990	Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs	Production projects	The rural poor	World Bank
Honduras	Honduran Social Investment Fund (FHIS/PASI)	1990-2005	Office of the President	Small and medium-sized enterprises	Poor people	World Bank Government of the Netherlands
Nicaragua	Emergency Social Investment Fund (FISE)	1990	Office of the President	Infrastructure and employment	People living in extreme poverty, without access to basic services	Ministry of Finance World Bank, USAID, IDB, KfW, UNDP, Canadian International Development Agency, COSUDE
Panama	Social Emergency Fund (FES)	1990 on-going	Office of the President	Infrastructure and employment	Poor people	World Bank
Peru	National Social Compensation and Development Fund (FONCODES)	1991	President of the Council of Ministers	Social and economic infrastructure	People living in extreme poverty	Budget, foreign donors, World Bank, Government of the Netherlands
Venezuela	Social Investment Fund (FONVIS)	1990 on-going	Ministry of Family Affairs	Health, education, provision of equipment, training and technical assistance	Poor people	Budget, IDB, World Bank

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of countries' responses to the survey on the alleviation of poverty, 1996, and the following documents: for Bolivia: M. Balcázar "Influencia programática y metodológica de los fondos en la política social orientada a la pobreza", document presented at the institutional seminar-workshop, "The specific contribution of investment funds to government social policy", Santiago, Chile, April 1996, unpublished; for Chile: C. Serrano "Fondos Sociales y sus aportes a la política social. El caso del Fondo de Solidaridad e Inversión Social de Chile", document presented at the institutional seminar-workshop, "The specific contribution of investment funds to government social policy", Santiago, Chile, April 1996, unpublished; for Peru: information provided by UNICEF and the APOYO Institute; and W.J. Cornelissen, "Fondos de inversión social en América Latina. Reflexiones desde la óptica de una fuente donante", document presented at the institutional seminar-workshop, "The specific contribution of investment funds to government social policy", Santiago, Chile, April 1996, unpublished; for Guyana, Haiti, Panama, Honduras and El Salvador: P. Glaessner, and others "Alivio de la pobreza y fondos de inversión social. La experiencia latinoamericana", discussion paper, Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1995; for Dominican Republic: Fund for the Promotion of Community Initiatives (PROCOMUNIDAD), "Manual de selección de proyectos", vols. 1 and 2, Santo Domingo, 1995.

Table VI.5
MOST IMPORTANT PROBLEMS
(8 countries)

Country	Economic	Social	Political	DN/DR a/	Total
Argentina	67	19	13	2	100
Brazil	38	37	24	1	100
Chile	54	25	21	0	100
Mexico	75	12	12	1	100
Paraguay	43	20	34	3	100
Peru	60	23	16	1	100
Uruguay	65	18	15	3	100
Venezuela	48	25	26	1	100

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of Latinobarómetro, 1995.

a/ Do not know or did not reply.

Table VI.6
MOST IMPORTANT ECONOMIC PROBLEMS
(8 countries)

Country	Unemployment	Low wages	Inflation	Poverty	Total
Argentina	45	13	3	6	67
Brazil	12	11	3	12	38
Chile	14	18	9	13	54
Mexico	28	12	27	8	75
Paraguay	13	5	9	16	43
Peru	31	13	3	13	60
Uruguay	29	20	10	6	65
Venezuela	6	6	31	5	48

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of Latinobarómetro, 1995.

Table VI.7
MOST IMPORTANT SOCIAL PROBLEMS FACING LATIN AMERICA
(8 countries)

Country	Education	Health	Housing	Opportunities for youth	Environment	Total
Argentina	8	7	1	2	1	19
Brazil	10	19	3	4	1	37
Chile	6	11	3	4	1	25
Mexico	5	3	1	3	0	12
Paraguay	9	9	1	1	0	20
Peru	10	5	1	6	1	23
Uruguay	5	9	2	2	0	18
Venezuela	13	8	3	1	0	25

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of Latinobarómetro, 1995.

Table VI.8
NET VARIATION IN QUALITY OF SOCIAL POLICIES APPLIED IN LATIN AMERICA IN
1990-1995
(8 countries) a/

Country	Education	Health	Housing
Argentina	-51	-29	-26
Brazil	-13	-23	-27
Chile	18	-4	26
Mexico	15	18	-11
Paraguay	18	11	16
Peru	35	16	17
Uruguay	-35	-18	-22
Venezuela	-48	-39	-44

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of Latinobarómetro, 1995.

a/ Figures refer to the difference between the percentage of people who believe the quality of services has increased and the percentage that believes quality of services has decreased.

Table VI.9
MOST IMPORTANT POLITICAL PROBLEMS FACING LATIN AMERICA
(8 countries)

Country	Corruption	Terrorism	Crime	Drugs	Other	Total
Argentina	9	0	2	1	1	13
Brazil	4	3	6	11	0	24
Chile	2	2	7	10	0	21
Mexico	4	3	3	1	1	12
Paraguay	24	0	6	2	2	34
Peru	3	3	2	8	0	16
Uruguay	3	1	8	2	1	15
Venezuela	13	2	9	2	0	26

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of Latinobarómetro, 1995.

Table VI.10
PERCEIVED INCREASE IN DRUG ADDICTION, DRUG-TRAFFICKING AND
CRIME IN 1990-1995
(8 countries) a/

Country	Drug addiction	Corruption	Drug-trafficking	Crime
Argentina	82	83	82	87
Brazil	77	68	77	70
Chile	89	75	89	82
Mexico	77	80	77	87
Paraguay	64	87	84	92
Peru	27	40	27	47
Uruguay	85	79	72	88
Venezuela	91	91	91	94

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of Latinobarómetro, 1995.

a/ Difference between the percentage of those surveyed who believe these phenomena have "increased significantly" and those who believe they have "not increased significantly".

ANNEX

The following is a list of national institutions that responded to the surveys on anti-poverty programmes and on the labour situation and job creation programmes.

ANTI-POVERTY PROGRAMMES

Argentina:	Department of Social Development, International Financing Unit, Social Programme Information, Monitoring and Evaluation System (SIEMPRO)
Brazil:	Office of the President, Special Advisor's Office
Colombia:	National Planning Department
Costa Rica:	Office of the Second Vice-President of the Republic
Ecuador:	Technical Secretariat of the Social Front
Guatemala:	United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Social Investment Fund (FIS)
Mexico:	Ministry of Social Development
Nicaragua:	Ministry of Social Services (MAS)
Paraguay:	United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
Uruguay:	Strengthening the Social Area, Social Policy Unit (FAS)
Venezuela:	Central Office for Coordination and Planning, Sectoral Office for Social Policy (CORDIPLAN)

Bolivia, Chile, Cuba, El Salvador and Peru did not respond.

JOB CREATION PROGRAMMES

Argentina:	Department of Social Development, International Financing Unit, Social Programme Information, Monitoring and Evaluation System (SIEMPRO)
Bolivia:	Ministry of Sustainable Development and the Environment
Brazil:	Office of the President, Special Advisor's Office
Chile:	Ministry of Labour and Social Security - Bureau of Labour, Research Department - National Training and Employment Service
Colombia:	National Planning Department
Costa Rica:	Ministry of Labour and Social Security, Office of the Minister
Mexico:	Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare
Nicaragua:	Ministry for Social Action (MAS)
Paraguay:	Centre for Rural Education, Training and Technology, Projects Area (CECTEC)
Peru:	Centre for Development Research and Promotion (DESCO)
Venezuela:	Central Office for Coordination and Planning, Sectoral Office for Social Policy (CORDIPLAN)
Uruguay:	Ministry of Labour and Social Security, Office of the Undersecretary

Cuba, Ecuador, Guatemala and Panama did not respond.

STATISTICAL APPENDIX

Table 1

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES) : TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS
1980-1995

COUNTRY YEAR	Per capita GDP (in 1990 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1990 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (Percentage)	Mean monthly variation in consumer price index	Percentage variation			
					Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Urban minimum wage
Argentina								
1990	4371	4266	7.5	30.0	1990-1995	21.2	24.1	252.0
1992	5038	4989	7.0	1.9	1990-1992	15.3	16.9	103.7
1994	5606	5588	11.5	0.3	1992-1994	11.3	12.0	78.6
1995	5296	5296	17.5	0.3	1994-1995	-5.5	-5.2	-3.3
Bolivia								
1989	778	754	10.2	1.2	1989-1995	10.1	11.7	67.5
1992	812	789	5.4	1.0	1989-1992	4.3	4.6	40.6
1994	847	843	3.1	0.6	1992-1994	4.3	6.9	21.3
1995	856	842	3.6	0.8	1994-1995	1.1	-0.1	-1.8
Brazil								
1990	2707	2634	4.3	32.6	1990-1995	4.1	5.4	13.9
1992	2586	2549	5.8	20.8	1990-1992	-4.5	-3.2	2.5
1994	2759	2728	5.1	29.4	1992-1994	6.7	7.0	5.4
1995	2819	2776	4.6	4.3	1994-1995	2.1	1.8	5.5
Chile								
1990	2320	2196	6.5	2.0	1990-1995	30.2	43.1	30.0
1992	2656	2572	4.9	1.2	1990-1992	14.5	17.1	14.3
1994	2836	2776	6.3	0.9	1992-1994	6.8	7.9	8.8
1995	3021	3142	5.3	0.7	1994-1995	6.5	13.2	4.5
Colombia								
1990	1247	1207	10.5	2.2	1990-1995	14.8	22.6	-4.4
1992	1273	1286	10.2	2.0	1990-1992	2.1	6.5	-5.0
1994	1375	1407	8.9	1.7	1992-1994	8.1	9.4	1.1
1995	1431	1480	8.9	1.6	1994-1995	4.1	5.2	-0.4
Costa Rica								
1990	1881	1845	5.4	1.5	1990-1995	10.2	19.0	-9.0
1992	1961	1981	4.3	1.7	1990-1992	4.2	7.4	-7.5
1994	2069	2128	4.3	1.1	1992-1994	5.5	7.4	1.2
1995	2074	2196	5.7	1.8	1994-1995	0.2	3.2	-2.8
Guatemala								
1989	831	835	6.1	1.0	1989-1995	7.2	15.1	-64.1
1992	855	890	5.7	0.8	1989-1992	2.8	6.6	-48.7
1994	874	922	5.2	1.4	1992-1994	2.2	3.6	-23.4
1995	891	961	4.3	0.7	1994-1995	2.0	4.2	-8.6
Honduras								
1990	686	659	7.8	1.8	1990-1995	2.0	8.2	-10.4
1992	701	667	6.0	0.7	1990-1992	2.1	1.2	8.7
1994	698	712	4.0	1.7	1992-1994	-0.4	6.7	-12.8
1995	700	713	4.6	2.2	1994-1995	0.3	0.1	-5.5
Mexico								
1989	2860	2750	2.9	1.5	1989-1995	-2.4	-2.4	-31.0
1992	3017	2971	2.8	1.2	1989-1992	5.5	8.0	-18.4
1994	3038	2980	3.7	0.6	1992-1994	0.7	0.3	-1.4
1995	2790	2685	6.3	2.5	1994-1995	-8.2	-9.9	-14.2

Table 1 (concl.)

COUNTRY YEAR	Per capita GDP (in 1990 dollars)	Per capita Income (in 1990 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (Percentage)	Mean monthly variation on consumer price index	Percentage variation			
					Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Urban minimum wage
Panama								
1989	2124	1735	20.4	0.0	1989-1995	23.0	36.3	5.9
1991	2384	2176	19.3	0.2	1989-1991	12.2	25.4	-1.8
1994	2610	2184	16.0	0.1	1991-1994	9.5	0.4	8.5
1995	2614	2364	16.2	0.1	1994-1995	0.1	8.2	-0.7
Paraguay								
1990	1220	1229	6.6	2.7	1990-1995	0.9	2.1	-12.6
1992	1198	1198	5.3	1.2	1990-1992	-1.8	-2.5	-12.9
1994	1214	1246	4.4	1.6	1992-1994	1.4	4.0	-1.3
1995	1231	1255	5.2	1.1	1994-1995	1.4	0.7	1.6
Peru								
1990	1657	1623	8.3	43.4	1990-1995	21.2	21.1	-36.7
1992	1628	1591	9.4	4.7	1990-1992	-1.7	-2.0	-32.0
1994	1896	1850	8.8	1.8	1992-1994	16.5	16.3	-9.0
1995	2007	1966	7.1	0.9	1994-1995	5.9	6.3	2.3
Uruguay								
1990	2975	2874	8.5	6.5	1990-1995	16.0	23.6	-38.0
1992	3272	3262	9.0	4.4	1990-1992	10.0	13.5	-12.6
1994	3570	3641	9.2	3.1	1992-1994	9.1	11.6	-23.0
1995	3452	3552	10.3	3.0	1994-1995	-3.3	-2.4	-7.9
Venezuela								
1990	2495	2440	11.0	2.9	1990-1995	4.3	-6.8	13.3
1992	2769	2479	8.1	2.2	1990-1992	11.0	1.6	23.3
1994	2600	2245	8.9	4.0	1992-1994	-6.1	-9.4	-1.9
1995	2602	2273	10.9	4.0	1994-1995	0.1	1.2	-6.4

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): 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
	1994	76	65	98	97	54	41	43	59	56	21
Bolivia	1992	75	50	92	97	63	46	35	57	61	33
	1994	75	50	92	98	65	51	37	62	68	37
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
	1993	83	77	96	95	60	50	51	60	60	27
Colombia	1980	79	61	96	97	72	42	42	52	46	22
	1986	78	58	94	97	68	44	42	59	50	19
	1992	80	59	97	97	66	50	44	67	61	23
	1994	79	58	96	97	65	48	43	65	59	22
Costa Rica	1981	78	64	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
	1994	76	59	95	96	57	40	35	54	52	17
Chile	1987	70	48	93	94	53	32	29	44	42	15
	1992	75	50	95	96	61	37	32	49	48	21
	1994	75	49	94	96	62	38	32	50	50	23
Guatemala	1986	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	46	38	57	59	30
	1992	80	62	94	97	76	44	37	56	55	31
	1994	80	64	93	96	74	43	35	54	51	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
	1994	80	63	96	95	68	37	33	48	46	21
Panama	1979	76	56	97	98	63	45	40	63	55	20
	1986	73	54	95	98	55	40	33	56	53	17
	1991	74	58	95	96	52	43	37	59	59	18
	1994	79	62	97	97	57	47	39	61	61	20
Paraguay	1983	81	66	97	97	66	43	41	57	53	26
	1986	83	63	97	98	70	52	55	62	62	29
	1992	83	72	98	98	70	51	52	62	63	29
	1994	86	75	99	98	71	55	55	66	65	32
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
	1994	75	72	97	97	52	47	52	74	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
	1994	78	57	94	97	68	38	25	52	52	20

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

Table 3
LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION IN URBAN AREAS

COUNTRY YEAR	YEARS OF SCHOOLING												
	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	60	70	76	72	80	32	18	25	26	40	64
	1986 a/	76	...	...	72	83	80	37	...	...	30	44	60
	1992 a/	77	...	...	75	87	84	39	...	...	33	49	67
	1994	76	...	...	74	85	83	41	...	...	33	53	70
Bolivia	1992	75	73	88	72	71	74	46	48	51	40	43	51
	1994	75	80	87	70	71	75	51	54	56	43	45	57
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	60	78
	1990	82	76	83	83	87	91	45	33	41	46	61	77
	1993	83	77	84	83	88	90	50	38	47	50	65	79
Colombia	1981	79	84	84	70	75	83	42	42	39	38	46	60
	1986	78	78	82	70	76	82	44	36	40	39	51	67
	1992	80	75	84	73	81	88	50	39	44	43	56	76
	1994	79	76	84	71	80	86	48	35	43	40	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	76	37	17	32	34	43	61
	1994	76	62	83	70	77	82	40	23	33	34	46	64
Chile	1987	70	59	73	64	71	80	32	18	25	26	33	60
	1992	75	63	75	70	77	84	37	21	28	30	37	64
	1994	75	59	74	67	79	80	38	21	28	29	40	58
Guatemala	1986	84	90	89	68	78	81	41	37	43	38	51	65
	1989	84	90	89	65	81	87	43	38	41	37	57	77
Honduras	1988	81	85	89	61	79	82	46	41	46	33	58	61
	1992	80	82	89	56	83	77	44	37	46	31	58	58
	1994	80	81	88	59	82	79	43	37	45	29	50	63
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
	1994	80	...	80	83	70	84	37	...	29	38	41	59
Panama	1979	76	74	84	67	74	81	45	23	41	39	51	75
	1986	73	73	81	65	67	80	40	15	32	33	47	67
	1991	74	67	78	69	73	81	43	21	31	37	49	71
	1994	79	70	81	74	78	88	47	18	34	41	52	73
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
	1994	86	70	91	83	85	90	55	37	54	49	59	77
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
	1994	75	41	74	84	82	83	47	17	36	56	61	74
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
	1994	78	73	85	76	75	76	38	22	33	35	44	58

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

a/ For these years, 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 of schooling.

Table 4

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION
BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, 1980 - 1994
(Percentages)

URBAN AREAS

COUNTRY	Total	Employers	Wage earners						Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector			Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical	
					Total w/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/			Establishments employing up to 5 persons
YEAR										
Argentina										
(Greater Buenos Aires)										
1980	100.0	5.5	69.2	-	69.2	6.4	46.0	12.8	25.3	22.4
1988	100.0	5.0	68.8	-	68.8	7.9	42.7	12.9	26.1	23.0
1990	100.0	5.4	69.2	-	69.2	9.1	43.0	12.6	25.4	21.8
1992	100.0	5.5	70.0	-	70.0	-	-	-	24.5	-
1994	100.0	4.8	70.2	-	70.2	-	-	-	25.0	-
Bolivia										
1989	100.0	2.2	53.9	17.9	36.0	3.1	14.4	12.7	44.0	41.8
1992	100.0	5.5	55.4	15.2	42.6	4.2	20.8	11.5	39.0	37.0
1994	100.0	7.5	54.0	12.8	41.2	4.9	17.2	13.9	38.4	36.8
Brazil d/										
1979	100.0	4.4	75.4	-	75.4	8.2	43.2	16.5	20.2	19.3
1987	100.0	4.0	74.1	-	74.1	8.7	40.1	18.3	21.8	20.6
1990	100.0	5.2	72.4	-	72.4	8.8	39.0	18.5	22.4	21.2
1993	100.0	4.2	68.1	-	70.9	7.5	32.1	23.0	24.9	23.6
Chile e/										
1990	100.0	2.5	73.8	-	73.8	12.1	54.7	-	23.7	21.7
1992	100.0	3.5	74.1	-	74.1	12.5	41.7	13.3	22.4	20.9
1994	100.0	3.2	72.7	-	72.7	14.1	39.4	13.2	24.0	22.0
Colombia (6 major cities)										
1980	100.0	4.0	69.6	10.6	59.1	4.9	47.4	-	26.4	24.6
1986	100.0	3.7	68.7	10.6	58.1	5.4	46.5	-	27.6	25.6
1990	100.0	4.2	69.5	10.4	59.2	6.9	46.8	-	26.3	23.9
1992	100.0	3.8	67.5	9.3	58.2	6.7	46.4	-	28.7	26.0
1994 f/	100.0	4.8	68.2	8.6	59.6	6.0	48.3	-	27.0	24.9
Costa Rica										
1981	100.0	3.9	77.3	29.9	47.5	4.6	26.0	11.8	18.7	17.8
1988	100.0	4.8	75.9	26.8	49.2	5.9	28.2	11.7	19.2	17.7
1990	100.0	5.5	74.8	25.0	49.7	5.8	29.5	10.0	19.7	18.2
1992	100.0	4.6	77.0	25.0	52.0	6.7	32.3	9.6	18.4	16.6
1994	100.2	6.8	74.8	22.6	52.2	7.0	29.8	11.5	18.6	16.8
Guatemala										
1986	100.0	4.5	62.1	13.8	48.3	6.2	17.5	15.3	33.3	32.5
1989	100.0	2.6	63.8	14.7	49.2	7.6	20.3	14.3	33.6	32.7
Honduras										
1990	100.0	1.5	65.5	14.4	51.1	4.9	26.3	13.2	33.0	31.6
1992	100.0	1.6	66.1	14.9	51.2	6.6	28.1	9.9	32.3	30.8
1994	100.0	4.1	65.1	11.3	53.7	6.8	30.4	11.1	30.8	29.5

Table 4 (concl.)

URBAN AREAS

COUNTRY	Total	Employers	Wage earners						Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector				Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons		
YEAR										
Mexico g/										
1984	100.0	2.6	71.9	-	71.9	4.8	64.5	-	25.5	24.8
1989	100.0	3.3	76.4	-	76.4	7.3	66.4	-	20.3	19.2
1992	100.0	4.8	76.8	-	76.8	6.6	47.9	19.0	18.4	17.4
1994	100.0	3.7	74.6	-	74.6	7.8	63.0	-	21.8	20.6
Panama										
1979	100.0	2.1	80.6	31.1	44.7	5.5	33.0	-	17.3	17.0
1986	100.0	1.9	75.7	27.4	48.3	3.6	32.3	5.5	22.4	21.9
1989	100.0	2.0	71.5	29.2	42.3	3.3	26.3	6.2	26.5	25.6
1991	100.0	3.4	73.1	26.6	46.5	4.1	30.0	5.4	23.5	22.5
1994	100.0	2.4	76.4	24.8	51.6	3.9	34.5	5.9	21.2	20.5
Paraguay (Asunción)										
1988	100.0	7.7	65.4	12.6	52.8	4.6	22.0	12.3	26.9	24.9
1990	100.0	9.2	66.3	12.9	53.4	5.1	21.1	15.8	24.5	22.9
1992	100.0	6.8	68.3	14.3	54.0	7.3	24.4	11.5	24.9	22.2
1994	100.0	9.4	67.1	11.7	55.4	6.3	24.3	13.3	23.6	22.0
Uruguay										
1981	100.0	4.6	76.7	23.7	53.0	2.6	35.4	8.0	18.7	17.1
1986	100.0	5.8	72.4	22.9	49.5	3.2	29.3	9.6	21.8	20.1
1990	100.0	4.5	74.2	21.8	52.4	3.6	31.5	10.4	21.3	19.3
1992	100.0	4.4	72.7	18.7	54.0	4.8	32.7	9.5	22.9	20.1
1994	100.0	4.9	72.3	18.7	53.6	5.4	31.4	10.0	22.9	20.1
Venezuela										
1981	100.0	6.0	75.0	24.8	50.2	4.6	34.4	7.7	19.0	18.4
1986	100.0	7.5	71.2	21.7	49.6	5.2	34.0	6.6	21.3	20.6
1990	100.0	7.5	70.0	22.5	47.5	5.7	31.3	6.5	22.5	21.5
1992	100.0	7.6	70.1	19.5	50.6	4.4	34.8	6.4	22.3	21.2
1994	100.0	6.1	64.3	18.0	46.3	4.7	28.2	9.4	29.4	27.8

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

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

b/ For Argentina (1992 and 1994), Chile (1990), Colombia, Mexico (1984, 1989 and 1994) and Panama (1979) no information was available on the size of business establishments. In those cases, wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations in establishments employing up to 5 workers are included in the figures for establishments employing over 5 workers.

c/ Includes workers in professional and technical occupations.

d/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments. Accordingly, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 persons corresponds to the percentage of workers who have an employment contract ("carteira") while the column for establishments employing 5 or fewer workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.

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

f/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

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

h/ Includes persons employed in the Panama Canal Zone.

Table 5

**LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY
ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, 1980 - 1994**
(Percentages)

RURAL AREAS

COUNTRY	Total	Employers	Wage earners			Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total a/	Public sector	Private sector	Total b/	Agriculture
YEAR							
Brazil							
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
1993	100.0	2.0	44.8		44.8	53.1	47.2
Chile c/							
1990	100.0	2.8	64.8	-	64.8	32.4	25.1
1992	100.0	3.6	64.8	-	64.8	31.6	23.1
1994	100.0	2.5	57.6	-	57.6	39.9	30.0
Colombia							
1994	100.0	4.5	54.1	-	54.1	41.2	22.4
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	100.0	5.1	67.5	10.1	57.4	27.5	15.1
1994	100.0	6.9	68.6	9.9	58.7	24.5	11.3
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
1994	100.0	1.6	37.2	4.8	32.4	61.2	43.4
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
1994	100.0	4.0	48.6	-	48.6	47.4	30.8
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
1994	100.0	3.2	47.0	11.8	35.2	49.8	34.4
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
1994	100.0	7.5	47.6	7.5	40.1	44.9	29.8

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

a/ Includes domestic employees. For Brazil, Chile and Mexico, also includes public-sector wage earners.

b/ Includes non-agricultural own-account workers.

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 Canal Zone.

Table 6

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION,
BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, 1980 - 1994
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)
URBAN AREAS

COUNTRY	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		
YEAR										
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	-
1994	8.6	28.3	6.5	-	6.5	-	-	-	10.8	-
Bolivia										
1989	4.1	16.1	3.6	4.1	3.4	7.6	3.9	2.7	4.1	3.9
1992	4.3	13.4	3.8	4.9	3.4	7.2	3.6	2.9	3.6	3.3
1994	3.8	11.4	3.5	4.3	3.3	7.2	3.7	2.3	2.7	2.5
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
1993	3.9	14.3	3.7	-	3.7	7.5	4.1	2.4	3.1	2.7
Chile d/										
1990	4.6	24.4	3.8	-	3.8	6.6	3.5	-	5.1	4.7
1992	5.3	29.5	4.2	-	4.2	7.9	3.5	2.7	5.8	5.3
1994	5.9	36.1	4.5	-	4.5	8.4	4.0	3.0	6.1	5.4
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
1994 e/	3.8	13.1	3.4	5.5	3.1	7.9	2.6	-	3.4	3.0
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
1994	5.7	10.8	5.5	7.9	4.5	8.2	4.4	3.6	4.4	4.0
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
1994	2.3	7.4	2.2	3.4	2.0	4.5	1.9	1.3	1.7	1.6

Table 6 (concl.)

URBAN AREAS

COUNTRY	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		
YEAR										
Mexico f/										
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
1994	4.4	18.3	3.9	-	3.9	6.3	3.8	-	3.7	3.4
Panama										
1979	5.6	12.5	5.9 g	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
1994	5.1	17.7	5.1	7.3	4.1	9.0	4.4	2.5	3.5	3.4
Paraguay (Asunción)										
1986	3.1	8.2	2.6	3.3	2.4	5.9	3.1	1.7	2.6	2.2
1990	3.4	10.2	2.4	3.4	2.2	3.9	2.9	1.8	3.8	3.6
1992	3.6	10.7	3.0	4.4	2.6	5.9	2.5	2.1	3.4	3.1
1994	3.6	10.1	3.0	4.4	2.7	6.7	2.7	2.0	2.8	2.4
Uruguay										
1981	6.0	23.6	4.3	5.0	4.0	6.9	4.0	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
1994	4.9	12.4	4.6	5.3	4.2	9.6	4.5	2.9	4.0	3.6
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
1994	3.8	8.9	3.2	2.7	3.4	6.3	3.6	2.1	4.1	3.9

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

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

b/ Includes own-account workers in professional and technical occupations.

c/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments. 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/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the countries. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

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

g/ Includes persons employed in the Canal Zone.

Table 7

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, 1980-1994
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)

RURAL AREAS

COUNTRY	Total	Employers	Wage earners			Own-account and unpaid family workers	
			Total a/	Public sector	Private sector	Total b/	Agriculture
YEAR							
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
1993	2.1	14.7	1.6	-	1.6	2.1	2.0
Chile c/							
1990	4.6	26.4	3.3	-	3.3	3.1	3.0
1992	4.3	26.2	3.3	-	3.3	3.6	3.6
1994	4.3	29.9	3.2	-	3.2	3.6	3.1
Colombia							
1994	2.5	5.8	2.8	-	2.8	1.9	2.3
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
1994	5.8	11.7	5.4	8.4	4.9	5.4	6.3
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
1994	2.0	8.6	2.1	4.2	1.8	1.8	1.8
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
1994	2.7	9.7	2.6	-	2.6	2.1	1.8
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
1994	3.5	13.8	4.1	6.7	3.2	2.2	1.6
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
1994	3.4	7.2	2.9	4.3	2.6	3.4	3.2

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

a/ For Brazil, Chile 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 Canal Zone.

Table 9
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): INCOME DISPARITY BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS a/

COUNTRY	YEAR	EARNED INCOME DISPARITY BY AGE GROUP b/						WAGE DISPARITY BY AGE GROUP c/					
		TOTAL		15 to 24		25 to 34		35 to 44		45 to 54		55 years or more	
		years	years	years	years	years	years	years	years	years	years	years	years
Argentina	1980	63	83	66	61	71	48	70	90	73	60	77	62
	1982	63	85	67	55	61	64	73	94	70	64	73	71
	1984	71	87	88	64	72	50	76	94	80	69	73	61
Bolivia	1982	53	63	63	45	61	39	64	76	78	59	89	58
	1984	54	61	61	58	44	40	61	60	71	68	56	40
Brazil	1979	44	64	51	39	38	40	54	69	60	49	50	55
	1980	55	73	64	54	46	35	65	77	72	63	56	51
	1983	56	74	65	53	43	46	61	77	69	57	46	54
Colombia	1980	57	94	66	55	44	38	77	108	81	69	59	59
	1982	69	95	75	67	58	59	82	103	90	76	69	74
	1984	68	97	80	69	52	48	83	104	90	82	67	57
Costa Rica	1981	73	100	77	63	75	54	83	101	82	74	87	66
	1982	72	88	76	70	62	48	81	92	85	78	71	59
	1984	69	82	76	64	60	55	75	84	79	70	65	77
Chile	1987	64	96	77	61	57	50	63	95	80	60	53	48
	1992	63	84	75	55	66	51	69	86	80	63	63	50
	1994	67	80	84	71	55	54	74	83	88	87	61	59
Honduras	1992	64	78	72	66	53	42	76	83	78	82	62	66
	1994	63	80	72	69	47	43	73	82	80	82	67	32
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
	1994	57	83	65	57	45	46	68	91	74	78	49	49
Panama	1979	71	79	77	74	62	53	67	74	75	69	59	48
	1991	80	76	90	83	73	74	80	71	89	86	74	67
	1994	71	81	77	73	58	54	75	80	86	73	63	52
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
	1994	60	73	71	58	68	33	64	77	71	58	70	47
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
	1994	61	76	65	58	56	51	63	76	66	59	60	51
Venezuela	1981	71	84	78	65	57	54	86	88	90	82	75	80
	1992	69	83	77	66	60	55	73	85	79	65	75	57
	1994	70	96	77	64	56	57	83	106	84	75	67	69

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

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 10
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): INCOME DISPARITY BY SEX AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN URBAN AREAS ^{a/}

COUNTRY	YEAR	EARNED INCOME DISPARITY					WAGE DISPARITY				
		BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING ^{b/}					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	70	63	64	67	63
	1982	63	...	63	61	51	73	...	...	...	...
	1984	71	...	62	65	63	76	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	1982	53	58	51	61	68	64	48	26	76	97
	1984	54	60	58	67	65	61	44	48	56	70
Brazil	1979	44	39	40	43	42	54	50	48	51	48
	1980	55	45	45	50	49	65	55	51	57	54
	1983	56	48	46	49	52	61	56	51	56	55
Colombia	1980	57	66	64	66	60	77	96	92	86	84
	1982	69	69	65	72	68	82	87	85	83	82
	1984	68	59	68	65	71	83	80	81	83	86
Costa Rica	1981	73	46	53	72	74	83	46	59	80	82
	1982	72	59	56	59	69	81	59	67	69	76
	1984	69	61	55	58	64	75	61	63	68	67
Chile	1987	64	79	73	81	67	63	80	74	83	68
	1982	63	63	66	65	72	69	73	68	67	74
	1984	67	94	70	69	69	70	83	67	66	72
Honduras	1982	64	57	62	63	71	76	60	68	73	79
	1984	63	60	65	66	67	73	57	70	80	74
Mexico ^{e/}	1984	64	...	59	73	60	80	...	73	73	61
	1982	55	...	52	66	63	72	...	70	80	79
	1984	57	...	58	65	70	68	...	59	78	76
Panama	1979	71	58	55	63	74	67	49	50	60	70
	1981	80	45	55	67	80	80	45	52	66	78
	1984	71	51	52	60	68	75	57	53	62	76
Paraguay	1983	50	67	53	57	55	50	45	44	46	59
	1982	65	67	65	70	68	77	74	78	66	78
	1984	60	64	59	66	67	64	64	59	66	75
Uruguay	1981	51	45	49	49	47	58	48	53	57	57
	1982	57	44	51	55	58	61	45	51	58	63
	1984	61	59	55	55	56	63	57	54	59	59
Venezuela	1981	71	58	59	70	74	86	69	73	80	81
	1982	69	59	58	66	64	73	63	62	72	74
	1984	70	68	62	70	63	84	83	75	90	71

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

^{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 11

**LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS
OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1980-1994**
(Percentage of the total employed urban population)

COUNTRY	TOTAL	MICRO-ENTERPRISES a/				DOMESTIC EMPLOYEES	UNSKILLED INDEPENDENT WORKERS b/		
		Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
			Total	Professional and technical	Non- professional, non-technical				
YEAR									
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
1994	47.8	3.4	14.7	-	-	4.8	24.9	6.2	18.6
Bolivia									
1989	62.5	1.1	13.8	1.1	12.7	5.8	41.8	9.9	30.6
1992	58.6	3.7	12.1	0.6	11.5	5.8	37.0	10.9	25.1
1994	62.9	6.2	14.7	0.8	13.9	5.2	36.8	9.1	27.1
Brazil d/									
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
1993	59.0	-	27.1	4.1	23.0	8.3	23.6	4.4	16.0
Chile e/									
1990	-	-	-	-	-	7.0	21.7	5.7	15.0
1992	44.3	2.0	14.8	1.5	13.3	6.6	20.9	5.6	14.4
1994	42.9	1.8	15.0	1.8	13.2	6.0	20.1	5.7	14.4
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
1994 g/	-	-	-	-	-	5.3	24.9	6.1	18.4
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
1994	38.8	5.2	12.9	1.4	11.5	3.9	16.8	4.7	11.2
Guatemala									
1988	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
1994	49.9	3.0	12.0	0.9	11.1	5.4	29.5	8.1	16.1

Table 11 (concl.)

COUNTRY	TOTAL	MICRO-ENTERPRISES a/				DOMESTIC EMPLOYEES	UNSKILLED INDEPENDENT WORKERS b/		
		Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
			Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical				
YEAR									
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
1994	-	3.3	-	-	-	3.8	20.6	4.3	15.0
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
1994	35.6	1.7	6.1	0.2	5.9	7.3	20.5	4.4	11.5
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
1994	55.2	7.1	14.6	1.3	13.3	11.5	22.0	5.4	15.9
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	9.6	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
1994	40.7	3.3	10.5	0.5	10.0	6.8	20.1	6.4	12.7
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
1994	43.2	4.2	9.8	0.4	9.4	4.0	25.2	6.0	19.2

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons (up to 4 persons in the cases of Panama and Venezuela).

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

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

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

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

f/ Includes employers in micro-enterprises.

g/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country.

Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

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

Table 12

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW
PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1980 - 1994
(In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)

COUNTRY	TOTAL	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employees	Unskilled independent workers b/		
		Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
			Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
YEAR									
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	-	-	-
1994	9.3	24.8	5.0	-	-	3.3	10.8	9.1	11.2
Bolivia									
1989	3.6	11.8	3.1	7.8	2.7	1.6	3.9	3.3	4.0
1992	3.4	11.7	3.0	6.9	2.9	1.2	3.2	2.9	3.5
1994	3.0	9.0	2.4	4.0	2.3	1.1	2.5	2.2	2.6
Brazil d/									
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
1993	2.6	-	3.1	6.7	2.4	1.0	2.7	2.4	3.0
Chile e/									
1990	-	-	-	-	-	1.4	4.7	3.9	5.1
1992	4.7	19.7	3.2	7.5	2.7	1.6	5.3	4.9	5.5
1994	4.9	18.4	3.5	6.9	3.0	1.9	5.4	4.9	5.9
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
1994 f/	-	-	-	-	-	1.7	2.9	2.6	2.9
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
1994	4.4	9.2	3.8	5.8	3.6	1.6	4.0	2.9	4.2
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
1994	1.6	4.8	1.4	2.5	1.3	0.5	1.6	1.1	1.7

Table 12 (concl.)

COUNTRY	TOTAL	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employees	Unskilled independent workers b/		
		Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
			Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
YEAR									
Mexico g/									
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
1994	-	13.8	-	-	-	1.2	3.4	2.9	3.7
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
1994	3.2	11.4	2.6	4.9	2.5	1.3	3.4	3.7	4.2
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
1994	3.0	8.7	2.3	4.9	2.0	1.3	2.4	2.0	2.6
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
1994	3.7	10.5	3.0	4.6	2.9	1.7	3.6	2.8	4.0
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
1994	3.7	7.5	2.2	4.9	2.1	1.9	3.9	3.8	4.1

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons (up to 4 persons in the cases of Panama and Venezuela). Where no information was available on the size of establishments, no data are given on the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.

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

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

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

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

f/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

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

Table 13

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1980-1994
(Percentage of the total employed urban population)

COUNTRY YEAR	MALE					WOMEN				
	TOTAL	Employers with less than 5 employees	Wage earners in establishments with less than 5 employees a/	Own-account and unpaid family workers a/	Domestic employees	TOTAL	Employers with less than 5 employees	Wage earners in establishments with less than 5 employees	Own-account and unpaid family workers a/	Domestic employees
Argentina 1980	47.1	3.1	9.8	33.2	1.0	52.6	1.6	10.7	30.2	10.1
Argentina 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
Argentina 1984	45.2	4.4	15.7 b/	24.7 b/	0.4	52.5	1.6	13.1 b/	25.5 b/	12.3
Bolivia 1982	48.5	5.2	15.3	27.4	0.6	71.7	1.7	6.1	50.7	13.2
Bolivia 1984	53.0	8.6	18.5	25.4	0.5	74.0	3.1	8.0	51.7	11.2
Brazil 1979	38.2	6.0	12.8 c/	19.0	0.4	49.6	1.2	7.1 c/	19.7	21.6
Brazil 1980	48.8	6.6	21.2 c/	20.6	0.4	52.3	2.4	12.2 c/	22.5	15.2
Brazil 1983	57.3	5.6	25.7 c/	25.2	0.8	61.5	1.8	18.7 c/	21.2	19.8
Colombia 1987	...	...	...	26.2	0.3	...	...	...	22.3	17.3
Colombia 1982	...	...	...	26.8	0.2	...	...	...	24.5	11.9
Colombia 1984	...	...	...	26.1	0.2	...	...	...	23.4	12.7
Costa Rica 1981	34.2	3.4	11.0	18.2	1.6	36.4	0.9	7.9	13.7	13.9
Costa Rica 1982	30.5	4.4	9.6	16.5	0.0	36.9	1.4	9.7	16.5	9.3
Costa Rica 1984	35.7	6.3	12.0	17.1	0.3	40.1	3.1	10.5	16.3	10.2
Chile 1987	...	...	...	25.8	0.2	...	...	...	24.2	21.8
Chile 1982	38.6	2.3	14.2	21.9	0.2	49.9	1.3	11.6	18.7	18.3
Chile 1984	39.6	2.0	14.6	22.9	0.1	49.3	1.6	10.8	20.4	16.5
Honduras 1982	43.4	1.0	13.2	28.8	0.4	54.7	0.4	5.1	33.5	15.7
Honduras 1984	45.4	4.1	14.4	26.9	0.0	54.8	1.5	6.0	33.6	13.7
Mexico 1984	...	...	...	24.2	0.5	...	...	...	27.7	7.5
Mexico 1982	41.0	4.6	20.5	15.4	0.5	48.5	2.0	16.1	21.6	8.8
Mexico 1984	...	4.4	...	18.1	0.6	...	1.4	...	25.1	9.6
Panama 1979	...	...	...	21.9	0.2	...	...	...	9.2	15.3
Panama 1981	39.0	3.4	6.1	28.9	0.6	35.0	1.3	4.3	11.6	17.8
Panama 1984	35.6	2.1	6.8	25.5	1.2	34.9	1.0	4.2	11.6	18.1
Paraguay 1983	42.3	8.3	16.5	17.1	0.4	70.3	3.1	6.5	31.9	28.8
Paraguay 1982	41.3	5.9	14.4	20.6	0.4	59.8	3.7	7.7	24.1	24.3
Paraguay 1984	46.7	8.8	18.2	18.1	1.6	63.0	4.9	7.0	26.8	24.3
Uruguay 1981	30.9	3.8	10.1	16.6	0.4	46.2	1.1	6.8	20.2	19.5
Uruguay 1982	34.4	3.6	10.3	20.4	0.1	46.2	1.3	8.4	19.8	16.7
Uruguay 1984	35.9	4.2	10.9	20.7	0.1	46.3	2.0	8.7	19.2	16.4
Venezuela 1981	43.3	6.0	15.6	19.9	1.8	37.6	1.1	8.4	14.9	13.2
Venezuela 1982	44.3	6.9	14.0	21.7	1.7	44.2	1.8	10.3	20.8	11.3
Venezuela 1984	47.8	5.8	11.0	29.5	1.5	40.9	1.2	6.0	24.3	9.4

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

a/ Excludes workers in professional and technical occupations.

b/ Includes workers in professional and technical occupations.

c/ Refers to workers without an employment contract ("carteira").

Table 14
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX
AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS a/
(1994)

COUNTRY	SEX	AGE GROUP				
		TOTAL	15 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 years and over
Argentina October/94	Total	13.0	22.8	10.0	10.5	10.3
	Men	11.5	20.3	8.8	7.3	10.5
	Women	15.5	26.7	11.9	15.4	10.0
Bolivia 2nd half/94	Total	3.2	5.8	2.8	2.0	2.1
	Men	3.4	6.3	2.5	2.1	2.9
	Women	2.9	5.2	3.2	1.9	0.9
Brazil September/93	Total	7.4	14.3	6.9	4.3	2.6
	Men	6.4	12.4	5.5	3.8	2.7
	Women	8.9	17.0	8.8	5.0	2.5
Colombia September/94	Total	8.0	16.2	7.6	4.7	3.3
	Men	5.4	11.9	4.4	3.4	2.9
	Women	11.6	21.0	11.6	6.3	4.2
Costa Rica July/94	Total	4.2	9.7	3.8	2.3	1.6
	Men	3.7	8.6	3.7	1.5	1.6
	Women	5.1	11.6	4.0	3.5	1.5
Chile November/94	Total	6.8	16.1	6.5	3.7	3.7
	Men	5.9	14.0	5.5	3.0	3.9
	Women	8.4	19.3	8.4	4.9	3.4
Honduras October/94	Total	4.1	7.1	3.6	3.1	1.3
	Men	4.5	7.5	3.7	4.1	2.0
	Women	3.4	6.6	3.6	1.3	0.1
Mexico 3rd quarter/94	Total	4.5	9.4	2.9	2.3	3.1
	Men	5.1	10.0	3.0	2.8	4.2
	Women	3.6	8.3	2.7	1.2	0.4
Panama August/94	Total	15.7	31.0	15.1	9.7	5.9
	Men	12.4	27.5	9.7	6.8	5.7
	Women	21.0	36.9	22.7	14.0	6.2
Paraguay August/September/94	Total	4.4	8.3	3.2	2.9	2.6
	Men	5.1	9.9	3.4	3.1	3.9
	Women	3.5	6.5	3.0	2.6	0.7
Uruguay 2nd quarter/94	Total	9.7	24.7	8.4	5.5	3.8
	Men	7.3	19.8	4.9	3.4	3.4
	Women	13.0	31.5	12.8	7.8	4.5
Venezuela 2nd quarter/94	Total	8.9	17.1	9.1	5.3	4.2
	Men	9.1	17.2	8.8	5.9	4.9
	Women	8.3	17.0	9.6	4.2	2.5

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

a/ Brazil, 1993.

Table 15
LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND
LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN URBAN AREAS a/
(1994)

COUNTRY	SEX	Years of schooling				
		TOTAL	0 to 5 years	6 to 9 years	10 to 12 years	13 or more years
Argentina October/94	Total	13.0		14.0	15.0	7.7
	Men	11.5		13.1	12.1	5.9
	Women	15.5		15.8	19.7	9.5
Bolivia 2nd half/94	Total	3.2	2.4	2.8	3.7	3.8
	Men	3.4	3.1	3.1	3.9	3.1
	Women	2.9	1.7	2.4	3.4	5.0
Brazil September/93	Total	7.4	6.5	11.0	7.3	3.3
	Men	6.4	5.9	8.9	5.9	2.4
	Women	8.9	7.4	14.4	8.8	4.2
Colombia September/94	Total	8.0	6.2	9.7	10.2	5.2
	Men	5.4	4.7	6.3	6.5	3.4
	Women	11.6	8.5	14.9	14.6	7.3
Costa Rica July/94	Total	4.2	9.7	3.8	2.3	1.6
	Men	3.7	8.6	3.7	1.5	1.6
	Women	5.1	11.6	4.0	3.5	1.5
Chile November/94	Total	6.8	5.9	8.1	7.8	4.4
	Men	5.9	5.8	7.4	6.5	3.3
	Women	8.4	6.2	9.6	10.2	6.0
Honduras October/94	Total	4.1	7.1	3.6	3.1	1.3
	Men	4.5	7.5	3.7	4.1	2.0
	Women	3.4	6.6	3.6	1.3	0.1
Mexico 3rd quarter/94	Total	4.5	3.9	5.0	5.0	3.5
	Men	5.1	5.4	5.7	5.1	2.7
	Women	3.6	1.2	3.6	4.8	5.1
Panama August/94	Total	15.7	9.6	16.0	19.7	12.5
	Men	12.4	9.6	13.2	13.9	9.9
	Women	21.0	9.3	21.6	27.7	15.1
Paraguay August/September/94	Total	4.4	5.2	5.2	4.5	1.3
	Men	5.1	7.6	6.2	4.1	1.1
	Women	3.5	2.5	3.8	4.9	1.5
Uruguay 2nd quarter/94	Total	9.7	5.7	12.4	9.5	4.9
	Men	7.3	5.2	9.1	6.1	4.0
	Women	13.0	6.5	17.5	13.3	5.6
Venezuela 2nd quarter/94	Total	8.9	7.9	9.8	9.1	6.7
	Men	9.1	8.2	10.4	9.0	5.9
	Women	8.3	7.1	8.5	9.2	7.8

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

a/ Brazil, 1993.

Table 16

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	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	-	-
	1994	-	12	10	16	-	-	2	2	3	-
Bolivia	1989	-	49	-	-	-	-	22	-	-	-
	1992	-	45	-	-	-	-	18	-	-	-
	1994	-	41	-	-	-	-	14	-	-	-
Brazil	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	42	37	28 b/	41	55	19	16	9 b/	19	30
	1993	41	39	31 b/	41	51	19	16	11 b/	18	30
Chile c/	1987	39	38	33	41	45	14	14	11	15	17
	1990	33	33	28	37	34	11	10	8	11	12
	1992	28	28	21	31	28	7	7	5	8	8
	1994	24	24	17	27	26	7	6	4	7	8
Colombia	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	-	-	-
	1992	-	38	-	-	-	-	15	-	-	-
	1993 d/	49	42	39	43	60	27	17	15	18	40
	1994 d/	47	41	35	43	57	25	16	12	18	38
Costa Rica	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
	1994	21	18	16	21	23	8	6	4	7	10
Guatemala	1980	65	41	26	52	79	33	13	5	19	44
	1986	68	54	45	59	75	43	28	20	31	53
	1990	-	-	-	-	72	-	-	-	-	45
Honduras	1986	71	53	-	-	81	51	28	-	-	64
	1990	75	65	-	-	84	54	38	-	-	66
	1992	73	66	-	-	79	50	38	-	-	59
	1994	73	70	-	-	76	49	41	-	-	55
Mexico	1984	34	28	... e/	... e/	45	11	7	... e/	... e/	20
	1989	39	34	-	-	49	14	9	-	-	23
	1992	36	30	-	-	46	12	7	-	-	20
	1994	36	29	-	-	47	12	6	-	-	20
Panama	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
	1994	30	25	23	35	41	12	9	8	13	20

Table 16 (concl.)

Country	Year	Households below the povert 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	
Paraguay	1986	...	...	46	...	...	...	...	16	...	...
	1990	...	...	37	...	...	...	...	10	...	...
	1992	...	...	36	...	...	...	...	13	...	...
Peru	1979	46	35	29	41	65	21	12	9	15	37
	1986	52	45	37	53	64	25	16	11	22	39
Uruguay	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	-
	1994	-	6	4	7	-	-	1	1	1	-
Venezuela	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	16
	1994	42.1	41	21	46.2	47.7	15	14	4	16	23
Latin America	1980	35	25	-	-	54	15	9	-	-	28
	1990	41	36	-	-	56	18	13	-	-	33
	1994	39	34	-	-	55	17	12	-	-	33

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

a/ Includes households below the indigence line.

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

c/ Calculations based on the 1987, 1990, 1992 and 1994 national socio-economic survey (CASEN) data.

Estimates adjusted for the latest figures for the household income and expenditure account from the Ministry of Planning and Cooperation (MIDEPLAN).

d/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country, plus the rural population. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

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

Table 17
LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN 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	LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES)														
	EXPRESSED IN TERMS OF THE POVERTY LINE														
	URBAN AREAS														
	ARGENTINA a/			BOLIVIA			BRAZIL			CHILE			COLOMBIA b/		
	1990	1992	1994	1989	1992	1994	1990	1993	1994	1990	1992	1994	1990	1992	1994
(Indigents) 0 - 0.5	3.5	1.4	1.5	22.1	17.5	14.1	15.9	16.3	10.3	7.1	6.3	11.9	17.4	16.2	7.3
0.5 - 0.9	10.6	6.5	6.6	23.1	22.7	21.9	17.7	18.4	19.0	16.8	13.6	18.7	20.2	20.3	11.2
0.9 - 1.0	2.1	1.9	2.1	4.1	5.1	5.2	3.8	4.0	4.5	3.9	3.8	4.0	4.4	4.1	3.7
(Poor)	18.2	9.8	10.2	49.3	45.3	41.2	37.4	38.7	33.8	27.8	23.7	34.6	42.0	40.6	22.2
1.0 - 1.25	7.3	4.6	7.4	9.0	9.1	9.9	8.0	8.8	9.5	9.5	8.4	9.7	9.1	9.1	7.9
1.25 - 2.0	22.5	19.6	16.7	16.4	18.0	20.0	15.6	19.0	20.3	20.7	20.7	19.1	17.9	18.2	21.9
2.0 - 3.0	18.7	18.6	19.0	10.6	12.0	11.9	11.8	11.6	14.3	15.7	16.5	13.4	12.4	12.6	20.2
Over 3.0	35.3	47.5	46.7	14.5	15.6	17.0	27.2	21.9	22.7	26.5	30.7	23.2	18.5	19.5	27.9
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	URBAN AREAS														
	HONDURAS			MEXICO			PANAMA			PARAGUAY c/			URUGUAY		
	1990	1992	1994	1989	1992	1994	1989	1991	1994	1990	1992	1994	1990	1992	1994
(Indigents) 0 - 0.5	38.0	38.3	40.8	9.3	6.9	6.2	14.8	13.9	8.7	10.4	13.2	2.0	1.4	1.1	1.1
0.5 - 0.9	22.7	24.7	24.5	19.8	18.5	16.2	15.7	15.5	13.2	21.7	17.1	7.0	4.5	3.4	17.5
0.9 - 1.0	3.8	2.6	4.3	4.8	4.0	4.6	3.5	4.2	3.4	4.7	5.3	2.8	1.8	1.3	5.0
(Poor)	64.5	65.6	69.6	33.9	29.4	26.0	34.0	33.6	25.3	36.8	35.6	11.8	7.7	5.8	33.4
1.0 - 1.25	8.2	7.9	7.6	11.0	9.7	10.8	8.4	8.5	7.7	13.6	10.4	7.1	4.8	3.6	10.9
1.25 - 2.0	12.0	12.7	12.0	22.3	21.4	21.8	17.8	17.0	19.2	19.6	21.1	22.7	18.5	15.4	21.5
2.0 - 3.0	6.5	5.6	5.1	13.1	15.6	14.4	14.2	13.7	16.5	14.2	15.0	23.1	22.8	23.2	14.8
Over 3.0	8.8	8.2	5.8	19.6	23.9	24.0	25.6	27.2	31.3	15.9	18.0	35.3	46.2	52.0	19.4
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

c/ Asunción.

Table 18

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

COUNTRY	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage earners	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	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
YEAR								
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)								
1990	21	10	-	12 b/	15	21	8	6
1992	13	5	-	6 b/	7	8	3	2
1994	13	5	-	5 b/	7	10	4	3
Bolivia								
1989	53	39	-	41	52	31	46	39
1992	50	37	-	41	45	25	48	42
1994	47	37	30	40	51	30	46	39
Brazil c/								
1990	42	34	-	30	46	53	43	37
1993	46	37	-	31	47	55	50	38
Chile								
1990	38	26	-	31 d/	-	37	28	23
1992	33	22	-	27 b/	33	26	19	16
1994	28	18	-	21 b/	28	23	19	14
Colombia (8 major cities)								
1990	39	29	-	36 e/	-	27	30	34
1992	43	32	-	40 e/	-	28	37	37
1994 f/	45	34	15	41 e/	-	31	42	42
Costa Rica								
1990	25	15	-	15	22	28	28	24
1992	27	17	-	16	31	42	22	22
1994	21	12	5	11	19	25	24	18
Guatemala								
1989	53	42	-	15	54	42	47	34
Honduras								
1990	70	60	-	56	75	51	81	72
1992	71	60	-	62	78	52	79	71
1994	75	66	42	71	83	56	84	77
Mexico								
1989	42	33	-	36 d/	-	60	29 g/	-
1992	37	29	-	26 b/	45	51	31 g/	-
1994	37	29	-	33 d/	-	56	27 g/	-
Panama								
1989	41	28	-	22	34	31	43	43
1991	40	26	-	22	38	31	42	38
1994	31	18	6	16	30	28	26	25

Table 18 (concl.)

COUNTRY	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage earners	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	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
YEAR								
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
1994	10	6	2	6	7	13	12	7
Venezuela								
1990	39	22	-	23	33	30	25	22
1992	36	21	-	25	32	35	17	17
1994	47	32	38	29	48	41	32	32

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

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

b/ Refers to all wage earners.

c/ 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.

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

e/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

f/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

g/ Refers to all non-professional, non-technical own-account workers.

Table 19

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES a/
(Percentages)
RURAL AREAS

COUNTRY	YEAR	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage earners b/	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	Domestic employees	Total	Agriculture, forestry and fisheries
Brazil c/	1990	62	55	-	34	58	55	62	65
	1993	61	55	-	41	62	54	55	55
Chile	1990	40	26	-	31 d/	-	23	22	24
	1992	33	22	-	24 e/	30	21	18	20
	1994	32	21	-	22	27	14	22	25
Colombia	1994	62	55	-	55 e/	-	57	61	59
Costa Rica	1990	27	17	-	13	23	22	24	27
	1992	28	16	-	11	21	25	22	25
	1994	25	14	7	9	20	23	21	24
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
	1994	81	73	40	65	79	74	78	81
Mexico	1989	57	49	-	53 f/	-	50	47	54
	1992	55	47	-	43 e/	59	37	47	55
	1994	57	47	-	53 e/ f/	-	53	46	54
Panama	1989	57	46	-	22	45	42	61	67
	1991	51	40	-	24	43	43	52	57
	1994	49	38	6	23	39	40	52	61
Venezuela	1990	47	31	-	35	37	44	32	37
	1992	44	28	-	10	35	35	27	34
	1994	56	42	27	50	50	53	42	44

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

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

b/ In 1994, public-sector wage earners were also considered separately.

c/ 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.

d/ Refers to all wage earners.

e/ Includes public-sector wage earners.

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

Table 20

**LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY
BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY**
(Percentages of total employed urban population living in poverty)
URBAN AREAS

COUNTRY	Public-sector wage earners a/	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Non-professional non-technical own-account workers		TOTAL b/
		In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
YEAR							
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)							
1980	-	68	17	5	4	4	98
1988	-	45	19	8	11	16	99
1990	-	46	14	8	11	18	97
1992	-	62 c/	-	8	4	7	81
1994	-	52	22	10	6	10	100
Bolivia							
1989	18	15	17	5	12	31	98
1992	13	23	14	4	14	29	97
1994	12	19	19	4	12	29	95
Brazil d/							
1979	-	38	17	10	3	13	81
1987	-	33	20	11	5	16	85
1990	-	35	21	10	5	17	88
1993	-	27	29	12	6	17	91
Chile							
1990	-	65 c/	-	10	6	13	94
1992	-	52	20	8	5	11	96
1994	-	46	20	8	6	12	92
Colombia (8 major cities)							
1980	-	64 c/	-	2	9	16	91
1988	-	61 c/	-	5	6	18	90
1990	-	58 c/	-	5	6	21	90
1992	-	58 c/	-	4	8	22	92
1994 e/	4	58 c/	-	5	8	22	97
Costa Rica							
1981	-	33	19	11	7	10	80
1988	-	31	19	9	6	12	77
1990	-	28	13	8	12	17	78
1992	-	32	18	9	8	13	80
1994	11	28	18	9	10	18	94
Guatemala							
1986	-	17	15	7	9	16	64
1989	-	19	16	7	9	13	64
Honduras							
1990	-	27	17	6	12	23	85
1992	-	29	13	6	10	22	80
1994	7	33	14	5	10	19	88
Mexico							
1984	-	62 c/	-	5	15 f/	-	82
1989	-	72 c/	-	5	14 f/	-	91
1992	-	43	29	6	16 f/	-	94
1994	-	71 c/	-	7	17 f/	-	95

Table 20 (concl.)

COUNTRY	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Non-professional non-technical own-account workers		TOTAL b/
		In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
Panama							
1979	-	30 c/	-	7	7	15	59
1986	-	19	4	7	8	13	51
1989	-	18	6	8	7	18	57
1991	-	25	8	8	7	16	64
1994	9	30	19	14	7	19	98
Paraguay (Asunción)							
1986	-	25	17	11	10	21	84
1990	-	26	24	10	7	16	83
1992	-	34	15	11	7	18	85
Uruguay							
1981	-	40	11	21	3	9	84
1986	-	31	18	17	7	10	83
1990	-	24	17	15	10	15	81
1992	-	27	14	17	9	17	84
1994	8	32	13	16	13	15	97
Venezuela							
1981	-	25	8	5	9	23	70
1986	-	29	9	5	7	20	70
1990	-	32	10	6	5	16	69
1990	-	42	10	8	4	13	77
1994	21	26	14	5	6	19	91

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

a/ In 1994, public-sector wage earners were also considered separately.

b/ The totals are less than 100% owing to the exclusion of employers, professionals and technicians, and public-sector wage earners, except in 1994.

c/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

d/ 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.

e/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

f/ Refers to all non-professional, non-technical own-account workers.

Table 21

LATIN AMERICA (9 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY,
BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY
(Percentages of total employed rural population living in poverty)
RURAL AREAS

COUNTRY	YEAR	Public-sector wage earners a/	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Non-professional, non-technical own-account workers		TOTAL b/
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employees	Total	Agriculture	
Brazil c/								
	1979	-	6	25	2	66	62	99
	* 1987	-	8	29	3	59	52	99
	1990	-	9	25	4	60	53	98
	1993	-	7	35	3	53	48	98
Chile								
	1990	-	69 d/	-	3	27	23	99
	1992	-	41	30	3	25	21	99
	1994	-	36	21	2	41	35	100
Colombia								
	1994	-	47 d/	-	4	45	24	96
Costa Rica								
	1981	-	29	36	10	20	14	95
	1988	-	20	28	8	36	28	92
	1990	-	25	23	6	41	27	95
	1992	-	24	23	7	38	24	92
	1994	5	20	28	7	35	19	95
Guatemala								
	1986	-	22	16	2	59	49	99
	1989	-	22	12	2	62	52	98
Honduras								
	1990	-	11	17	2	68	51	98
	1992	-	15	12	2	66	48	95
	1994	3	14	15	2	66	49	99
Mexico								
	1984	-	43 d/	-	2	53	45	98
	1989	-	50 d/	-	3	45	38	98
	1992	-	21	28	2	44	33	95
	1994	-	50 d/	-	3	45	35	98
Panama								
	1979	-	13 d/	-	2	80	73	95
	1986	-	11	16	4	64	54	95
	1989	-	7	10	3	78	69	98
	1991	-	9	9	3	75	65	96
	1994	3	10	15	4	68	56	100
Venezuela								
	1981	-	15	7	2	68	53	92
	1986	-	19	9	2	63	52	93
	1990	-	28	14	3	48	39	93
	1992	-	35	13	4	40	32	92
	1994	5	23	19	6	45	31	98

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

a/ In 1994, public-sector wage earners were also considered separately

b/ The totals are less than 100% owing to the exclusion of employers, professionals and technicians, and public-sector wage earners, except in 1994.

c/ 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

d/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

Table 22
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
	1994	24	22	20	24	100.0	1.0	7.5	91.1
Bolivia	1992	18	21	18	17	100.0	21.1	28.4	50.6
	1994	18	20	17	18	100.0	15.5	25.8	58.7
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
	1993	22	23	21	22	100.0	17.1	21.5	61.4
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
	1994	24	24	24	24	100.0	16.1	24.0	59.9
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
	1994	24	42	27	22	100.0	9.8	14.0	76.2
Chile	1987	23	27	23	22	100.0	16.1	24.1	59.8
	1992	22	24	21	22	100.0	7.8	19.7	72.6
	1994	22	27	21	23	100.0	7.5	15.9	76.5
Guatemala	1987	20	23	19	20	100.0	30.9	24.8	44.3
	1989	22	23	21	22	100.0	24.2	24.3	51.5
Honduras	1988	28	39	26	23	100.0	38.5	23.6	37.9
	1992	29	35	30	21	100.0	46.4	28.6	25.0
	1994	25	28	25	21	100.0	45.8	29.2	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
	1994	17	11	16	18	100.0	4.0	21.3	74.7
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
	1994	25	35	25	24	100.0	12.1	16.2	71.7
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
	1994	27	21	23	27	100.0	0.8	4.0	95.1
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
	1994	25	34	28	21	100.0	18.7	30.8	50.5

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

Table 23
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
	YEAR						(Percentages)						(Percentages)	
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
	1994	4.91	-	-	0.439	-	6.8	-	13.9	-	34.2	-	9.8	72
(urban areas)	1994	4.53	-	-	0.438	-	7.0	-	14.4	-	34.6	-	9.7	73
Bolivia d/ (17 cities)	1989	1.77	-	-	0.484	-	5.4	-	12.1	-	38.2	-	12.6	71
	1992	2.06	-	-	0.467	-	6.5	-	13.3	-	38.3	-	11.5	73
	1994	2.15	-	-	0.434	-	7.5	-	15.1	-	35.4	-	9.3	74
	1994	2.15	-	-	0.434	-	7.5	-	15.1	-	35.4	-	9.3	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
	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
	1990	3.24	1.62	0.535	0.458	4.5	7.1	9.6	14.4	41.7	38.0	17.3	10.5	75
	1993	2.74	1.83	0.512	0.476	5.5	6.2	11.8	13.4	42.5	41.9	14.5	12.5	76
	1993	2.74	1.83	0.512	0.476	5.5	6.2	11.8	13.4	42.5	41.9	14.5	12.5	76
Chile e/	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
	1990	2.68	2.93	0.471	0.486	6.6	6.8	13.4	13.8	39.2	45.1	11.7	11.6	74
	1992	3.10	2.72	0.474	0.415	6.7	8.5	13.6	16.6	40.5	37.4	11.9	9.0	75
	1994	3.46	2.75	0.479	0.414	6.4	8.7	13.4	17.1	40.3	38.4	12.1	9.0	74
	1994	3.46	2.75	0.479	0.414	6.4	8.7	13.4	17.1	40.3	38.4	12.1	9.0	74
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	-	13.6	-	34.9	-	10.2	-	73
	1992	2.44	-	0.454	-	5.9	-	12.9	-	34.5	-	10.7	-	72
	1993 f/	2.51	1.44	0.518	0.505	5.1	3.6	11.2	10.0	43.8	37.6	15.6	15.1	77
1994 f/	2.52	1.53	-	0.505	0.494	5.3	3.7	11.6	10.0	41.9	34.6	14.5	13.8	76

Table 23 (cont.)

COUNTRY	YEAR	Average house- hold 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	6.2	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
	1994	3.09	2.59	0.363	0.372	8.3	7.6	17.4	17.1	27.5	28.5	6.3	6.6	69	69
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	7.1	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
	1994	1.08	0.88	0.459	0.467	6.2	5.1	13.3	12.1	37.2	36.2	11.2	11.9	73	71
Mexico g/															
	1984	2.33	1.75	0.321	0.323	10.5	8.2	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	5.5	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	6.3	16.6	19.4	34.8	28.9	8.4	6.0	73	72
	1994	2.76	1.68	0.405	0.330	9.0	11.0	16.8	20.1	34.3	27.1	8.2	5.4	74	71
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	7.7	13.3	15.0	34.2	35.6	10.3	9.5	71	72
	1994	3.40	2.16	0.451	0.411	6.4	7.7	13.8	15.5	37.4	33.1	10.9	8.5	73	71

Table 23 (concl.)

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
		(Percentages)													
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	1.81	-	0.404	-	8.0	-	16.3	-	31.8	-	7.8	-	71	-
	1990	1.92	-	0.357	-	9.4	-	18.6	-	28.9	-	6.2	-	68	-
	1992	2.02	-	0.391	-	7.8	-	16.2	-	29.2	-	7.2	-	68	-
	1994	-	-	0.417	-	8.3	-	16.2	-	35.2	-	8.7	-	74	-
	1994 (urban areas)	-	-	0.423	-	5.7	-	16.1	-	35.2	-	8.7	-	73	-
Uruguay	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	-
	1994	4.06	-	0.300	-	11.8	-	21.6	-	25.4	-	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
	1994	1.90	1.58	0.387	0.349	8.4	9.3	16.7	18.6	31.4	29.3	7.5	6.1	71	69

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

a/ Average monthly per capita household income divided by the per capita poverty line.

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

c/ Percentage of total income received by the 25% of all households having the lowest incomes.

d/ Both the 1989 and 1992 surveys include the eight departmental capitals and El Alto. The 1989 survey also includes eight other cities, which represented 8.2% of the total.

e/ 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).

f/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban and rural population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

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

Table 24

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59
YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED
(Percentages)

COUNTRY	YEAR	URBAN AREAS			RURAL AREAS		
		Years of schooling			Years of schooling		
		0 to 5 years	6 to 9 years	10 or more	0 to 5 years	6 to 9 years	10 or more
Argentina a/	80	28.8	48.9	22.2	...	...	...
	90	12.4	51.6	35.8	...	...	...
	92	11.3	51.6	37.1	...	...	...
	94	10.3	51.2	38.5	...	...	...
Bolivia b/	89	35.3	16.2	48.5	...	...	...
	92	31.0	18.7	50.3	...	...	...
	94	29.4	18.4	52.2	...	...	...
Brazil	79	70.2	12.7	17.1	96.7	1.9	1.4
	87	53.3	18.2	28.5	86.9	7.3	5.8
	90	55.5	17.1	27.5	89.2	6.3	4.5
	93	53.3	19.0	27.7	88.5	6.6	4.9
Colombia c/	80	52.4	22.3	25.3	...	...	...
	90	37.4	23.4	39.2	...	...	...
	92	34.3	23.0	42.8	...	...	...
	94	35.4	23.0	41.6	76.0	12.1	11.9
Costa Rica	81	27.2	41.5	31.3	58.1	33.5	8.4
	90	16.9	40.9	42.3	40.3	45.2	14.5
	92	15.0	39.6	45.4	35.5	48.0	16.5
	94	14.1	39.4	46.5	34.8	49.2	16.0
Chile	87	18.7	29.6	51.7	50.7	35.5	13.8
	90	15.7	29.5	54.7	43.8	37.5	18.8
	92	15.5	28.3	56.2	43.8	38.4	17.8
	94	13.9	23.9	62.2	39.6	38.7	21.7
Guatemala	86	52.8	26.3	21.0	92.8	5.9	1.3
	89	51.5	26.6	21.9	90.7	7.3	1.9
Honduras	88	40.1	30.8	29.6	83.2	13.2	3.7
	92	35.7	32.9	31.4	71.2	22.2	6.6
	94	34.9	34.5	30.6	69.9	25.1	5.0
Mexico	89	29.6	47.1	23.3	70.0	25.2	4.8
	92	24.8	49.5	25.7	68.0	28.0	4.0
	94	23.0	48.4	28.6	63.3	31.4	5.3
Panama	79	18.2	47.8	34.0	57.4	36.6	6.0
	89	14.5	42.0	43.5	40.4	42.7	16.9
	91	13.7	39.4	46.9	37.6	43.9	18.5
	94	11.1	39.7	49.2	35.0	44.8	20.2
Paraguay d/	86	21.6	37.5	40.9	...	...	...
	90	16.9	40.5	42.7	...	...	...
	92	18.1	36.5	45.4	...	...	...
	94	17.6	41.7	40.7	...	...	...
Uruguay	81	26.6	46.4	27.0	...	...	...
	90	17.2	46.1	36.7	...	...	...
	92	15.3	46.4	38.3	...	...	...
	94	14.5	46.3	39.2	...	...	...
Venezuela	81	30.0	49.4	20.6	73.5	22.8	3.8
	90	19.4	48.3	32.3	61.0	32.4	6.6
	92	17.1	47.9	35.0	55.0	34.0	11.0
	94	18.5	45.7	35.8	53.9	36.3	9.8

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

a/ The categories of educational levels used here were primary school uncompleted, primary school completed/secondary school uncompleted and secondary school completed and over. Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

b/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

c/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

d/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

Table 25

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): NON-INDEPENDENT 20- TO 24-YEAR
OLDS WHO DO NOT ATTEND SCHOOL AND HAVE COMPLETED LESS
THAN 10 YEARS OF SCHOOLING, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL
(Percentages)

COUNTRY	YEAR	URBAN AREAS Income level				RURAL AREAS Income level			
		TOTAL	Q1	Q4	DIFFERENCE (Q1 - Q4)	TOTAL	Q1	Q4	DIFFERENCE (Q1 - Q4)
Argentina a/	80	27.0	56.1	11.4	44.7	...	...	...	...
	92	44.4	67.1	24.1	43.0	...	...	...	...
	94	38.4	58.0	22.8	35.2	...	...	...	...
Bolivia b/	89	17.4	20.8	10.9	9.9	...	...	...	...
	92	16.4	16.9	9.6	7.3	...	...	...	...
	94	13.5	17.1	8.0	9.1	...	...	...	...
Brazil	79	52.6	74.5	23.7	50.8	85.4	86.8	79.5	7.3
	90	52.6	73.8	19.9	53.9	84.5	88.4	76.2	12.2
	93	51.6	69.2	20.4	48.8	81.3	89.4	68.9	20.5
Colombia c/	80	43.8	64.5	16.2	48.3	...	...	...	...
	92	32.6	54.1	9.9	44.2	...	...	...	...
	94	30.9	52.5	8.9	43.6	70.7	83.3	62.3	21.0
Costa Rica	88	39.8	62.9	20.5	42.4	70.9	73.4	65.2	8.2
	92	34.9	58.7	9.8	48.9	74.3	81.8	64.4	17.4
	94	35.4	49.8	15.4	34.4	75.7	82.4	62.6	19.8
Chile	87	22.7	42.6	6.0	36.6	73.0	83.2	58.3	24.9
	92	20.5	38.4	8.2	30.2	62.8	70.7	51.7	19.0
	94	17.0	34.2	5.2	29.0	57.2	68.5	38.2	30.3
Honduras	88	49.7	70.0	24.0	46.0	90.4	97.9	78.4	19.5
	92	54.1	73.6	26.0	47.6	85.9	96.0	63.5	32.5
	94	55.8	73.3	27.7	45.6	88.0	93.3	79.8	13.5
Mexico	89	53.6	73.8	31.7	42.1	85.2	92.3	80.3	12.0
	92	51.0	82.2	20.0	62.2	85.4	93.4	74.3	19.1
	94	51.0	75.0	17.3	57.7	87.5	91.2	80.2	11.0
Panama d/	79	39.8	54.1	25.0	29.1	72.2	85.9	53.4	32.5
	92	32.3	48.2	10.0	38.2	58.6	74.8	33.5	41.3
	94	31.8	46.4	7.5	38.9	59.3	72.5	26.7	45.8
Paraguay d/ e/	86	41.1	53.1	23.4	29.7	...	...	...	...
	92	30.0	52.4	16.8	35.6	...	...	...	...
	94	36.0	69.0	13.0	56.0	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	81	52.8	79.1	27.0	52.1	...	...	...	...
	92	38.0	62.7	13.1	49.6	...	...	...	...
	94	42.0	63.8	7.9	55.9	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	81	55.9	62.6	42.4	20.2	86.0	86.8	80.4	6.4
	92	45.7	57.3	26.0	31.3	77.4	81.8	67.2	14.6
	94	44.6	57.8	27.5	30.3	79.0	91.4	70.0	21.4

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

a/ The figures are for categories of incomplete education up to that of secondary school uncompleted, instead of 9 or fewer years of schooling. Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

b/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and departmental capitals.

c/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

d/ Owing to the design of the survey, the data for these countries are for young people who did not describe themselves as students and have completed 9 or fewer years of schooling.

e/ Data are for Asunción and the Central Department only.

Table 26

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): MALES AGED 15 TO 24 WHO
NEITHER WORK NOR ATTEND SCHOOL, BY HOUSEHOLD
INCOME LEVEL
(Percentages)

COUNTRY	YEAR	URBAN AREAS (Income level)				RURAL AREAS (Income level)			
		TOTAL	Q 1	Q 4	DIFFERENCE (Q1-Q4)	TOTAL	Q 1	Q 4	DIFFERENCE (Q1-Q4)
Argentina a/	80	10.7	17.1	5.8	11.3	...	...	...	...
	86	9.3	19.3	2.0	17.3	...	...	...	...
	92	12.9	27.8	6.0	21.8	...	...	...	...
	94	16.3	34.3	4.9	29.4	...	...	...	...
Bolivia b/	89	8.9	14.3	7.2	7.1	...	...	...	...
	92	5.5	10.2	3.3	6.9	...	...	...	...
	94	4.4	8.7	3.5	5.2	...	...	...	...
Brazil	79	10.6	19.8	4.3	15.5	4.3	5.3	3.0	2.3
	87	11.0	21.7	5.3	16.4	5.1	6.6	3.5	3.1
	90	11.4	21.3	4.4	16.9	5.4	7.7	3.9	3.8
	93	12.8	20.7	5.6	15.1	5.5	7.1	3.7	3.4
Colombia c/	80	12.1	20.4	4.7	15.7	...	...	...	...
	90	16.0	27.7	8.3	19.4	...	...	...	...
	92	12.8	21.2	5.0	16.2	...	...	...	...
	94	10.5	18.0	5.1	12.9	6.8	9.4	4.2	5.2
Costa Rica	88	11.3	25.8	5.8	20.0	12.5	24.5	4.7	19.8
	90	11.0	26.9	3.8	23.1	11.1	23.7	2.7	21.0
	92	8.8	21.1	3.3	17.8	9.8	19.2	4.2	15.0
	94	8.7	17.6	3.6	14.0	10.2	23.8	3.9	19.9
Chile	87	18.2	27.5	10.0	17.5	21.1	32.6	9.5	23.1
	90	16.5	26.4	7.4	19.0	16.2	28.0	8.1	19.9
	92	12.6	23.7	6.8	16.9	15.4	27.1	7.0	20.1
	94	14.2	24.7	6.9	17.8	16.1	27.8	7.2	20.6
Guatemala	86	11.5	17.9	8.0	9.9	6.4	13.4	4.9	8.5
	89	9.4	12.6	5.9	6.7	5.1	8.5	3.5	5.0
Honduras	88	17.1	29.0	6.4	22.6	8.4	7.1	11.3	-4.2
	90	14.6	26.8	7.9	18.9	7.9	5.1	9.5	-4.4
	92	13.2	26.4	3.1	23.3	10.5	7.9	11.1	-3.2
	94	13.4	25.3	5.9	19.4	8.6	10.8	6.3	4.5
Mexico	89	11.1	18.0	5.6	12.4	7.4	10.9	2.5	8.4
	92	12.3	18.5	8.3	10.2	10.1	10.1	9.0	1.1
	94	11.7	22.5	6.0	16.5	9.5	11.5	4.5	7.0
Panama d/	79	23.9	39.7	10.9	28.8	10.0	9.6	9.1	0.5
	89	24.1	31.8	10.1	21.7	14.2	11.8	12.9	-1.1
	91	21.3	29.4	7.9	21.5	12.9	15.7	14.1	1.6
	94	19.0	23.8	2.7	21.1	14.8	17.1	6.3	10.8
Paraguay d/ e/	88	16.4	24.1	3.2	20.9	...	...	...	...
	90	21.9	33.3	11.8	21.5	...	...	...	...
	92	11.5	20.9	6.5	14.4	...	...	...	...
	94	9.5	26.0	5.8	20.2	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	81	12.0	21.1	4.1	17.0	...	...	...	...
	89	13.2	20.6	4.5	16.1	...	...	...	...
	92	13.8	24.6	2.9	21.7	...	...	...	...
	94	15.5	26.9	6.6	20.3	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	81	15.0	23.8	8.3	15.5	10.9	11.9	8.5	3.4
	90	20.6	31.7	10.5	21.2	14.3	19.3	10.2	9.1
	92	15.5	25.2	7.5	17.7	12.5	22.6	7.1	15.5
	94	15.2	25.1	7.4	17.7	11.8	14.6	14.5	0.1

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

a/ Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

b/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and departmental capitals.

c/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

d/ Owing to the design of the survey, the data for these countries are for males who did not describe themselves as students and did not state that they were working.

e/ Data are for Asunción and Central Department only.

Table 27

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): 13- TO 17-YEAR-OLDS WHO NEITHER
WORK NOR ATTEND SCHOOL, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME
LEVEL
(Percentages)

COUNTRY	YEAR	URBAN AREAS Income level					RURAL AREAS Income level				
		TOTAL	Q.1	Q.2	Q.3	Q.4	TOTAL	Q.1	Q.2	Q.3	Q.4
Argentina a/	80	15.9	25.0	16.6	8.4	8.2	...	...	...	...	...
	92	13.3	24.6	11.7	6.4	6.5	...	...	...	...	...
	94	14.2	23.3	14.9	9.9	1.8	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia b/	89	4.1	5.9	4.1	2.8	3.3	...	...	...	...	...
	92	3.2	5.0	3.2	2.7	1.5	...	...	...	...	...
	94	3.4	4.9	3.7	2.4	2.2	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil	79	12.6	18.5	13.1	9.2	4.4	16.5	16.4	17.6	17.1	14.2
	90	12.1	19.4	12.0	7.0	3.6	15.7	16.9	17.0	15.6	11.9
	93	11.3	17.2	11.6	6.8	2.7	12.4	13.1	13.3	12.5	8.0
Colombia c/	80	9.9	14.0	11.0	7.6	3.4	...	...	...	...	...
	92	9.1	16.0	8.9	5.3	1.3	...	...	...	...	...
	94	8.7	12.7	9.4	5.8	3.5	16.8	21.2	17.5	14.3	12.0
Costa Rica	88	14.6	22.9	15.9	10.2	4.1	31.2	37.4	34.5	27.3	23.5
	92	12.4	19.0	12.8	7.1	5.8	23.8	31.7	24.4	21.3	13.5
	94	10.7	17.1	12.1	4.6	1.3	22.2	29.5	24.1	18.2	14.1
Chile	87	7.3	12.0	5.9	4.2	2.0	23.1	28.3	22.0	19.9	12.5
	92	5.9	9.5	6.1	3.0	1.2	18.4	24.2	17.5	16.7	7.9
	94	6.2	9.8	6.6	3.9	0.9	16.6	23.4	15.5	12.4	6.9
Honduras	88	16.8	24.5	21.2	11.7	6.5	29.4	31.8	28.1	28.6	28.7
	92	18.6	25.1	23.7	13.8	6.8	26.7	28.7	28.6	29.2	17.1
	94	17.0	25.8	23.5	10.5	4.2	28.1	32.2	29.8	28.2	20.0
Mexico d/	89	15.2	19.6	12.7	13.8	10.4	28.3	34.3	29.5	22.6	23.4
	92	15.1	18.7	11.1	12.4	4.4	26.4	34.9	26.1	22.2	17.4
	94	14.3	22.2	12.7	9.6	2.4	26.1	31.1	26.2	19.8	17.5
Panama	94	10.7	14.1	4.0	1.6	0.5	19.7	24.0	12.7	7.3	3.4
Paraguay d/ e/	90	29.1	33.8	33.9	23.5	20.2	...	...	...	...	...
	94	10.8	20.8	3.0	4.9	2.7	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay f/	81	15.7	25.3	15.0	6.5	5.2	...	...	...	...	...
	92	13.2	22.3	9.4	4.9	1.4	...	...	...	...	...
	94	17.8	26.4	14.3	9.0	3.7	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	81	13.2	15.2	14.6	11.9	7.8	19.5	18.2	17.8	22.8	20.7
	92	12.8	15.7	13.7	10.9	7.8	20.1	23.7	20.1	17.7	16.2
	94	11.7	14.2	11.7	10.2	7.5	21.0	25.7	19.8	17.2	20.8

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

a/ Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

b/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and departmental capitals.

c/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

d/ Owing to the design of the survey, the data are for persons who did not describe themselves as students and did not state that they were working.

e/ Includes data for Asunción and Central Department only.

f/ Owing to the design of the survey, the data are for 14- to 17-year-olds.

Table 28

LATIN AMERICA (10 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AGED 0 TO 5 AND 6 TO 14
RESIDING IN HOUSEHOLDS WITH RISK FACTORS FOR THE FORMATION
OF EDUCATIONAL CAPITAL, IN URBAN AREAS
(Percentages)

COUNTRY	YEAR	CHILDREN IN HOUSEHOLDS WITH LOW-LEVEL EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT a/ AND INCOME QUARTILE 1 OR 2	
		Ages 0-5	Ages 6-14
Bolivia b/	89	24.5	23.1
	92	22.7	23.2
	94	21.5	21.1
Brazil	79	55.9	61.8
	90	47.9	52.1
	93	49.5	52.3
Colombia c/	80	43.0	47.6
	90	30.9	33.1
	92	27.9	31.8
	94	26.9	28.5
Costa Rica	88	14.0	19.2
	90	18.8	22.4
	92	15.0	17.3
	94	18.9	17.4
Chile	90	12.0	14.3
	92	8.5	11.9
	94	8.5	11.3
Guatemala	86	50.5	50.4
	89	...	47.4
Honduras	88	42.2	43.4
	90	42.6	46.2
	92	37.7	43.3
	94	40.8	41.2
Paraguay d/	86	24.3	22.6
	90	20.7	16.6
	92	17.3	19.6
	94	17.1	22.8
Uruguay	81	27.3	29.1
	89	18.5	22.6
	92	15.3	19.3
	94	16.5	17.0
Venezuela	81	34.8	37.6
	90	26.4	28.7
	92	23.2	24.8

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

a/ Low-level educational environment refers to 0-5.99 years of average schooling among the adults in the household.

b/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

c/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

d/ Data are for Asunción and Central Department only.

Table 29

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT)^{a/} OF GAINFULLY EMPLOYED 25- TO 59-YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK MORE THAN 20 HOURS PER WEEK, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED
(Percentages)

COUNTRY	YEAR	URBAN AREAS Years of schooling					RURAL AREAS Years of schooling				
		TOTAL	0 to 5	6 to 9	10 or more	Difference (10+0-5)	TOTAL	0 to 5	6 to 9	10 or more	Difference (10+0-5)
Argentina b/	80	8.8	5.6	7.3	13.9	8.3	...	...	...	...	...
	90	5.9	4.3	5.1	7.5	3.2	...	...	...	...	...
	92	8.6	5.3	6.8	11.9	6.6	...	...	...	...	...
	94	9.6	6.0	6.8	13.4	7.4	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia c/	89	4.7	3.2	3.6	6.2	3.0	...	...	...	...	...
	92	4.9	3.1	3.6	6.4	3.3	...	...	...	...	...
	94	4.6	2.5	3.1	6.2	3.7	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil	79	7.0	4.2	7.4	15.5	11.3	3.1	2.9	6.6	14.2	11.3
	90	5.6	3.0	4.5	10.6	7.6	3.5	3.0	5.5	9.4	6.4
	93	5.1	2.6	3.9	9.5	6.9	3.7	3.1	5.8	10.3	7.2
Colombia d/	80	4.6	2.3	3.6	9.1	6.8	...	...	...	...	...
	90	4.2	2.3	3.0	6.3	4.0	...	...	...	...	...
	92	3.6	1.9	2.4	5.3	3.4	...	...	...	...	...
	94	4.1	2.1	2.6	6.1	4.0	2.9	2.4	3.1	5.1	2.7
Costa Rica	88	5.9	3.7	4.3	7.7	4.0	6.0	5.4	5.7	8.3	2.9
	90	5.7	3.2	4.0	7.7	4.5	5.9	4.9	5.4	8.8	3.9
	92	5.6	3.5	3.9	7.2	3.7	5.9	5.2	5.3	8.5	3.3
	94	6.2	3.6	4.3	8.0	4.4	6.4	5.1	5.7	10.1	5.0
Chile	90	4.3	2.3	2.7	5.4	3.1	3.6	2.7	2.9	6.2	3.5
	92	5.0	2.5	2.8	6.4	3.9	3.9	2.7	3.1	7.9	5.2
	94	6.4	3.2	3.4	7.9	4.7	5.1	3.5	4.0	9.1	5.6
Guatemala	8	3.7	2.2	3.3	7.2	5.0	3.0	2.6	5.7	12.3	9.7
	89	4.4	2.5	3.8	7.9	5.4	3.4	3.0	4.6	10.5	7.5
Honduras	88	3.8	1.7	2.6	6.9	5.2	2.3	1.9	2.6	7.3	5.4
	90	3.4	1.6	2.5	6.7	5.1	2.3	1.9	3.3	7.5	5.6
	92	2.8	1.3	1.9	4.8	3.5	2.2	1.7	2.5	5.3	3.6
	94	2.6	1.4	1.8	4.3	2.9	2.6	1.9	3.7	5.4	3.5
Mexico	89	4.7	3.0	3.9	7.2	4.2	3.8	3.2	4.5	7.5	4.3
	92	5.7	2.8	4.2	9.6	6.8	3.4	2.6	4.0	8.9	6.3
	94	5.0	2.3	3.6	8.4	6.1	3.3	2.6	3.8	7.0	4.4
Panama	79	7.0	3.7	5.0	10.2	6.5	4.6	3.4	5.1	10.1	6.7
	88	6.4	3.2	4.1	8.6	5.4	5.7	3.3	4.5	9.3	6.0
	91	6.5	3.3	4.1	8.4	5.1	6.1	3.7	5.1	9.0	5.3
	94	6.1	3.4	3.8	8.0	4.6	5.4	3.4	4.6	8.0	4.6
Paraguay e/	86	3.6	1.4	2.2	5.5	4.1	...	...	...	...	...
	90	3.7	2.0	2.7	5.1	3.1	...	...	...	...	...
	92	3.9	2.0	2.5	5.6	3.6	...	...	...	...	...
	94	4.0	1.9	2.7	6.1	4.2	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	81	6.2	4.4	5.4	8.8	4.4	...	...	...	...	...
	90	4.3	2.8	3.4	5.7	2.9	...	...	...	...	...
	92	4.8	3.1	3.9	6.4	3.3	...	...	...	...	...
	94	5.3	3.4	4.1	6.9	3.5	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	81	8.5	6.0	7.9	12.4	6.4	7.4	6.1	9.2	16.3	10.2
	90	5.4	3.9	4.6	7.1	3.2	5.1	4.4	5.8	7.3	2.9
	92	5.7	4.0	4.7	7.3	3.3	5.6	4.8	5.9	8.0	3.2
	94	4.3	3.1	3.6	5.5	2.4	4.1	3.5	4.6	5.5	2.0

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

a/ Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per working hour and is expressed in terms of the poverty line.

b/ The categories of educational levels used here were primary school uncompleted, primary school completed/secondary school uncompleted and secondary school completed and over, rather than 0 to 5, 6 to 9 and 10 or more, respectively.
Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

c/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

d/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

e/ Data are for Asunción and Central Department only.

Table 30

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) a/ FOR WOMEN AS A PERCENTAGE OF CEMIT FOR MEN AMONG GAINFULLY EMPLOYED 25- TO 59-YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK MORE THAN 20 HOURS PER WEEK, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED (Percentages)

COUNTRY	YEAR	URBAN AREAS Years of schooling					RURAL AREAS Years of schooling				
		TOTAL	0 to 5	6 to 9	10 or more	Difference (10+ - 0-5)	TOTAL	0 to 5	6 to 9	10 or more	Difference (10+ - 0-5)
Argentina b/	80	78	80	70	71	-9	...	...	...	...	...
	90	90	93	80	87	-6	...	...	...	...	...
	92	76	104	73	67	-37	...	...	...	...	...
	94	93	100	78	83	-17	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia c/	89	65	66	74	71	5	...	...	...	...	...
	92	64	65	72	71	6	...	...	...	...	...
	94	64	67	74	71	4	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil	79	53	46	49	45	-1	56	52	45	46	-6
	90	67	51	56	62	11	65	56	54	57	1
	93	67	57	57	60	3	58	44	37	62	18
Colombia d/	80	62	62	77	59	-3	...	...	...	...	...
	90	76	72	78	70	-2	...	...	...	...	...
	92	75	68	74	73	5	...	...	...	...	...
	94	76	67	69	71	4	74	56	60	87	31
Costa Rica	88	84	79	64	81	2	79	57	61	94	37
	90	84	64	73	81	17	92	62	72	101	39
	92	83	73	69	79	6	85	52	68	92	40
	94	82	67	63	81	14	83	66	62	87	21
Chile	90	77	65	69	75	10	108	93	83	86	-7
	92	74	68	71	73	5	103	93	78	82	-11
	94	72	88	73	67	-21	100	89	85	82	-7
Guatemala	86	75	71	85	73	2	77	74	46	61	-13
	89	85	71	90	80	9	86	81	63	85	4
Honduras	88	70	65	64	64	-1	104	68	107	85	17
	90	71	56	53	72	16	88	60	69	119	59
	92	69	67	68	69	2	87	63	61	108	45
	94	75	63	70	75	12	85	62	89	70	8
Mexico	89	75	78	79	72	-6	97	100	93	86	14
	92	68	66	82	65	-1	80	74	73	73	-1
	94	71	64	79	66	2	77	64	75	101	37
Panama	79	78	63	64	75	12	118	85	83	85	0
	89	84	61	65	79	18	111	76	75	107	31
	91	88	58	69	82	24	100	68	73	95	27
	94	78	51	65	73	22	108	80	76	101	21
Paraguay e/	88	58	65	59	60	-5	...	...	...	...	...
	90	63	70	56	65	-5	...	...	...	...	...
	92	77	77	79	79	2	...	...	...	...	...
	94	73	76	70	75	1	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	81	63	53	60	63	10	...	...	...	...	...
	90	74	63	67	72	9	...	...	...	...	...
	92	75	66	70	69	3	...	...	...	...	...
	94	76	68	67	71	3	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	81	82	60	72	92	32	85	64	72	123	59
	90	73	65	70	69	4	85	78	72	89	11
	92	77	62	68	77	15	89	90	76	88	-2
	94	74	68	66	71	3	79	72	62	84	12

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

a/ Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per working hour and is expressed in terms of the poverty line.

b/ The categories of educational levels used here were primary school uncompleted, primary school completed/secondary school uncompleted and secondary school completed and over, rather than 0 to 5 years, 6 to 9 years and 10 years or more, respectively. Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

c/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

d/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

e/ Data are for Asunción and Central Department only.

Table 31

LATIN AMERICA (13 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) a/ OF INDEPENDENT 15- TO 24-YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK MORE THAN 20 HOURS PER WEEK AND DO NOT ATTEND SCHOOL, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED (Percentages)

COUNTRY YEAR	URBAN AREAS Years of schooling					RURAL AREAS Years of schooling				
	TOTAL	0 to 5	6 to 9	10 or more	Difference (10+ - 0-5)	TOTAL	0 to 5	6 to 9	10 or more	Difference (10+ - 0-5)
Argentina b/	80	5.0	4.6	4.6	6.4	1.8	...	...	...	...
	80	4.7	2.3	4.3	6.0	3.7	...	...	...	...
	92	5.8	3.5	4.9	7.7	4.2	...	...	...	...
	94	5.7	4.7	4.7	7.8	3.1	...	...	...	...
Bolivia c/	89	2.2	1.4	1.9	3.1	1.7	...	...	...	...
	92	2.6	1.6	2.4	3.7	2.1	...	...	...	...
	94	2.0	1.3	2.0	2.4	1.1	...	...	...	...
Brazil	79	3.3	2.3	4.0	7.9	5.6	2.2	2.0	3.5	7.6
	90	2.9	1.8	2.9	5.6	3.8	2.5	2.2	3.4	4.6
	93	2.5	1.6	2.6	4.5	2.9	2.3	1.9	3.9	5.7
Colombia d/	80	2.0	1.6	1.9	4.3	2.7	...	...	...	...
	90	2.3	1.7	2.0	3.9	2.2	...	...	...	...
	92	1.7	1.3	1.5	2.6	1.3	...	...	...	...
	94	2.1	1.8	1.8	3.0	1.2	2.5	2.2	3.1	3.4
Costa Rica	88	3.6	2.4	3.6	4.2	1.8	5.1	4.0	5.1	6.0
	90	3.8	2.9	3.4	4.7	1.8	4.9	3.9	4.8	7.2
	92	3.5	1.8	3.1	4.7	2.9	4.8	4.7	4.7	5.3
	94	4.5	2.5	3.3	6.6	4.1	4.8	4.4	4.7	6.3
Chile	90	2.5	2.2	2.0	2.8	0.6	2.8	2.4	2.5	3.9
	92	2.9	2.2	2.3	3.2	1.0	2.8	2.4	2.7	3.1
	94	3.2	1.8	2.4	3.7	1.9	3.4	2.2	3.1	4.3
Guatemala	86	2.1	1.8	1.9	4.2	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.8	...
	89	2.4	1.7	2.5	4.7	3.0	2.6	2.4	2.7	...
Honduras	88	1.3	0.9	1.1	3.2	2.3	1.5	1.3	1.8	5.1
	90	1.5	1.0	1.3	3.4	2.4	1.7	1.3	2.0	5.8
	92	1.4	0.7	1.2	2.6	1.9	2.0	1.5	2.1	5.2
	94	1.3	0.8	1.3	2.5	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.9	4.2
Mexico	89	3.2	2.2	2.8	4.6	2.4	2.6	2.2	2.7	6.7
	92	3.0	2.2	2.5	5.1	2.9	2.9	2.2	2.7	5.8
	94	2.7	1.8	2.4	4.1	2.3	2.6	1.6	3.0	3.4
Panama	79	3.6	1.7	2.5	5.9	4.2	4.7	2.8	3.9	9.0
	89	2.7	2.0	1.9	3.9	1.9	2.8	2.3	2.5	3.8
	91	2.5	1.4	1.8	4.1	2.7	3.3	2.8	3.3	4.2
	94	2.3	1.6	1.9	3.0	1.4	3.0	2.0	2.8	4.3
Paraguay e/	86	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.8	1.0	...	...	...	...
	90	1.3	0.8	1.1	2.5	1.7	...	...	...	...
	92	1.7	0.9	1.3	3.0	2.1	...	...	...	...
	94	2.0	1.3	1.7	3.5	2.2	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	81	3.9	3.1	3.7	4.6	1.5	...	...	...	...
	90	2.9	2.1	2.8	3.4	1.3	...	...	...	...
	92	3.1	2.6	2.9	3.5	0.9	...	...	...	...
	94	3.4	2.4	3.2	3.8	1.4	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	81	5.9	4.2	5.6	9.3	5.1	6.5	4.9	7.5	11.0
	90	3.2	2.3	3.1	4.3	2.0	3.6	3.3	3.9	4.3
	92	3.4	2.1	3.1	5.0	2.9	4.2	3.9	4.3	5.2
	94	2.6	1.8	2.5	3.3	1.5	3.6	3.5	3.8	...

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

a/ Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per working hour and is expressed in terms of the poverty line.

b/ The categories of educational levels used here were primary school uncompleted, primary school completed/secondary school uncompleted and secondary school completed and over, rather than 0 to 5 years, 6 to 9 years and 10 years or more, respectively. Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

c/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

d/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

e/ Data are for Asunción and Central Department only.

Table 32

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): INDEPENDENT 15- TO 24-YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK MORE THAN 20 HOURS PER WEEK AND DO NOT ATTEND SCHOOL, WITH A MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) OF 2.5 OR LESS ^{a/} BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED (Percentages)

COUNTRY	YEAR	URBAN AREAS Years of schooling				Difference (0-5 - 10+)	RURAL AREAS Years of schooling				Difference (0-5 - 10+)
		TOTAL	0 to 5	6 to 9	10 or more		TOTAL	0 to 5	6 to 9	10 or more	
Bolivia ^{b/}	89	72.7	86.7	74.7	58.0	32.4	...	...	...	...	...
	92	67.2	86.5	66.2	47.9	38.6	...	...	...	...	...
	94	74.8	87.3	73.1	65.6	21.7	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil	79	57.2	69.6	43.4	14.9	54.7	76.0	78.6	45.4	-	...
	90	62.5	79.1	57.8	32.3	46.8	67.0	72.7	46.2	-	...
	93	68.8	83.5	66.2	36.9	46.6	74.5	79.2	56.5	33.2	46.0
Colombia ^{c/}	80	80.8	88.1	77.7	44.8	43.3	...	...	...	...	...
	90	75.9	87.2	78.5	51.7	35.5	...	...	...	...	...
	92	84.4	93.4	87.1	68.0	25.4	...	...	...	...	...
	94	78.2	85.7	83.5	60.7	25.0	68.1	73.3	63.4	49.3	24.0
Costa Rica	88	27.6	57.3	29.0	14.3	43.0	12.2	19.8	11.3	8.7	11.1
	90	28.5	38.8	32.6	19.9	18.9	10.4	16.5	10.2	-	...
	92	34.3	72.6	42.7	10.8	61.8	8.5	9.9	9.1	4.3	5.6
	94	18.3	54.1	23.1	-	52.5	9.7	7.1	11.9	-	...
Chile	90	63.9	59.0	78.7	56.7	2.3	48.6	63.1	51.2	29.8	33.3
	92	56.3	75.6	69.4	49.1	26.5	54.2	62.8	56.1	46.4	16.4
	94	58.7	87.9	77.5	47.9	40.0	44.4	54.7	47.4	30.2	24.5
Guatemala	86	76.9	86.8	76.7	30.2	56.6	71.5	75.1	58.7	-	...
	89	70.2	84.2	71.7	15.8	68.4	62.2	63.5	58.7	-	...
Honduras	88	86.9	94.3	91.6	47.0	47.3	85.6	90.9	75.9	-	...
	90	83.1	92.8	87.3	43.9	48.9	81.3	90.7	73.5	11.6	79.1
	92	88.2	98.2	92.8	62.9	35.3	78.8	85.9	78.8	23.6	62.3
	94	89.7	97.5	91.4	63.8	33.7	77.0	87.7	72.8	-	...
Mexico	89	51.4	71.9	61.9	23.0	48.9	63.4	78.4	55.0	18.0	60.4
	92	55.8	71.4	63.0	25.0	46.4	52.7	59.5	57.2	8.3	51.2
	94	61.3	77.7	65.0	42.2	35.5	58.9	81.8	48.8	-	...
Panama	79	44.6	79.7	59.3	10.9	68.8	29.2	48.1	29.8	-	...
	89	61.5	69.6	78.0	35.3	34.3	51.4	84.3	50.4	37.9	46.4
	91	67.3	87.7	81.4	36.8	50.9	48.7	53.8	54.1	19.5	34.3
	94	68.3	87.5	73.3	53.9	33.6	42.2	69.8	38.9	28.2	41.6
Paraguay ^{d/}	88	94.3	95.2	97.2	82.2	13.0	...	...	...	...	...
	90	86.0	94.3	90.2	65.3	29.0	...	...	...	...	...
	92	82.9	-	92.4	50.9	...	...	...	...	...	...
	94	80.9	95.4	90.1	45.9	52.6	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	81	34.4	45.4	41.3	18.9	26.5	...	...	...	...	...
	90	47.7	70.0	53.1	32.2	37.8	...	...	...	...	...
	92	45.9	57.3	48.2	39.6	17.7	...	...	...	...	...
	94	34.4	64.1	42.6	20.7	43.4	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	81	19.2	39.3	15.5	3.1	36.2	14.4	19.0	11.8	-	...
	90	41.8	68.4	44.9	16.4	52.0	35.8	36.3	35.0	16.6	19.7
	92	43.3	68.4	46.5	19.2	49.2	28.7	35.6	25.3	17.9	17.7
	94	56.7	84.5	57.1	40.5	44.0	53.0	59.2	48.6	30.9	28.3

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

^{a/} Represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per working hour and is expressed in terms of the poverty line.

^{b/} Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

^{c/} Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

^{d/} Data are for Asunción and Central Department only.

Table 33

LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY
EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) OF CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17,
BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS

COUNTRY	YEAR	URBAN AREAS Income level					RURAL AREAS Income level				
		TOTAL	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	TOTAL	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4
Argentina a/	80	3.9	3.0	3.7	4.3	5.0	...	...	...	...	...
	92	4.6	3.1	3.9	4.5	7.1	...	...	...	...	...
	94	4.6	3.9	4.3	4.3	5.8	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia b/	89	1.9	1.6	1.6	2.1	2.0	...	...	...	...	...
	92	1.7	1.0	1.3	1.6	2.5	...	...	...	...	...
	94	1.3	0.8	1.3	1.5	1.5	...	...	...	...	...
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
	93	1.2	0.7	1.2	1.5	2.1	1.2	0.6	1.0	1.6	2.1
Colombia c/	80	1.3	0.7	1.2	1.6	1.7	...	...	...	...	...
	92	1.2	0.7	1.3	1.5	1.7	...	...	...	...	...
	94	1.3	0.7	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.2	0.4	0.9	1.3	2.8
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
	94	2.9	2.3	2.6	3.4	4.1	3.7	3.0	3.2	3.6	4.7
Chile	92	1.7	1.4	1.5	2.2	2.2	2.5	1.3	2.3	2.4	3.5
	94	2.6	1.6	2.2	2.6	--	2.6	1.3	2.0	2.5	--
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
	94	0.8	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	0.4	0.9	1.4	1.7
Mexico	89	1.2	0.9	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.5	0.7	1.3	1.8	2.8
	94	1.3	0.9	1.5	1.3	--	1.6	0.9	1.2	2.0	2.6
Paraguay d/	90	0.9	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.8	...	...	...	...	...
	94	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.9	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay e/	81	2.1	1.6	2.4	2.6	3.0	...	...	...	...	...
	92	2.1	1.7	2.3	2.8	2.6	...	...	...	...	...
	94	2.2	1.6	2.5	2.7	--	...	...	...	...	...
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
	94	2.0	1.2	1.8	2.1	3.3	1.9	1.1	1.9	1.8	2.6

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/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

c/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

d/ Data are for Asunción and Central Department only.

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

Table 34

LATIN AMERICA (11 COUNTRIES): CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17 WHO
WORK, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS
(Percentages)

COUNTRY	YEAR	URBAN AREAS Income level					RURAL AREAS Income level				
		TOTAL	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	TOTAL	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4
Argentina a/	80	22.3	17.3	24.8	27.3	20.4	...	...	...	...	...
	92	14.3	10.0	12.8	23.0	10.8	...	...	...	...	...
	94	9.6	8.8	12.1	9.9	6.3	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia b/	89	17.1	9.3	16.4	21.0	22.7	...	...	...	...	...
	92	18.1	9.8	16.0	25.4	23.0	...	...	...	...	...
	94	21.2	16.7	19.9	26.8	22.4	...	...	...	...	...
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
	93	30.6	30.4	33.3	33.6	22.0	63.1	63.7	62.6	63.0	63.2
Colombia c/	80	17.0	12.7	18.4	17.4	22.5	...	...	...	...	...
	92	13.5	12.1	14.7	13.1	14.6	...	...	...	...	...
	94	12.7	10.7	13.4	13.1	14.7	33.5	33.8	33.1	33.3	34.0
Costa Rica	86	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
	94	15.4	14.9	19.7	16.2	6.3	29.9	19.1	29.3	35.7	38.4
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
	94	4.9	4.8	5.4	5.4	3.7	14.1	9.5	14.6	19.5	17.3
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
	94	22.6	21.4	24.3	26.4	17.5	36.3	30.1	38.0	39.3	38.9
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
	94	15.7	18.5	18.8	12.2	6.8	32.9	31.4	32.9	33.3	36.1
Paraguay d/	90	24.1	20.1	29.3	26.9	21.9	...	...	...	...	...
	94	28.2	24.6	29.2	31.7	29.2	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay e/	81	21.9	26.7	22.6	18.9	13.5	...	...	...	...	...
	92	19.0	21.9	19.5	16.6	11.2	...	...	...	...	...
	94	19.5	20.9	21.8	18.1	10.8	...	...	...	...	...
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
	94	10.7	8.4	10.8	12.9	12.7	25.7	20.2	26.4	26.9	32.6

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

a/ Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

b/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and the departmental capitals.

c/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

d/ Data are for Asunción and Central Department only.

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

Table 35

LATIN AMERICA (12 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
Argentina ^{b/}	E		31	27	...	...
	NE		42	37	...	...
Bolivia ^{c/}	E		37	37	...	...
	NE		59	58	...	...
Brazil	E		34	36	32	33
	NE		44	45	43	40
Colombia ^{d/}	E		32	40	26	34
	NE		46	52	47	40
Costa Rica	E		28	35	32	28
	NE		43	46	45	43
Chile	E		31	26	38	47
	NE		47	52	47	53
Honduras	E		39	38	24	39
	NE		50	51	46	48
Mexico	E		31	25	26	27
	NE		49	45	44	41
Panama	E		19	34	16	25
	NE		42	51	34	49
Paraguay ^{e/}	E		36	34	...	...
	NE		50	52	...	...
Uruguay ^{f/}	E		26	24	...	...
	NE		42	40	...	...
Venezuela	E		38	36	39	37
	NE		43	42	43	42

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

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

b/ Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

c/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and departmental capitals.

d/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

e/ Data are for Asunción and Central Department only.

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

Table 36

LATIN AMERICA (12 COUNTRIES): PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL HOUSEHOLD INCOME
CONTRIBUTED BY CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS AGED 13 TO 17 WHO WORK a/
BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVEL, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS

COUNTRY	YEAR	URBAN AREAS					RURAL AREAS				
		Income level					Income level				
		TOTAL	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4	TOTAL	Q 1	Q 2	Q 3	Q 4
Argentina b/	90	25.9	31.6	24.1	21.2	22.5	...	...	...	...	...
	94	27.3	42.4	24.8	21.0	13.4	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia c/	92	20.1	28.2	26.8	18.9	12.2	...	...	...	...	...
	94	16.4	22.0	18.3	16.4	8.5	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil	90	19.5	25.1	21.2	15.6	6.5	15.8	11.2	18.0	19.1	15.5
	93	19.6	24.3	20.8	16.5	8.5	10.3	9.7	11.9	11.3	6.4
Colombia d/	90	20.9	23.9	19.9	20.5	11.5	...	...	...	...	...
	94	22.9	31.3	23.7	21.9	12.2	20.6	23.4	23.8	17.4	15.9
Costa Rica	90	29.4	36.9	27.0	24.8	22.6	26.4	26.2	27.6	27.5	23.0
	94	23.9	29.7	23.4	19.9	11.2	27.6	30.8	29.2	30.4	20.0
Chile	90	25.5	30.7	25.9	23.1	16.1	24.8	23.7	26.6	26.5	20.8
	94	24.5	29.6	25.4	21.4	13.7	27.4	29.3	27.1	29.2	22.0
Honduras	90	28.6	34.8	28.3	28.0	16.4	17.1	10.3	21.3	20.8	16.9
	94	21.7	21.8	26.5	24.3	9.6	16.5	16.5	16.3	19.4	12.9
Mexico	89	17.2	19.4	22.0	9.6	7.8	15.7	17.8	17.7	14.5	10.0
	94	16.9	20.6	17.2	10.1	8.0	11.7	11.1	14.5	8.8	11.5
Panama	94	18.1	21.2	21.3	7.2	2.5	15.9	15.2	26.0	12.1	8.6
Paraguay e/	90	18.4	28.1	17.1	16.8	7.7	...	...	...	...	...
	94	19.5	30.7	19.7	15.7	8.0	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay f/	90	16.9	19.9	16.3	13.0	9.5	...	...	...	...	...
	94	16.2	18.3	16.5	12.1	9.5	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	90	22.6	27.9	23.3	19.5	16.0	17.5	19.3	16.8	17.6	15.9
	94	25.1	32.4	25.8	21.7	17.4	24.9	27.6	29.6	18.7	23.4

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

a/ Includes unpaid family workers.

b/ Data are for Greater Buenos Aires only.

c/ Data are for La Paz, El Alto and departmental capitals.

d/ Beginning in 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Until then, the survey covered approximately half the urban population.

e/ Data are for Asunción and Central Department only.

f/ Owing to the design of the survey, data are for 14- to 17-year-olds.



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First edition

Printed in United Nations – Santiago, Chile – 96-12-1078 – March 1997 – 3 000
ISBN 92-1-121217-0 – E.97.II.G.4

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