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Social Panorama

OF LATIN AMERICA



UNITED NATIONS





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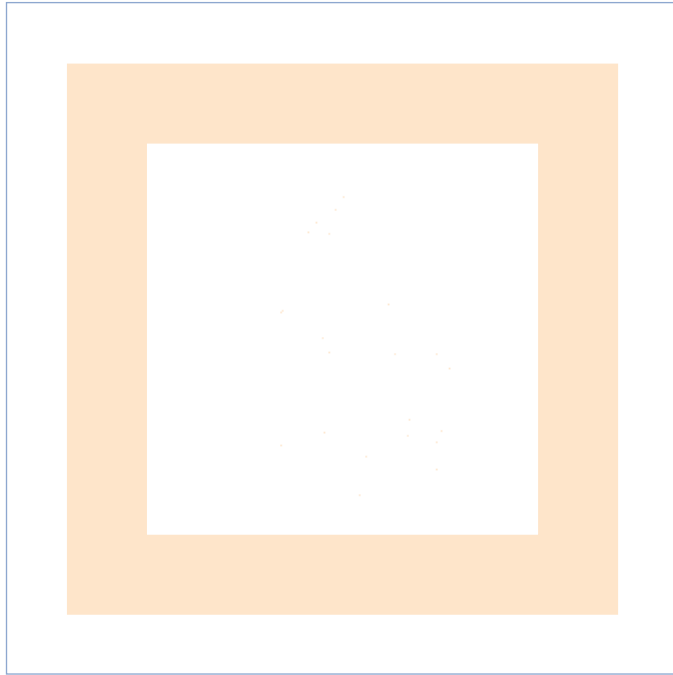
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The *Social Panorama of Latin America* is prepared each year by the Social Development Division and the Statistics and Economic Projections Division of ECLAC, under the supervision of Rolando Franco and Enrique Ordaz, respectively. Work on the 2001–2002 edition was coordinated by Juan Carlos Feres and Arturo León who, together with Irma Arriagada, Ernesto Espíndola, Xavier Mancero and Fernando Medina, were also responsible for preparing the individual chapters of the study. Mariluz Avendaño, Carlos Daroch and Carlos Howes compiled and processed the statistical data.

Notes and explanations of symbols

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

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

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Abstract

The 2001–2002 edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* explores issues related to the Millennium Development Targets and the likelihood of achieving the objectives unanimously adopted by the States Members of the United Nations for 2015. It also examines the region's ability to meet the targets for reducing extreme poverty and ensuring universal access to primary education under conditions of gender equality. Moreover, it looks at the Latin American countries' ability to absorb the growing supply of skilled human resources and deals with the issue of social capital in terms of its potential and the limitations of poverty reduction programmes.

The first chapter provides poverty estimates for Latin America for 2000, 2001 and 2002, based on economic growth in each country. To complement the analysis included in the preceding edition of the *Social Panorama*, this chapter takes another look at the feasibility of the Millennium Declaration target of halving extreme poverty by 2015. It also looks at the economic growth required to achieve the more demanding target of halving total poverty in the region, as well as the effects of improved income distribution.

The second chapter deals with the underuse of skilled human resources in Latin America as a result of the weak creation of jobs that make use of the knowledge and skills of individuals entering the workforce with post-secondary training. It provides data showing the rapid growth in the supply of technicians and professionals in the region's countries, particularly women, and examines the factors that have led to widespread underuse of these resources: involuntary inactivity, open unemployment and the low wages that the market offers many professionals and technicians.

The third chapter analyses school drop-out rates and trends in 18 Latin American countries in the 1990s. It suggests a methodology for estimating their magnitude at different stages in the educational cycle, based on data from household surveys, and provides information that helps to identify the causes of and factors associated with dropping out of school. Moreover, figures are provided on the costs involved, in terms of wage income forgone by individuals who leave the educational system before completing secondary school.

The final chapter examines the main approaches and positions which different authors and institutions have taken with respect to social capital and describes both their contributions and their analytical shortcomings. The chapter highlights some successful poverty reduction programmes, and concludes that taking into consideration the different forms of social capital in a community helps to strengthen weak social actors and improve the accountability of programmes and projects, while also underlining the importance of a participatory, democratic environment.

The section on the international social agenda provides a summary of the sixteenth meeting of the Rio Group and the eleventh Ibero–American Summit of Heads of State and Government, which dealt, respectively, with family and children’s issues. It also refers to the two non–governmental meetings convened by the World Social Forum in Porto Alegre to analyse the social impact of globalization.

This edition of the *Social Panorama* includes a statistical appendix with 43 tables giving indicators on a wide range of social phenomena.

Summary

The year 1997 marked the end of a cycle of growth in Latin America that enabled a number of countries to make significant strides in reducing poverty. The turning point in this process was the Asian crisis, which ushered in a five-year stretch of slower economic growth, higher unemployment and unchanging (or, in many cases, rising) poverty indices in the region. It may be said, without exaggeration, that the people of Latin America have once again been frustrated and discouraged by the adverse consequences of this lost half-decade.

This edition of the *Social Panorama* presents the argument, however, that Latin America and the Caribbean as a whole, and especially the countries with higher per capita income levels, are nevertheless in a position to formulate and implement economic and social policies which, once growth has resumed, will enable them to achieve, by 2015, the poverty reduction target laid down in the Declaration adopted at the United Nations Millennium Summit.¹ Latin America can and should make every effort to achieve sustained growth and devote more resources to more ambitious and higher-quality social policies and programmes to meet the goal of halving poverty by the target date and eradicating the most serious forms of extreme poverty.

The *Social Panorama* emphasizes that, to reach this goal, along with the other development goals set out in the Millennium Declaration, education coverage must be rapidly expanded and education quality must be substantially improved to narrow the gaps between children and young people from different socio-economic groups. It also highlights the importance of making education more relevant by adapting it to the demands of economies that are increasingly technology-intensive and active in world trade.

The high drop-out rates in Latin America's schools, which are analysed in this edition of the *Social Panorama*, point to the urgency of retaining pupils in primary school and considerably increasing the retention rate in secondary school if the United Nations goals for 2015 are to be met. In addition, the finding that much of the region's human capital has gone untapped highlights the need to take a closer look at both economic growth patterns and the quality of higher education and technical training systems.

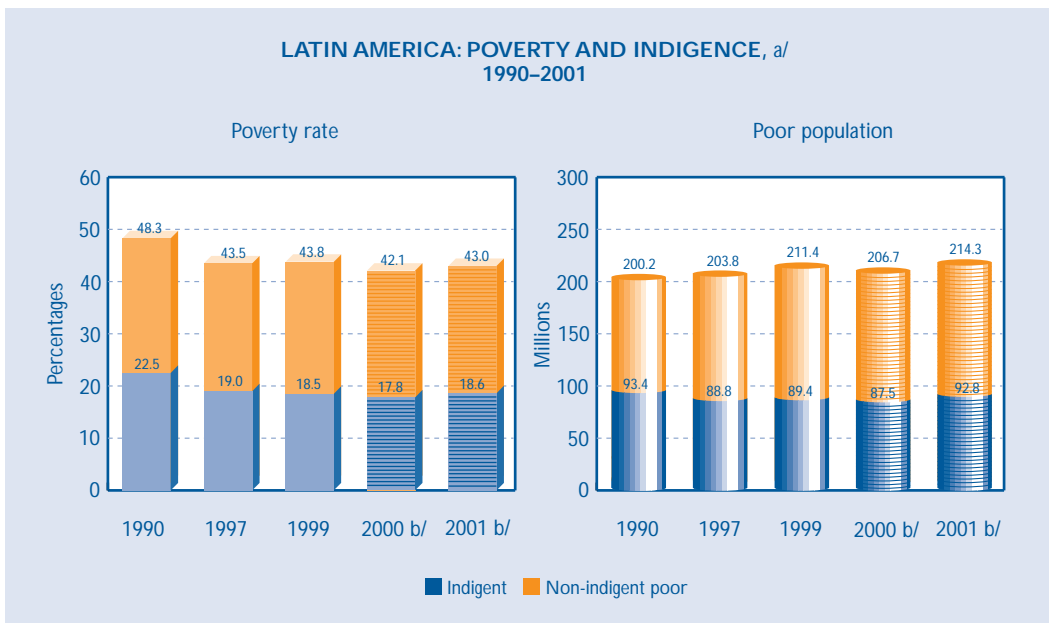
1 The Millennium Summit was convened by the United Nations General Assembly in September 2000 in New York. At this event, world leaders undertook a commitment to work actively towards meeting the new development goals set for the coming decades, as outlined in the Millennium Declaration.

Poverty trends

In the 1990s, poverty and extreme poverty trended downward in Latin America, though the initial impetus gradually lost momentum, to the point where the trend reversed itself in some countries towards the end of the period. The estimated percentage of the population living in poverty went down by nearly 5 percentage points between 1990 and 1997 (to 43.5%), but then rose by three tenths of a point (to 43.8%) in 1999. Indigence or extreme poverty fell from 22.5% in 1990 to 18.5% in 1999, which was only five tenths of a point lower than the 1997 rate. Overall, these figures show a clear reduction in poverty and extreme poverty over the first seven years of the decade, followed by a period of stalled progress in 1997–1999 (see figure 1).

The gains made in reducing the relative poverty rate over the decade as a whole did not translate into a similar change in absolute terms, since the number of poor people increased by nearly 11 million (7.6 million in the final two years alone), reaching just over 211 million in 1999. The four-point reduction in the rate of extreme poverty, on the other hand, reflected an absolute decrease of about 4 million people, bringing the total number living in extreme poverty to 89 million at the end of the period, notwithstanding the 0.6-million increase observed between 1997 and 1999 (see figure 1).

Figure 1



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.
 a/ Estimates for 19 countries of the region. The figures appearing above the orange bars represent the total number of poor persons (indigent plus non-indigent poor).
 b/ The figures for 2000 and 2001 are projections.

The poverty trends of the late 1990s continued in 2000–2002. For the region as a whole, progress in combating poverty remained at a standstill in those three years, with the different countries counterbalancing each other in terms of improvements and setbacks. At the regional level, rates of poverty and extreme poverty and rates of

economic growth moved in opposite directions, as the former fell considerably in 2000 and rose sharply in 2001 and 2002.

ECLAC projections² estimate that the poverty rate in Latin America fell to 42.1% of the population in 2000, while extreme poverty declined to 17.8%. This percentage decrease meant that some 5 million fewer people were living in poverty and some 3 million fewer were living in extreme poverty than in 1999 (see figure 1). Of the 10 countries that are estimated to have reduced their poverty rates appreciably since 1999, Mexico and the Dominican Republic stand out, with reductions of over five percentage points. Conversely, the percentage of poor people is estimated to have risen by about one point in Argentina, Paraguay and Uruguay.

Subsequently, in 2001, all the countries of the region were affected to varying degrees by the slowdown in economic growth, which pushed up poverty rates. According to projections, region-wide poverty stood at about 43%, or 0.9 percentage points above the 2000 figure, while extreme poverty rose by 0.8 points to reach 18.6%. Poverty is estimated to have risen in 12 countries and extreme poverty, in 14 countries, in comparison to their 2000 levels, though these increases did not exceed half a percentage point in half of these cases. The sharpest deterioration took place in Argentina, whose 5.6-point increase in poverty and 3.1-point increase in extreme poverty between 2000 and 2001 are clearly anomalous in the region. At the other end of the spectrum, it appears that Chile, Ecuador, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela not only have avoided any increase in their poverty and extreme poverty levels, but may even have managed to reduce both of these indices.

Lastly, forecasts of negative economic growth in 2002 (-0.8%) imply that poverty will increase in the region as a whole this year. The proportion of people living in poverty will probably climb by one percentage point from its 2001 level, to about 44%, while extreme poverty will rise to just under 20%. The most dramatic increase in poverty is likely to be seen in Argentina, as in 2001, and significant setbacks could be recorded in Venezuela, Paraguay and Uruguay. Only Peru and the Dominican Republic are likely to achieve modest reductions in poverty levels.

As for the size of the poor population, projections for 2002 point to a probable increase of about 7 million people, of whom nearly 6 million will be classified as extremely poor, over and above the 2001 figure. Should these assumptions prove accurate, the region's poor population will have increased by 15 million over the period 2000–2002, evincing a considerable deterioration in the region's social situation. This does not mean, however, that all the countries of the region will experience poverty increases proportionate to these figures. In particular, the expansion of Argentina's poor population will account for much of the deterioration recorded for the region as a whole.

To complement the analysis contained in the preceding edition of the *Social Panorama*, the present edition includes a review of whether the Millennium Declaration goal of halving extreme poverty by 2015 with respect to its 1990 levels is a feasible one for the region. To date, the different countries have made very uneven progress in this regard: some have already managed to reach this target, while others have experienced setbacks instead of improvements. The standouts in this respect are Chile and Panama, which by 2000 had already met the goal of halving extreme poverty; Brazil and the Dominican

2 See chapter I, box I.4, for an explanation of the method used in making the projections.

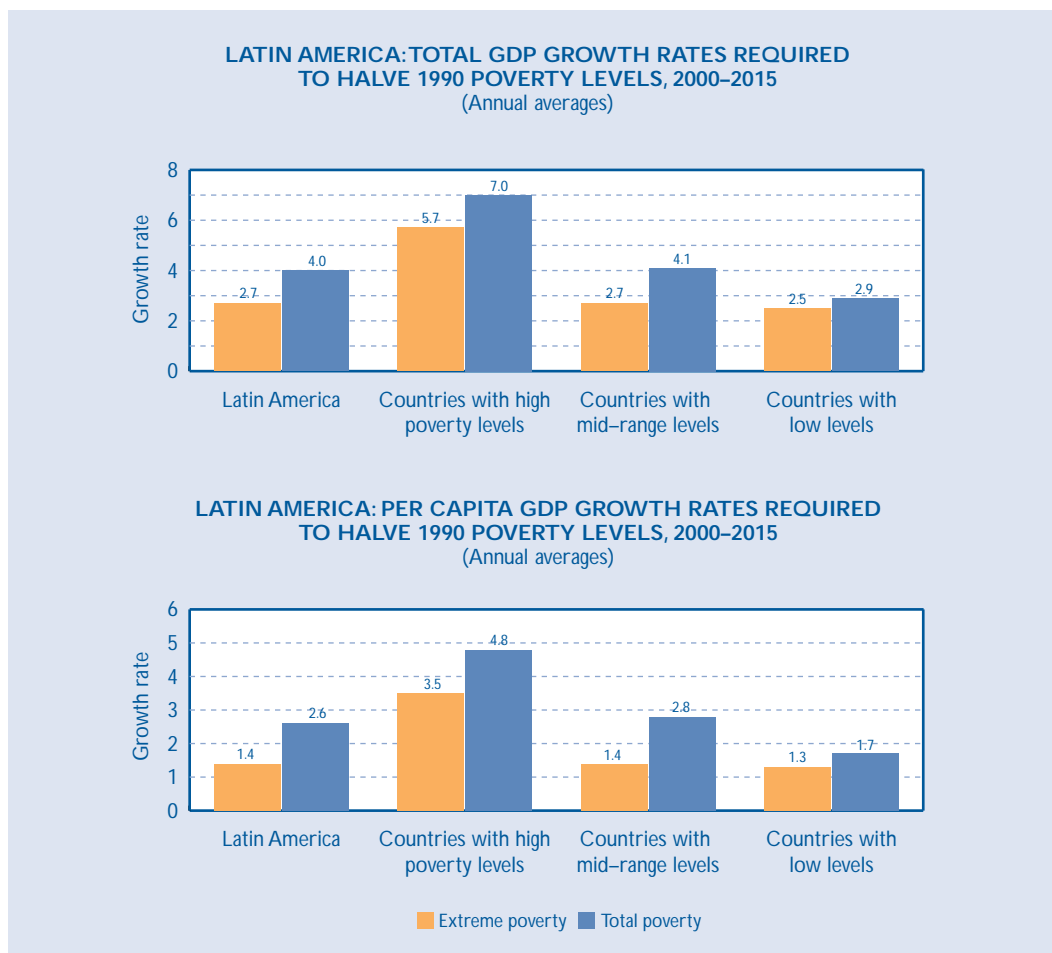
Republic, which had achieved over 95% of the necessary reduction; and Uruguay, which had achieved over 82%. A number of countries, including Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico and Nicaragua, have made about 40% of the progress required, and are therefore on track to reach the target by 2015. Bolivia, Honduras and Peru have also made headway, but at a pace that must be stepped up if the desired objective is to be met. The situation in Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay and Venezuela is more problematic, as their levels of extreme poverty were higher in 2000 than in 1990.

The latest projections indicate that, in order to halve extreme poverty by 2015 with respect to its 1990 level, between 2000 and 2015 Latin America will have to achieve annual per capita GDP growth of about 1.4%, which is equivalent to 2.7% of total GDP, assuming that income distribution remains unchanged throughout that period. To meet the target, average annual per capita GDP growth will have to reach about 3.5% in countries where extreme poverty exceeds 30%; 1.4% in those where the proportion is between 11.1% and 30%; and 1.3% in those where extreme poverty levels are 11% or below. In terms of total GDP growth, these figures are equivalent to 5.7% for the first group of countries, 2.7% for the second and 2.5% for the third (see figure 2).

A goal which is much more demanding but also more in keeping with Latin America's level of development in comparison to the rest of the world would be to halve total poverty, not just extreme poverty, which is the minimum target set out in the Millennium Declaration. No country in the region has yet achieved this more ambitious target, though Chile, Panama and Uruguay are well on the way, since, by 2000, they had already made at least 70% of the progress needed. With respect to the growth rates required in order to halve total poverty, Latin America's per capita GDP would have to grow by about 2.6% a year for 15 years: 4.8% in countries with high poverty levels, 2.8% in countries with mid-range levels and 1.7% in countries with low levels. According to these estimates, the high-poverty countries have virtually no chance of reaching the target, since the required total GDP growth rate of 7% a year far exceeds their historical capacities (see figure 2).

The foregoing illustrates two relevant considerations. First, the target for reducing extreme poverty poses very different challenges for different countries. For those with low levels of extreme poverty, growth rates lower than the ones they achieved in the 1990s will suffice, whereas those with high levels will have to grow much faster than they did in that decade. Second, meeting the targets for reducing total poverty represents an enormous challenge for the entire region which, though not impossible, is becoming more and more difficult. These two observations again highlight the need to implement economic and social policies that strengthen the capacity to broaden the production base, but also bring about a progressive redistribution of income to ensure that economic growth yields faster results in terms of raising the standard of living of low-income groups.

Figure 2

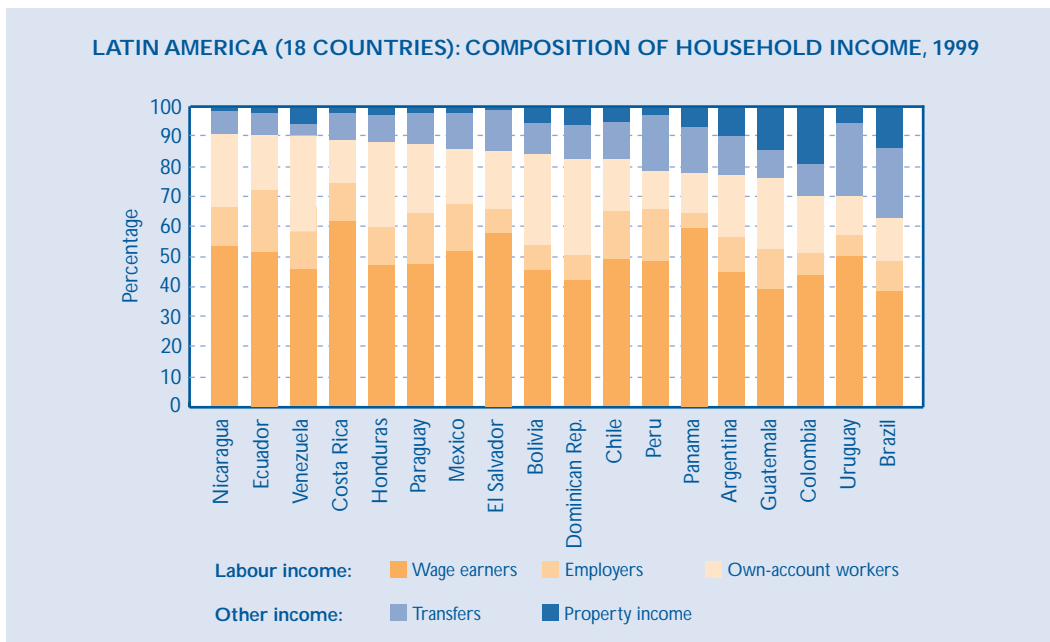


Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in the relevant countries.

In view of the importance of improving income distribution as part of the effort to combat poverty, consideration has been given to the income structure underlying the patterns of income concentration observed in the countries of the region. An analysis, by source, of the composition of household income reveals that labour remuneration (wages and profits) accounts for the biggest share for most households in the region. In 1999, it represented, on average, between 63% (in Brazil) and 90% (in Ecuador and Nicaragua) of total household income, and its share exceeded 80% in at least 11 countries. Within the income derived by households from the labour market, wages are the primary component and also the least concentrated source of income, followed by the earnings of own-account workers. Transfers, which consist mainly of retirement and other pensions paid out by social security systems, are a valuable source of household income that provides, on average, nearly 13% of total income. In almost every case, property income is the least significant source (see figure 3) and the one with the least equitable distribution.

From another standpoint, while heads of household continued to be the main breadwinners in all the Latin American countries, their contribution to household income fell in relation to the contributions of other household members in the 1990s. Women significantly increased their contribution to total household income, which reached an average of about 32%. In the specific case of labour income, the average contribution of young

Figure 3



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

people between the ages of 15 and 24 reached 12.5%, while that of persons over 65 reached 3.3%.

In conclusion, an analysis of the composition of household income confirms that there is limited scope for taking direct action to correct distributive problems and, except in the case of public transfers, that the effects of such efforts, if successful, would largely be felt in the long term. It is nevertheless imperative that governments make full use of their relatively constricted room for manoeuvre by promoting improvements in income distribution as a way of expediting the process of raising the standard of living of the neediest groups and achieving, by 2015, the Millennium Declaration goal of halving poverty in the region.

Absorption of skilled labour

The changes wrought by globalization can be seen in virtually all aspects of the labour market: in the new relationships between workers and firms and the degree to which different activities are remunerated on a wage basis, in the changes that have taken place in the sectoral structure of employment and in the pay levels of workers with different degrees of qualification. In a number of documents, particularly *Globalization and Development*,³ ECLAC has looked at the effects of these transformations on the Latin American and Caribbean population's living conditions. In particular, it has shown how poverty has been affected by sluggish job creation, which is a consequence of recessions and more volatile growth but also of the gradual divergence between economic growth and the supply of productive employment as a result of technological change and the liberalization of international trade in the region.

³ ECLAC, *Globalization and Development* (LC/G.2157(SES.29/3)), document prepared for the twenty-ninth session of ECLAC (Brasilia, Brazil, 6–10 May 2002), Santiago, Chile, 2002.

At a time when firms are demanding an ever-changing array of professional and technical skills, with a view to adapting to new technologies, enhancing their competitiveness and positioning themselves advantageously in international trade, human resources training needs are also evolving. Yet if the educational system and human resources training in general fail to respond appropriately and promptly to market signals, misalignments emerge between the supply of skills and the demand for them. The same is true if the supply of qualified human resources grows faster than the number of new jobs that would make productive use of them. Both situations entail high costs for individuals and for society as a whole. Despite its importance, this problem has received little attention in recent years. The second chapter of this edition of the *Social Panorama* provides background information on the speed at which the supply of skilled human resources and the capacities of the Latin American economies to generate jobs that take advantage of these skills have expanded.

Little historical information is available for the region in this regard, and most such data refer to misalignments between the supply of specific types of professionals or technicians and the demand for them, or to highly circumscribed sectors of economic activity. Given this dearth of information, and on the basis of the household surveys periodically carried out in the countries, this publication provides a regional overview focusing on the population that has achieved relatively advanced knowledge and skill levels; in other words, the supply of professional and technical skills. The study also suggests a procedure for estimating the degree to which such post-secondary technical and university-level professional skills are being put to use in the countries.

The first issue considered is the capacity of the school system and the human resources training system in general to provide the countries with a technically and professionally qualified workforce. This gives rise to questions such as how fast these resources are expanding in the different countries of the region, how much of the increase is accounted for by women in comparison to men, what percentage of Latin America's total working-age population has post-secondary technical or professional qualifications and what differences exist between the countries in this regard.

In the 1990s, the number of people of full working age (25 to 59) with higher qualifications acquired through the completion of professional training at a university or post-secondary technical training grew much faster than the urban and rural working-age population as a whole. Whereas the latter expanded by 3.1% a year, the number of professionals and technicians rose by 7.5% a year.

In 9 out of 14 countries, the population of qualified professionals and technicians—who must complete at least 14 years of study to be considered as such—expanded at more than twice the annual rate observed for the population without such qualifications. Table 1 gives estimates of the jump in the number of professionals and technicians in urban areas of Latin America between 1990 and 1999. The estimates show that, out of the increase of just over 32 million people of full working age, 7.9 million had post-secondary qualifications (4.3 million technicians and 3.6 million professionals). However, this large expansion in the space of a decade reduced by only 2.6 percentage points the high proportion of unskilled workers out of the total (from 86.5% to 83.9%).

Table 1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): CHANGES IN THE COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION AGED 25 TO 59, BY SKILL LEVEL (Urban areas, a/ circa 1990 and 1999)					
Year	Total	Skill level			
		No technical or professional skills	Technical or professional skills		
			Subtotal	Technical skills	Professional skills
(Thousands of persons)					
1990	103 549	89 617	13 932	7 755	6 178
1999	135 840	113 946	21 891	12 077	9 814
(Increase, in thousands of persons)					
1990-1999	32 291	24 329	7 959	4 322	3 636
(Percentages)					
1990	100.0	86.5	13.5	7.5	6.0
1999	100.0	83.9	16.1	8.9	7.2

Source: ECLAC estimates based on special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in 18 countries, and population estimates from the Population Division – Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE) where no survey information was available.
a/ Includes the nationwide total in the case of Venezuela.

The supply of skilled labour and the recent changes seen in the region in this regard have three salient features. The first is that the supply of qualified human resources has grown fastest in rural areas, though it remains very small, as only about 3% of the working-age rural population has technical or professional skills. The second is that the supply of workers with technical skills has grown faster in some countries (Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Venezuela), while in others the opposite trend has been observed, with a faster increase in the number of professionals (Argentina, Brazil, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Panama and Uruguay); these diverging patterns reflect differences between the countries' tertiary education systems. Lastly, the number of women with such qualifications has grown faster than the number of men nearly everywhere in the region. This had an impact on women's increasing participation in economic activity, especially as wage earners, and on the narrowing of the gender wage gap over the past decade.

Even though its supply of professionals and technicians expanded significantly in the 1990s, Latin America still faces the constraints imposed by a very low-skilled working-age population. If the trends of the past decade continue, the proportion of the population with technical or professional post-secondary education will reach nearly 29% of the total working-age population by 2015, meaning that a very large proportion of Latin Americans will still be entering the labour market with very few qualifications. As a result, the Millennium development goals will be hard to achieve, particularly in terms of reducing poverty, since much of the workforce not only will earn insufficient income to guarantee that they and their families can stay above the poverty line and withstand recessionary cycles, but also will face frequent episodes of unemployment.

The countries of the region must therefore meet the urgent challenge of improving the quality of human resources to enhance the systemic competitiveness of their economies. More resources and better programmes to train young people and adults who have left the educational system are basic necessities in this regard, but it is also important to strengthen the relationship between the public and private sectors to ensure that the

content of such training represents an appropriate and timely response to the changing skill requirements imposed by increasing international competition.

The demand for professionals and technicians has given rise to a new and complex relationship between education and the world of work which has altered the ways in which these resources are used. The most striking changes are those concerning the types of occupations available, which have generated a demand for new competencies, skills and knowledge; the relative shrinkage of the overall supply of jobs, which has swelled underemployment, increased the time required to find a first job, driven up rates of open unemployment and lengthened periods of joblessness, especially for more highly qualified workers; and the shift in the sectoral structure of employment away from primary- and secondary-sector (agricultural and industrial) activities and towards tertiary activities.

Despite the steep rise in the number of professionally or technically qualified women in the region, gender inequalities persist in terms of the extent to which these qualifications are used at both the social and individual levels. This is apparent in the persistently low rates of economic participation among women with post-secondary qualifications, which are considerably lower than those for similarly qualified men: women's average participation rate in the late 1990s was 14 percentage points lower than the rate for men in the case of technicians and 10 points lower in the case of professionals. This is one area in which skills are going to waste, in terms of both the income forgone by these women professionals and technicians and the private and public resources invested in training them.

Open unemployment among highly qualified workers is another example of how human resources are being underused or wasted in the region. The persistence of relatively high open unemployment rates, with longer periods of unemployment for the economically active population as a whole, but also for the more highly skilled population, points to an erosion of the Latin American economies' capacity to generate enough jobs to absorb the supply of technically and professionally qualified workers. A comparison between unemployment rates in the early and late 1990s in the countries that suffered the biggest increases in urban unemployment (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela) shows that the increases affected not only less qualified workers, but also technicians and professionals (for whom the rate rose from 3.8% to 6.6%), and affected women more than men.

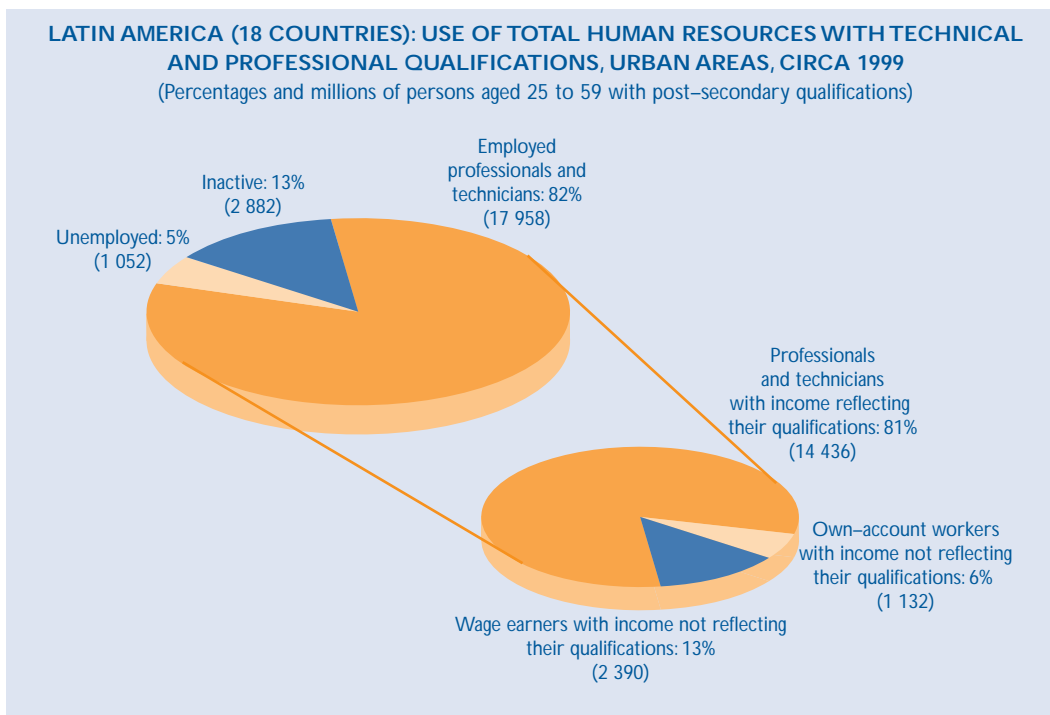
The trend away from salaried positions for more highly qualified workers and their concentration in lower-paying tertiary activities (about 50% of them work in social, community and personal services) clearly illustrate the economies' poor capacity to make productive use of the greatly increased supply of skilled human resources.

Another way in which qualified human resources are wasted is the employment of professionals and technicians to perform functions that do not make use of the knowledge and skills they have acquired as a result of public and private investment in the formal post-secondary education system. This is apparent in the very low effective remuneration obtained in the urban labour market by some 2.4 million wage earners and 1.1 million own-account workers with advanced qualifications (see figure 4). Unemployment also represents a waste of skilled workers; while unemployment is lower among professionals and technicians than among less qualified workers, the time that elapses between jobs and, accordingly, the time for which these human resources go unused is

longer for the former group: in the late 1990s, over a million people with advanced qualifications were in this situation. A third example of how the supply of human capital is wasted is inactivity, which characterizes workers who have left the labour market after a long and fruitless search for work (the discouraged unemployed) and primarily affects women who, for lack of suitable conditions (absence of child care networks or unavailability of day-care centres or preschools), are unable to engage in gainful employment while continuing to fulfil their family responsibilities.

A comparison between the supply of professionally and technically qualified workers and the degree to which their skills are used reveals that, while this supply is expanding relatively quickly in the region, the relevant economies have failed to generate enough jobs to absorb this expansion, even during relatively high-growth periods. In urban areas, out of a total of 19 million professionals and technicians, the skills of nearly 4.5 million are not being put to full use. Of these, just over 1 million are openly unemployed, while the rest work in jobs whose pay levels are not commensurate with the educational investment represented by these workers. This is a considerable waste of both individual and social resources.

Figure 4



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

The extent to which qualifications go unused implies that the region's higher education and training systems should be made more flexible so that they can adapt to changes in the demand for specialized human resources. This would enable them to meet the emerging needs of production systems by responding to rapid technological changes and to the new requirements imposed by participation in international trade flows.

School drop-out rates in Latin America

One of the biggest challenges that the region must meet in order to progress towards the Millennium development goals is the achievement of the goal concerning education. The Declaration sets the achievement of universal primary education as a minimum objective, and proposes the goal of ensuring that, by 2015, “children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling”.⁴

For Latin America and the Caribbean, this is an important but insufficient goal in view of the labour market’s pressing need for advanced qualifications, which the globalization process has heightened. A number of ECLAC documents and previous editions of the *Social Panorama* have pointed out that the completion of secondary school is now the minimum educational achievement required to give individuals a good chance of staying above the poverty line during their working lives. In some countries, however, this achievement is already insufficient because the speedy expansion of education has led to its devaluation in the labour market, which now offers fewer jobs and demands that candidates meet ever-increasing skill requirements to fill them. Thus, the goal of universal primary education by 2015 is a necessary but insufficient condition for the region. In other words, it cannot be ignored –since its achievement by 2015 is by no means certain– but it is also clearly inadequate to supply the skills necessary for Latin American development.

Accordingly, without failing to pay due attention to the full achievement of the objective laid down in the Millennium Declaration, the countries of the region should seek to identify the obstacles they face in universalizing high-quality primary education and progressing towards educational goals that are better suited to their particular national circumstances. These goals should focus not only on setting a minimum number of years of schooling for both boys and girls, but also on the quality and relevance of the material taught and, especially, on eliminating disparities between the educational achievements of public- and private-school students.

The analysis in this edition of the *Social Panorama* emphasizes that, despite the broad coverage of basic education and the expansion of enrolment in secondary education over the past decade, Latin America still has very high drop-out rates. This phenomenon, which characterizes both primary and secondary education, is one of the main stumbling blocks hindering the region’s fulfilment of all the goals set by the United Nations for 2015. The countries of the region must therefore allocate more resources to policies and programmes aimed at preventing children from leaving school before they have finished their basic education and at significantly reducing drop-out rates in secondary education.

Even as progress has been made towards universal basic education, especially in urban areas, a very high proportion of boys, girls and teenagers leave the school system at an early stage without attaining the minimum knowledge and skill levels they need to become productive members of society. Insufficient preschool education coverage, together with ample access to basic education but poor retention rates in primary and secondary school, are features of the educational systems of all the countries of the region, to a

4 See United Nations (2001).

greater or lesser extent. Grade repetition and falling behind in school –which often precede the decision to drop out– and a poor grasp of basic educational material are characteristic problems of Latin American school systems that undermine their capacity to promote equal opportunity and social inclusion. It is therefore important to develop a regional overview of the level and trends of drop-out rates and of some of the main factors associated with the capacity of the family and the educational system to prevent children and teenagers from leaving the system before completing secondary school.

This edition of the *Social Panorama* provides estimates of drop-out rates in the Latin American countries and of how they changed in the 1990s. To this end, a methodology based on household survey information was developed to complement and regularly follow up on the scarce background data available on this phenomenon, which often are not very comparable. The analysis begins with a classification of the educational status of young people between the ages of 15 and 19. On this basis, a set of indicators of drop-out rates at various stages of primary and secondary education was developed (see chapter III, box III.1). This age group was chosen for the analysis because its members are in a critical period of transition: they have moved on from primary to secondary school –a stage where drop-out rates tend to rise; have reached the age at which they are allowed by law to join the workforce; or have been exposed to circumstances that induce them to drop out, such as teenage pregnancy or serious underperformance at school.

Background information on drop-out rates in 18 Latin American countries indicates that, as of 2000, some 15 million between the ages of 15 and 19, out of a total of 49.4 million, had left school before completing 12 years of study. About 70% of them (10.5 million) had done so at an early stage, before or upon completing primary school. Over and above these figures, 1.4 million had never attended school or had left before completing the first year of primary school. The gap between urban and rural areas was narrowed somewhat by improvements in school retention rates in nearly all the Latin American countries over the past decade. Wide disparities persist, however: circa 2000 the total drop-out rate in rural areas (48%) was nearly twice the rate for urban areas (26%) (see table 2).

Likewise, considerable differences were observed among the 18 countries studied. The overall drop-out rate among urban teenagers was less than 20% in Bolivia, Chile, Peru and the Dominican Republic. In Argentina, Brazil, Colombia and Panama, the rate ranged from 20% to 25%. In eight countries (Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela), the rate was between 25% and 35%, while in Honduras and Guatemala it reached 40% and 47%, respectively (see figure 5).

With respect to gender differences, the analysis shows that girls in urban areas drop out less often than boys; they also have lower repetition rates, and more girls than boys between the ages of 15 and 19 complete secondary school on schedule. In rural areas, however, girls tend to leave school earlier than boys, especially in the initial years of primary school, and in some countries (Bolivia, Guatemala, Paraguay, Peru and the Dominican Republic) a higher percentage of girls than boys never enter the system or leave it without completing the first grade.

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): 15- TO 19-YEAR-OLDS HAVING LEFT THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM BEFORE COMPLETING SECONDARY SCHOOL ^{a/} (Thousands of persons)						
Year	15-to 19-year-olds who never attended school	15-to 19-year-olds who attended school and dropped out				Total age group
		Early (in primary school)	After completing primary school	In secondary school	Total	
Total						
1990	2 277	9 629	4 491	4 343	18 463	43 597
2000	1 408	6 555	4 069	4 317	14 941	49 412
Urban areas						
1990	933	5 390	2 551	3 218	11 159	31 324
2000	653	3 763	2 481	3 258	9 502	37 342
Rural areas						
1990	1 344	4 239	1 940	1 125	7 304	12 272
2000	755	2 792	1 588	1 059	5 439	12 070

Source: ECLAC estimates based on special tabulations of data from household surveys conducted in 18 countries, and the population database of the Population Division – Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE).

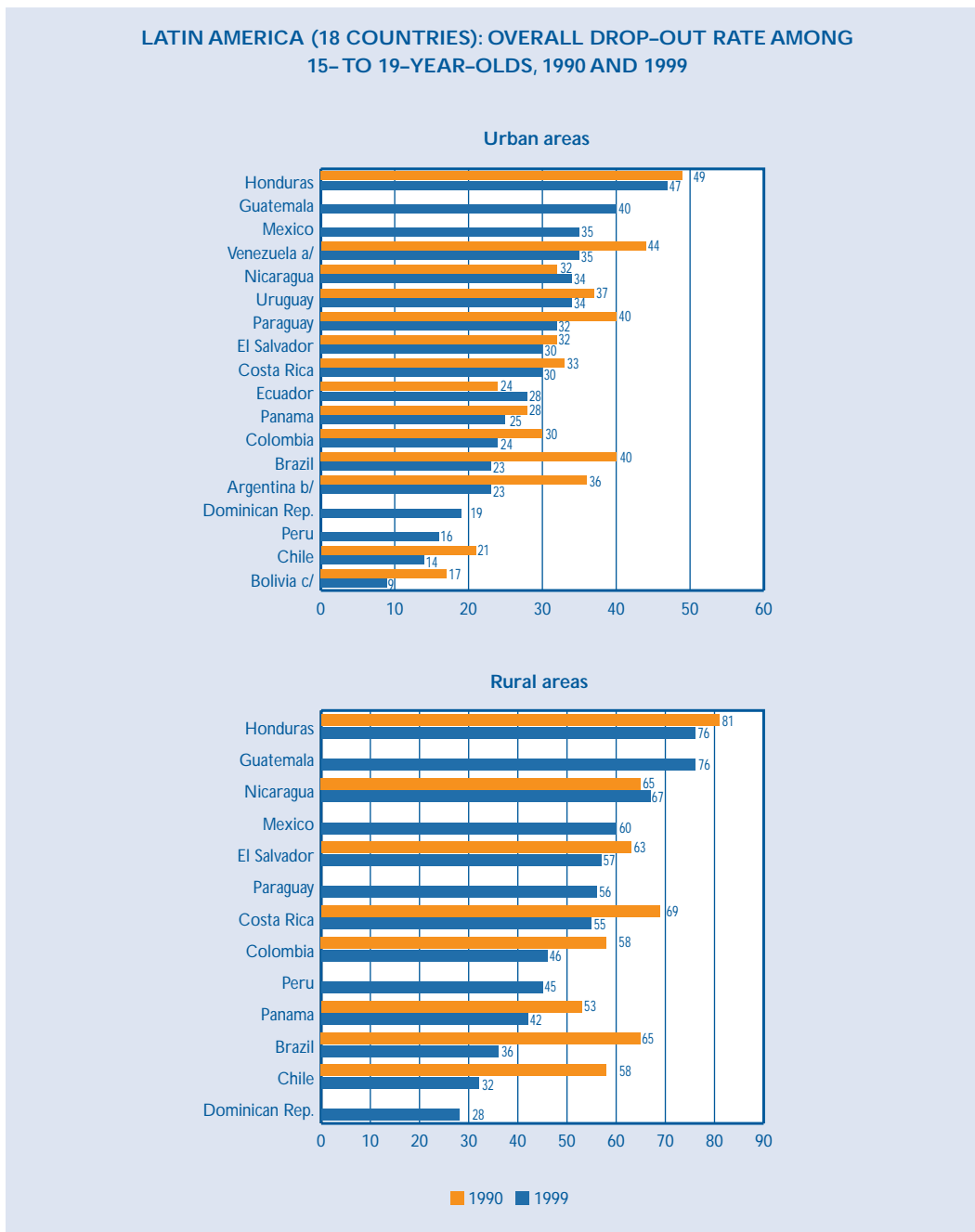
^{a/} In most of the countries, this means the completion of at least 12 years of study.

The main factors that helped to reduce drop-out rates over the past decade include (a) an increase in the coverage of preschool enrolment, which improved children's performance in the initial years of primary school and reduced repetition rates, one of the factors that most strongly influence the decision to leave school; (b) a shift to automatic promotion systems in primary school or in the initial years of primary education, which reduces the likelihood that students will be over-age for their grade, a factor closely associated with dropping out; (c) the introduction, expansion and, in some cases, improved targeting of programmes and subsidies to improve retention (scholarships, provision of free school supplies and school feeding programmes), especially in rural areas, where drop-out rates in primary school were very high in the early 1990s; (d) improvement of school infrastructure and of access to schools in isolated rural areas; and (e) greater parental involvement and the introduction of incentives for them to participate in school activities and to monitor their children's school situation and performance.

Dropping out is the culmination of a process shaped by multiple factors and circumstances, some of which concern children and teenagers themselves or their socio-economic status (out-of-school factors), while others are associated with shortcomings in the educational system (in-school factors). It is crucial to identify these drop-out risk factors more precisely, as well as the circumstances and processes that induce young people to give up their studies, in order to design policies and programmes to achieve rapid improvements in retention rates and to progress towards the fulfilment of the Millennium development goals.

Among the out-of-school factors, low household income and the various deficiencies in the material well-being of poor children and teenagers are a key reason why their drop-out and repetition rates are higher than those of their middle- and high-income counterparts. On average, drop-out rates for teenagers from urban households in the lowest income quartile are triple the rates for teenagers from households in the top income quartile. These disparities between socio-economic strata –which help to perpetuate

Figure 5



Source: CEPAL, sobre la base de tabulaciones especiales de las encuestas de hogares de los respectivos países.

a/ Nationwide total.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Eight departmental capitals and El Alto.

social inequalities beginning in childhood— are wider in urban areas than in rural ones, much wider in terms of primary school drop-out rates and, as a rule, widest in the countries of the region with the highest rates of primary- and secondary-school enrolment. While dropping out at an early stage is less frequent in these countries than in the others, it is an increasingly intractable problem of social policy.

A look at drop-out trends in the 1990s reveals that the overall improvements recorded did not significantly narrow the disparities between the educational achievements of teenagers from different social groups. This implies that one consequence of the persistence of educational underachievement in the region is the maintenance of inequalities and social exclusion among Latin America's youth. It also shows that household income levels and shortages are still a decisive –perhaps an even more decisive– consideration for steering policies and targeting programme benefits, though the design of such policies and programmes should be based on an understanding of the varied and complex factors that influence decisions to leave school at different stages of the education process. The final decision to drop out is rarely unexpected; it is, rather, the culmination of a chain of circumstances that raise the drop-out risk as the student gets older and experiences mounting difficulties in performance and adaptation, especially at the point of transition from primary to secondary school.

Young people living in households with low socio-economic status and income are much more likely to drop out of school, but only when other factors more directly related to educational achievement are present, such as a low level of education on the part of the mother, which tends to result in less value being placed on formal education (and is associated with other critical situations as well); the absence of one of the parents from the household, which entails higher economic risks and undermines the family's capacity to act as a social support of the education process; and the need to find paid work at an early age, which is the factor most closely related to school failure and abandonment owing to the relative incompatibility between the demands of work and those of academic performance.

Among these factors, a low level of education on the part of the mother (five or fewer years of study) and, to a lesser extent, the absence of one of the parents have clear effects on drop-out rates. Of the population of urban teenagers whose mothers have little education, over 40% have dropped out (55% in rural areas), while for those whose mothers have at least completed primary school, the proportion borders on 15% in urban areas and 34% in rural ones; moreover, this factor quintuples the risk of dropping out at an early stage of the education process (15% versus 3%). While the presence of only one parent in the household increases the risk of dropping out by an average of nearly 40% in urban areas, a poorly educated mother increases this risk by over 170%. Since both factors precede children's entry into the educational system, both are clearly attributive factors. These circumstances, particularly the mother's level of education, are therefore considered key elements in the transmission of socio-economic inequality.

As for the immediate reasons given by young people for dropping out of school, over 70% of drop-outs in Bolivia, Nicaragua, Paraguay and El Salvador say that they left because of economic problems or because they were working or looking for work, while over 50% of drop-outs in Chile, Peru and Venezuela give these reasons. Among young women, economic factors are equally important, but household chores and pregnancy or motherhood are often mentioned as well. As might be expected, only in rural areas is lack of access to schools a relatively common reason for dropping out.

Youth employment is also associated with differences in drop-out rates: in urban areas, 53% of young people who work gave up their studies before finishing secondary school, with 15% dropping out at an early stage, while the proportions among young people who do not work are only 19% and 6%, respectively. In rural areas, 71% of young

people who work have not completed their education, compared to 38% of those who do not work. These differences, however, do not necessarily mean that work is a factor that raises drop-out rates, since it is impossible to tell from household surveys whether the young people concerned began to work before or after leaving school.

The high social and private costs generated by high drop-out rates in Latin America point to the need to launch new programmes and devote more resources to the urgent task of keeping children and teenagers in the school system. Indeed, there are few areas in which resource investments bring higher returns. The social costs of dropping out include those that result from having a less qualified and less “qualifiable” workforce, when individuals have not attained the minimum level of education they need to benefit from training programmes offered by the State or by firms. The extreme case is the cost of dropping out at a very early stage of the education process, which leads to functional illiteracy. Low labour productivity and its dampening effect on economic growth, as well as the higher expenditure needed to finance social programmes and transfers to sectors that cannot generate their own resources, are also regarded as some of the social costs of dropping out. At another level, the social costs can also be deemed to include the intergenerational transmission of social inequalities and its adverse impact on social integration, which undermines efforts to strengthen and deepen democracy.

The private costs of dropping out are normally estimated on the basis of the labour-market income forgone by those who abandon formal education before completing a certain number of years of study. To generate orders of magnitude of the individual losses that result from dropping out of school, estimates were prepared of the returns or wage income obtained in the region’s urban labour markets for each additional year of education. On that basis, it was possible to calculate the costs (in terms of lower future income) incurred by those who complete fewer years of study in comparison to a baseline level of education.

The estimates –which refer to the returns obtained in urban labour markets for additional years of education– show that, in countries where dropping out occurs early in the education process, increasing retention up to the end of primary school (four additional years of study) translates into a 25%–to–60% increase in earned income. In countries where dropping out usually coincides with the end of primary school, the completion of three more years of education (up to the end of middle school) results in increases of between 30% and 50%. In countries that have achieved relatively high secondary education coverage, dropping out before the end of secondary school also entails considerable private and social losses: leaving secondary school two years before completing it results in a 20%–to–30% loss of income.

In conclusion, policies to help keep children in school yield significant benefits not only by reducing social costs, but also by increasing earned income. More opportunities to obtain better-paid jobs also mean fewer and shorter periods of unemployment for those who complete secondary school and can continue their studies, as well as smaller wage losses upon starting a new job. Enhancing the internal efficiency of school systems also results in considerable savings of public resources, since repeating students and drop-outs are concentrated in State-run and/or State-financed educational institutions.

An equally important consideration is that drastically reducing the number of children who leave school before or upon completing their primary education is the best way

to prevent child labour and comply with international agreements on this subject, as laid down in the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

In addition, the findings on the private rewards to be derived from additional years of education suggests that, as a rule, continued enrolment in school yields higher returns for girls than for boys in urban labour markets, meaning that policies to keep girls in school should help to narrow the gender wage gap.

It should be reiterated that social programmes to discourage dropping out at an early stage should be given priority on the agendas of the region's governments. Efforts to raise retention rates in primary school, along with improvements in education quality, are crucial for enabling the region to meet the Millennium development goals. These efforts not only promote progress towards the education goals adopted by governments for 2015, but are also a precondition for reducing inequalities and achieving more ambitious objectives in terms of improving the quality of Latin America's human resources. It is therefore essential to continue to assess the achievements, constraints and impact on retention rates of programmes such as Brazil's "Bolsa Escola" scholarship programme and Mexico's "Progresá" education, health and food programme,⁵ which, if replicated in other countries, could have an equally profound impact on poverty reduction and the improvement of human capital in the longer term.

Efforts to slash drop-out rates so that today's young people can achieve higher levels of education and future earned income that will enable them to keep their families out of poverty will not be fully effective unless education policies –whose potential effects on well-being and equity are felt in the long term– are complemented by the generation of high-quality jobs and adequate social protection so that the more advanced skills on offer can be productively absorbed. The structure of the labour supply must be more closely aligned with that of labour demand, in a context of rising productivity and income, to guarantee that the additional years of study undertaken by young people are duly rewarded and that education is not devalued.

The potential and limitations of social capital

The purpose of the social agenda is to provide an assessment of emerging social issues in Latin America. Recently, the issue of social capital and its potential contribution to social policies has taken on increasing importance. It has therefore been selected for study here with a view to answering a number of questions: What is understood by "social capital"? What are the main approaches and positions being taken on this issue? What is the potential of social capital and what are the limitations of the approach based on building the capacities of vulnerable groups in order to reduce poverty? What interesting practices in this regard are to be found in the region?

The issue of social capital has given rise to a wide variety of approaches and positions, which place particular emphasis on the capacity to mobilize resources; membership of networks; the sources of social capital; the individual or collective actions made possible by the infrastructure of social capital; and the positive and negative consequences and results it can generate.

5 In 2002 this programme became known as the "Opportunities" Human Development Programme.

The variety of definitions of social capital reflects, in part, the fact that the concept is used in different disciplines, each of which focuses on separate aspects. International development agencies consider it useful because it emphasizes the need to understand the relationships between economic agents and between their organizations (both formal and informal), and serves to enhance the efficiency of economic and social activities. Such social and institutional relationships are deemed desirable because they generate positive externalities for development. According to this view, there is a form of complementation between public policies and associativity and the social capital paradigm based on trust, reciprocity and cooperation. Social capital is regarded as a factor that reduces transaction costs, produces public goods and facilitates the work of effective grass-roots organizations.

Some of the conceptual shortcomings displayed by approaches to social capital are the failure to analyse fully the relationship between this concept and others such as power imbalances and gender inequalities; clientage between grass-roots organizations and government and non-governmental organizations; and the existence of negative social capital that can delay or cancel out the positive effects of social programmes and projects. These limitations are compounded by the fact that, owing to the multifaceted nature of this concept, common indicators have yet to be developed and measured.

The concept of social capital can nonetheless represent a valuable input for poverty reduction programmes. Notable in this regard are efforts to broaden participation through the active involvement of stakeholders, as a way of enhancing accountability and attaching due importance to the programme environment. Suggestions for building or strengthening existing social capital include four possible types of policies: promotional, cultural, participatory and coordination- and synergy-oriented policies. Lessons can be drawn from experiences in Brazil, Chile and Guatemala on the usefulness of incorporating social capital components into poverty eradication programmes. They include the use of non-traditional forms of social capital, the adoption of innovative organizational structures and, most importantly, genuine political will on the part of State institutions to share their economic resources and, ultimately, their power.

From a methodological standpoint, consideration of the forms of social capital that exist or have existed in a community facilitates the development of participatory methodologies and the empowerment of weak social actors. It must be stressed, however, that this process can be slow, and in some cases very costly, though it does produce interesting results when it is underpinned with adequate resources and training, along with the political will to change the conditions of poverty of specific population groups. This process is in no way a substitute for social policies aimed at creating a more integrated society on the basis of a sound economy that redistributes resources more equitably. It can, however, help ensure the success of programmes and projects for reducing poverty in the region.

Like past editions, this year's *Social Panorama* includes a section on the international social agenda, which outlines major international meetings and agreements on social issues over the past year. Two major presidential meetings were held in Latin America: the Eleventh Ibero-American Summit of Heads of State and Government and the sixteenth summit meeting of the Rio Group. At both meetings, the heads of State and Government of the region reaffirmed their commitment to strengthening peace, development, environmental protection and human rights. Specifically, the participants in the

Ibero–American Summit focused on the rights of the child, while those in the Rio Group summit centred their discussions on policies concerning the family.

Non–governmental organizations, meanwhile, held two world social forums in Porto Alegre, Brazil, which attracted a broad range of participants. At both meetings the new features of globalization were analysed, with particular emphasis on their social impact. Under the banner “Another world is possible”, various thematic proposals were put forward for combating and offering alternatives to what has been called the “single development model”.



Possibilities and limitations for the reduction of poverty and the redistribution of income

A. The recent situation

The economic growth of Latin America as a whole has been marked by sluggishness and instability, due partly to the changing international environment. Thus, in 2002 the region will have lost half a decade of growth since the Asian crisis, with a decline of around 2% in the per capita product compared with the 1997 level. This figure is not only reflected in a deterioration in the social situation and an increase in poverty, especially during the last two years, but also compromises the region's possibilities of generating conditions which will permit a substantial improvement in the levels of living of the population in the next few years.

1. Recent economic trends

The economic growth rate of the Latin American countries displayed considerable instability in the second half of the 1990s, and this has tended to persist in the last year or two. Thus, in 2000 there was a strong recovery compared with the 1998–1999 period in the countries of the Andean Community and in Chile, which had been particularly hard hit by the fall in their export prices; Brazil's growth (especially in the tradable goods sectors) was favoured by the abandonment of a fixed exchange rate, while Mexico, the Dominican Republic and some of the Central American countries benefited from the great buoyancy of the United States economy. The region as a whole, then, registered a GDP growth rate of 3.9% in 2000, as compared with only 0.5% in 1999, though the per capita figures were only 2.3% and -1.1%, respectively. It should be remembered, however, that in a number of cases the better performance in 2000 only reflected a partial recovery from

very depressed levels of the product and was generally not accompanied by an investment process that augured the beginning of a period of sustained growth in the region.

Furthermore, the year 2001 was marked by the weakening or exhaustion of several of the growth factors mentioned. The external environment was characterized by the simultaneous loss of dynamism of all the main world economies, i.e., the United States, the European Union and Japan, although the intensity and mechanisms by which each country was affected by the world economic slowdown were not the same in all cases. In some cases (Mexico and Central America, for example) the main factor was the slower growth of trade volumes, whereas in others (the countries exporting petroleum, minerals and tropical products) the deterioration in the terms of trade was more important, and still others (Argentina and Brazil) were affected in particular by the reduced access to external finance. Moreover, a

number of countries had ongoing imbalances and domestic problems which were aggravated or revealed by the deterioration in the external environment but in any case were hindrances to growth in themselves. Examples of these are the energy crisis in Brazil and the problems of over-indebtedness and the system of "convertibility" in Argentina. Thus, all in all Latin America registered GDP growth of only 0.4% in 2001, which amounts to a 1.1% contraction in the per capita product.

The 2000–2001 period thus displays two opposing movements as regards per capita GDP growth, that is to say, a year of growth followed by a year of contraction. Taking the average for 2000 and 2001, the Latin American per capita GDP grew at an average rate of 0.5%. Several countries suffered a decline in their per capita product in that period, especially in the case of such South American countries as Argentina (-3.9%), Uruguay (-3.0%), Paraguay (-1.6%) and Bolivia (-0.4%). Special mention may be made of the case of Argentina, whose current economic crisis is one of the most serious registered in the region in recent decades (see box I.2). Substantial falls in the per capita product were also registered, however, in Haiti (-1.2%) and Costa Rica (-0.6%). In contrast, the countries which achieved positive growth rates in this two-year period included in particular the Dominican Republic (3.5%) and Ecuador (2.9%), followed by Chile (2.3%), Mexico (1.6%), Venezuela (1.6%) and Brazil (1.5%) (see table I.1).

This alternation of growth and contraction gave rise in the 2000–2001 period to one of the highest unemployment rates observed in the region in the last ten years, exceeding the 1990–1999 average by 1.3 percentage points. The rates were still higher in Argentina, Colombia, Paraguay and Uruguay, where they were between four and six percentage points higher than those of the previous decade. On the other hand, some countries, such as El Salvador, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama and the Dominican Republic registered a decline in unemployment compared

with the 1990s (see table I.1 and table 1 of the statistical appendix).

Finally, it may be noted that notwithstanding the foregoing, urban minimum wages showed a general upward trend in the region in the 2000–2001 period, although by widely differing amounts. Whereas in Guatemala the minimum wage rose by 10.8%, in Argentina, Colombia and Mexico it did not increase by more than 1.0%, and in Costa Rica and Uruguay it actually went down. For its part, inflation remained relatively stable in most of the countries, with average monthly rises in the consumer price index of less than 1% in all cases except Ecuador and Venezuela. The inflation rates registered in 2001 were generally lower than in 2000, the only exceptions being Brazil, Costa Rica and Guatemala.

2. Expected changes in poverty

During the 1990s, both poverty and indigence were marked by a general downward trend in Latin America, though the initial vigour of this trend gradually waned until in some countries it was actually reversed towards the end of the period.¹ The percentage of poor households estimated for 1999 (35%) was almost 6 percentage points lower than the 1990 level, but only 0.2 points lower than in 1997, while indigence went down from 18% of all households in 1990 to 14% in 1999 (0.5 points less than in 1997), reflecting a clear reduction of poverty and indigence in the first seven years of the decade, followed by relative stagnation in both respects in the three-year period from 1997 to 1999. In terms of the percentage of poor and extremely poor persons, the figures for the latter year represented 44% and 18% respectively of the Latin American population. The achievements in reducing the relative incidence of poverty were not reflected in a similar reduction in absolute terms, however, since the number of poor grew by 11 million to a total of 211 million in 1999. In the case of the indigent population, however, there was a reduction of approximately 4 million

¹ See in this respect ECLAC (2001a, chapter I).

Table I.1

LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES): EVOLUTION OF SOME ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL INDICATORS, 1990–2001									
Country Year	Per capita GDP (Average annual rate of variation) <i>a/</i>	Urban unemployment	Average real wage <i>c/</i>	Urban minimum wage	Country Year	Per capita GDP (Average annual rate of variation) <i>a/</i>	Urban unemployment	Average real wage <i>c/</i>	Urban minimum wage
Argentina					Honduras				
1990–1999	2.6	11.9	0.6	0.8	1990–1999	-0.2	6.1	...	1.0
2000–2001	-3.9	16.3	0.7	1.0	2000–2001	1.1	6.3	...	-
Bolivia					Mexico				
1990–1999	1.6	5.6	3.2	7.4	1990–1999	1.5	3.6	0.8	-4.7
2000–2001	-0.4	7.5	...	6.8	2000–2001	1.6	2.4	5.8	0.6
Brazil					Nicaragua				
1990–1999	0.3	5.6	-1.0	-0.4	1990–1999	0.2	14.3	8.0	...
2000–2001	1.5	6.7	-3.0	6.2	2000–2001	1.8	10.3	2.2	...
Chile					Panama				
1990–1999	4.2	7.2	3.5	5.9	1990–1999	3.2	16.7	...	1.5
2000–2001	2.3	9.2	1.5	5.4	2000–2001	0.0	15.9	...	5.7
Colombia					Paraguay				
1990–1999	0.6	11.6	1.0	-0.4	1990–1999	-0.6	6.3	0.3	-1.6
2000–2001	0.1	17.7	2.0	0.8	2000–2001	-1.6	10.4	...	3.9
Costa Rica					Peru				
1990–1999	2.3	5.4	2.1	1.1	1990–1999	1.3	8.5	-0.8	1.4
2000–2001	-0.6	5.6	...	-0.2	2000–2001	0.0	8.9	-0.4	6.0
Ecuador					Dominican Rep.				
1990–1999	-0.5	9.4	...	0.9	1990–1999	2.7	16.9	...	1.2
2000–2001	2.9	12.3	...	3.7	2000–2001	3.5	14.8	...	2.7
El Salvador					Uruguay				
1990–1999	2.6	7.8	...	-0.6	1990–1999	2.5	10.0	0.5	-6.0
2000–2001	0.1	6.5	2000–2001	-3.0	14.5	-0.8	-1.5
Guatemala					Venezuela				
1990–1999	1.4	3.7	...	-9.9	1990–1999	0.3	10.3	...	-3.0
2000–2001	-0.1	3.8	...	10.8	2000–2001	1.6	13.7	...	2.5
Haiti					Latin America				
1990–1999	-2.8	-8.3	1990–1999	0.9	7.0
2000–2001	-1.2	2000–2001	0.5	8.3

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of official figures.

a/ On the basis of the per capita GDP in dollars, at constant 1995 prices. The figure for 2001 is a preliminary estimate.

b/ In the case of Chile, Guatemala, Nicaragua, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela this refers to total national unemployment. Moreover, instead of the periods 1990–1999 and 2000–2001, the following periods apply: Bolivia (1990–1999 and 2000), Guatemala (1991–1997 and 1998), Honduras (1990–1999 and 2001), Paraguay (1990–1999 and 2000), and the Dominican Republic and Latin America (1991–1999 and 2000–2001).

c/ In general, the coverage of this index is rather incomplete. In most of the countries it refers only to formal workers in the industrial sector. The figure for 2000 is a preliminary estimate.

persons, to a total of 89 million at the end of 1999 (see table I.2).

The evolution of poverty in the region during the 1990s was the result of a combination of heterogeneous trends at the individual country level. In Brazil, Chile and Panama the percentage of poor persons went down by over 10 percentage points, and in

Costa Rica, Guatemala and Uruguay the reductions were between 5 and 10 percentage points. In Venezuela, however, poverty increased by over nine points and in Paraguay by nearly seven points, while Ecuador, Colombia, Honduras and Mexico did not achieve any significant reductions in poverty levels (see table I.2).

Table I.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE INDICATORS, a/ 1990–2000 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	Households and persons under the:								
		Poverty line b/				Indigence line				
		H		PG	FGT ₂	H		PG	FGT ₂	
		Households	Persons			Households	Persons			
Argentina c/	1990	16.2	21.2	7.2	3.4	3.5	5.2	1.6	0.8	
	1994	10.2	13.2	4.3	1.9	1.5	2.6	0.7	0.3	
	1997	13.1	17.8	6.2	3.1	3.3	4.8	1.5	0.7	
	1999	13.1	19.7	6.8	3.3	3.1	4.8	1.4	0.7	
Bolivia	1989 d/	49.4	53.1	24.5	15.0	22.1	23.3	9.7	6.1	
	1994 d/	45.6	51.6	21.6	11.8	16.8	19.8	6.3	3.0	
	1997	56.7	62.1	33.6	22.8	32.7	37.2	18.6	12.1	
	1999	54.7	60.6	33.6	23.9	32.6	36.5	20.1	14.6	
Brazil	1990	41.4	48.0	23.5	14.7	18.3	23.4	9.7	5.5	
	1993	37.1	45.3	21.7	13.6	15.3	20.2	8.7	5.3	
	1996	28.6	35.8	16.7	10.4	10.5	13.9	6.2	4.0	
	1999	29.9	37.5	17.0	10.2	9.6	12.9	5.3	3.3	
Chile	1990	33.3	38.6	14.7	7.9	10.6	12.9	4.3	2.3	
	1994	23.2	27.5	9.7	5.0	6.2	7.6	2.6	1.5	
	1998	17.8	21.7	7.5	3.8	4.7	5.6	2.0	1.1	
	2000	16.6	20.6	7.1	3.7	4.6	5.7	2.1	1.2	
Colombia	1991	50.5	56.1	24.9	14.5	22.6	26.1	9.8	5.5	
	1994	47.3	52.5	26.6	17.5	25.0	28.5	13.8	9.1	
	1997	44.9	50.9	22.9	13.8	20.1	23.5	9.6	5.8	
	1999	48.7	54.9	25.6	15.7	23.2	26.8	11.2	6.9	
Costa Rica	1990	23.7	26.2	10.7	6.5	9.8	9.8	4.8	3.4	
	1994	20.8	23.1	8.6	5.0	7.7	8.0	3.6	2.4	
	1997	20.3	22.5	8.5	4.9	7.4	7.8	3.5	2.3	
	1999	18.2	20.3	8.1	4.8	7.5	7.8	3.5	2.3	
Ecuador e/	1990	55.8	62.1	27.6	15.8	22.6	26.2	9.2	4.9	
	1994	52.3	57.9	26.2	15.6	22.4	25.5	9.7	5.6	
	1997	49.8	56.2	23.9	13.5	18.6	22.2	7.7	4.1	
	1999	58.0	63.6	30.1	18.2	27.2	31.3	11.5	6.3	
El Salvador	1995	47.6	54.2	24.0	14.3	18.2	21.7	9.1	5.6	
	1997	48.0	55.5	24.3	13.9	18.5	23.3	8.4	4.1	
	1999	43.5	49.8	22.9	14.0	18.3	21.9	9.4	5.8	
	Guatemala	1989	63.0	69.1	32.6	20.7	36.7	41.8	16.3	9.9
1998		53.5	60.5	29.2	17.2	28.0	34.1	12.6	6.2	
Honduras		1990	75.2	80.5	50.2	35.9	54.0	60.6	31.5	20.2
		1994	73.1	77.9	45.3	31.3	48.5	53.9	26.3	16.4
	1997	73.8	79.1	45.6	30.8	48.3	54.4	25.4	15.4	
	1999	74.3	79.7	47.4	32.9	50.6	56.8	27.9	17.5	
Mexico	1989	39.0	47.8	18.7	9.9	14.0	18.8	5.9	2.7	
	1994	35.8	45.1	17.0	8.4	11.8	16.8	4.6	1.8	
	1996	43.4	52.1	21.8	11.7	15.6	21.3	7.1	3.3	
	1998	38.0	46.9	18.4	9.4	13.2	18.5	5.3	2.2	
	2000	33.3	41.1	15.8	8.1	10.7	15.2	4.7	2.1	
	Nicaragua	1993	68.1	73.6	41.9	29.3	43.2	48.4	24.3	16.2
1998		65.1	69.9	39.4	27.3	40.1	44.6	22.6	15.1	
Panama		1991	36.3	42.8	19.2	11.5	16.0	19.2	7.9	4.7
		1994	29.7	36.1	15.8	9.0	12.0	15.7	6.0	3.2
	1997	27.3	33.2	10.6	6.2	10.2	13.0	3.7	2.3	
	1999	24.2	30.2	11.8	6.4	8.3	10.7	3.9	2.1	
Paraguay	1990 f/	36.8	42.2	16.1	8.0	10.4	12.7	3.6	1.5	
	1994 e/	42.4	49.9	20.7	11.5	14.8	18.8	6.5	3.3	
	1996 e/	39.6	46.3	18.5	9.8	13.0	16.3	5.0	2.4	
	1999	51.7	60.6	30.2	19.0	26.0	33.9	14.5	8.5	
Peru	1997	40.5	47.6	20.3	11.7	20.4	25.1	9.8	5.4	
	1999	42.3	48.6	20.6	11.7	18.7	22.4	9.1	5.0	
	Dominican Republic Uruguay e/	1997	32.4	37.2	15.3	8.5	12.8	14.4	5.5	3.0
1990		11.8	17.8	5.3	2.4	2.0	3.4	0.9	0.4	
1994		5.8	9.7	2.9	1.3	1.1	1.9	0.5	0.2	
1997		5.7	9.5	2.8	1.2	0.9	1.7	0.5	0.2	
Venezuela	1999	5.6	9.4	2.8	1.2	0.9	1.8	0.4	0.2	
	1990	34.2	40.0	15.9	8.7	11.8	14.6	5.1	2.5	
	1994	42.1	48.7	19.9	10.8	15.1	19.2	6.2	3.0	
	1997	42.3	48.1	21.1	12.0	17.1	20.5	7.4	3.9	
1999	44.0	49.4	22.7	13.8	19.4	21.7	9.1	5.5		
Latin America g/	1990	41.0	48.3	-	-	17.7	22.5	-	-	
	1994	37.5	45.7	-	-	15.9	20.8	-	-	
	1997	35.5	43.5	-	-	14.4	19.0	-	-	
	1999	35.3	43.8	-	-	13.9	18.5	-	-	

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

a/ For the definition of each indicator, see *Social panorama of Latin America 2000–2001*, box I.2. The indices PG and FGT₂ are calculated on the basis of the distribution of the poor population.

b/ Includes households and persons in a state of indigence or extreme poverty.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight capitals of departments, plus the city of El Alto.

e/ Urban areas.

f/ Metropolitan area of Asunción.

g/ Estimate for 19 countries of the region.

On the basis of these trends of the past decade, ECLAC projections² indicate that around the year 2000 the incidence of poverty in Latin America was around 42.1% and that of indigence around 17.8%. This means that in that year the rates of poverty and indigence had been brought down thanks to the modest but positive growth registered by various coun-

tries of the region. Furthermore, this reduction in percentage terms is also estimated to have been reflected in a smaller volume of the population living in conditions of want, since the poor totalled 206.7 million and the indigent 87.5 million, i.e., 5 million and 3 million less, respectively, than in 1999 (see box I.1).

Box I.1

PROJECTIONS OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS FOR 2000, 2001 AND 2002

In view of the social conditions prevailing in Latin America, the recent international and regional crises may be expected to have had an impact on poverty and indigence in the countries. Identifying those effects calls for new measurements based on the household surveys held in these years. Currently, however, there are few cases where processed data from household surveys carried out after 1999 are available.

For this reason, projections have been made of the poverty rates for the countries of the region, using the methodology described in box I.4, on the basis of two elements: economic growth (the growth observed in 2000 and 2001 and that projected for 2002) and the changes in distribution expected from that growth. This enables us to gain a more up-to-date perception of the social situation of Latin America, even though the figures are not final and, as in every exercise of this type, may be subject to some margins of error.

	1999		2000		2001	
	Poverty	Indigence	Poverty	Indigence	Poverty	Indigence
	(Percentage of total population)					
Argentina a/	19.7	4.8	24.7	7.2	30.3	10.2
Bolivia	60.6	36.4	60.6	36.5	61.2	37.3
Brazil	37.5	12.9	36.5	12.3	36.9	13.0
Chile b/	21.7	5.6	20.6	5.7	20.0	5.4
Colombia	54.9	26.8	54.8	27.1	54.9	27.6
Costa Rica	20.3	7.8	20.6	7.9	21.7	8.3
Ecuador a/	63.6	31.3	61.3	31.3	60.2	28.1
El Salvador	49.8	21.9	49.9	22.2	49.9	22.5
Guatemala c/	60.5	34.1	60.1	33.7	60.4	34.4
Honduras	79.7	56.8	79.1	56.0	79.1	56.0
Mexico b/	46.9	18.5	41.1	15.2	42.3	16.4
Nicaragua	69.9	44.6	67.5	41.4	67.4	41.5
Panama	30.2	10.7	30.0	10.7	30.8	11.6
Paraguay	60.6	33.8	61.7	35.7	61.8	36.1
Peru	48.6	22.4	48.0	22.2	49.0	23.2
Dominican Republic d/	37.2	14.4	29.5	10.9	29.2	10.9
Uruguay a/	9.4	1.8	10.2	2.0	11.4	2.4
Venezuela	49.4	21.7	48.8	21.2	48.5	21.2
Latin America						
Percentage of population	43.8	18.5	42.1	17.8	43.0	18.6
Millions of persons	211.4	89.4	206.7	87.5	214.3	92.8

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of micro-simulations based on household surveys of the respective countries.

a/ Urban areas only.

b/ The figure for 1999 corresponds to the measurement made in 1998. The figure for 2000 corresponds to the measurement based on household surveys.

c/ The 1999 figure corresponds to the measurement made in 1998.

d/ The 1999 figure corresponds to the measurement made in 1997.

2 The poverty figures given hereafter were obtained in most cases by projecting the data from 1999 household surveys, taking into account both the expected economic growth and the changes in distribution. The micro-simulation method used for this purpose is described in box I.4.

THE CASE OF ARGENTINA

The present economic and social crisis in Argentina is an example of the fragility that a country can display when there are persistent macroeconomic imbalances. In recent months, due to such factors as the marked deterioration in the purchasing power of the peso, growing unemployment and the lack of a safety net for the neediest sectors, there has been a drastic decline in the living conditions of the population, whose real extent has yet to be determined.

According to the latest measurements made by ECLAC on the basis of household surveys, in 1999 poverty affected 19.7% of the urban population, while 4.8% of that population were indigent. According to the projections given in this edition of the *Social Panorama*, which are based on micro-simulations made using the methodology described in box I.4, the incidence of poverty increased by 10.6 percentage points between 1999 and 2001 and will probably increase by some six points more during 2002. Indigence, for its part, is estimated to have increased by 5.4 percentage points between 1999 and 2001 and will very likely increase by a further 4.1 points in 2002.

The trend that may be gathered from these figures is in line with other estimates of poverty in Argentina. According to the National Institute of Statistics and Censuses (INDEC), in May 2002 poverty affected 49.7% of the population of Greater Buenos Aires –23 points more than in October 1999– while the rate of indigence was 22.7%: an increase of 16 points compared with 1999. Although these figures are not directly comparable with the ECLAC projections, they are just as illustrative of the speed with which economic crises can affect social conditions and wipe out the achievements previously attained. A broader picture of the problem, which confirms the foregoing, may be obtained from the behaviour of the open unemployment rate in urban areas, which came to 21.5% in May 2002, representing an increase of 7.7 points since October 1999.

It is important to note that the Argentine crisis not only affects the present economic and social conditions but also seriously limits the country's future possibilities of reducing poverty and fulfilling the Millennium Goals, because not only has the drop in the product been very pronounced but also it will probably take several years even to recover the previous levels.

In the year 2000, ten countries had reduced their poverty rates by at least 0.4 percentage points compared with 1999. Outstanding among them were Mexico and the Dominican Republic, whose reductions exceeded five points: a major achievement in a period of only two years (1998–2000). Other countries which are estimated to have reduced their levels of poverty by quite substantial amounts (around 2.4 percentage points) were Ecuador and Nicaragua. In the cases of Bolivia, Costa Rica and El Salvador, it is estimated that there were no significant variations in poverty levels during the year 2000, but that year was unfavourable for Argentina, Paraguay and Uruguay, where the proportion of poor persons is estimated to have increased by between 0.8 and 1.2 percentage points.

With regard to the evolution of extreme poverty or indigence during the year 2000, the most significant reductions compared with 1999 were in the Dominican Republic (3.5 percentage points), Mexico (3.3 percentage points) and Nicaragua (3.2 per-

centage points), although the first of these cases corresponds more exactly to the 1997–2000 period, while the other two correspond to 1998–2000. As in the case of overall poverty, Paraguay displayed the biggest deterioration in terms of extreme poverty, with an increase of nearly two percentage points.

Moreover, as already noted at the start of this chapter, the performance of the economy during 2001 was far below what was expected at the beginning of the year. Not only was the growth rate of the regional product much lower, but also there was an enormous deterioration in the social situation in countries like Argentina and Uruguay. In addition, all the countries of the region were affected –some more than others– by the slowdown in economic growth. In view of all this, it is hardly surprising that the incidence of poverty probably increased in 2001, thus reversing the downward trend in that incidence during the 1990s. According to the projections, the poverty rate in the region stands at 43.0%, i.e., 0.8 percentage points above the figure of the

previous year, while the rate of indigence is 18.6%, an increase of 0.8 points.³

With regard to the individual countries, it is estimated that twelve of them registered increases in their rates of poverty and fourteen had higher rates of indigence than in 2000, although in half of the cases these increases would not exceed 0.5 percentage points. The most notable deterioration was in Argentina, which, with its figures of a 5.6% increase in poverty and a 3.1% rise in indigence, is clearly an exceptional case in the region. Mexico, Uruguay and Peru are also estimated to have registered increases (of between 1.0 and 1.2 percentage points) in their rates of poverty. At the other extreme, it is estimated, Chile, Ecuador, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela not only avoided an increase in their rates of poverty and indigence but may even have managed to reduce them.

These figures also show that the poverty rate for Latin America as a whole went down by 0.8 percentage points between 1999 and 2001, thanks to the marked reduction registered during the year 2000, which the subsequent deterioration did not succeed in offsetting. Indigence, however, is estimated to have remained almost unchanged compared with 1999, varying by only 0.1 points. In this case, the increase projected for 2001 does appear to have outweighed the reduction achieved in the year 2000.

In absolute terms, although the results of the projections predict a reduction in the relative rate of poverty at the regional level, the number of poor in Latin America nevertheless grew by some 3 million persons between 1999 and 2001. If the comparison is made between 2000 and 2001, the growth in the number of poor persons would amount to over 7 million, of which 5 million are indigent. This is a matter of particular concern, since it would appear to indicate that the deterioration in living conditions was greatest for the most vulnerable groups.

Finally, one of the clearest consequences of the recent economic slowdown is the downward review of economic growth expectations for the year 2002. According to the latest available projections, the per capita product of the region will go down by around 2.4% during the present year, with the biggest declines being in Argentina (-15%) and Uruguay and Venezuela (around -5% in both cases). A reduction in the per capita GDP, although by a substantially smaller amount, is also expected in Bolivia, Colombia, Mexico, Panama and Paraguay, with a state of stagnation in Brazil and most of Central America.

These negative growth expectations are reflected in an increase in the level of poverty projected for 2002, when the percentage of persons in a state of poverty will probably reach around 44%, one percentage point higher than in 2001, while the proportion of indigents will amount to a little less than 20%. The greatest increase in poverty is expected to be registered once again in Argentina, as in 2001; there could also be significant increases in Venezuela, Paraguay and Uruguay, while only in Peru and the Dominican Republic is there likely to be a slight reduction in poverty.

With regard to the total number of poor, the projections for 2002 indicate a probable increase of around seven million persons compared with 2001, of whom six million will be indigent. If these assumptions come true, the number of poor in the region will have increased by 15 million during the 2000–2002 period, which represents a serious deterioration in the social situation in the region. It should be noted, however, that these figures do not represent proportional increases in the volume of poverty in all the countries of the region: the increase in the number of poor in Argentina, which accounts for one-third of the total increase in the region, would be one of the main elements in the overall deterioration.

3 All the projections made so far are based on the assumption that, during periods of negative or very low growth, income distribution suffered only minimal deterioration compared with the previous year. In order to evaluate the effect of an improvement in distribution on poverty reduction, however, it could be assumed that the Gini coefficient went down by around one and a half points in all the countries of the region. The result of this assumption would be that the projected poverty level would be 41.6% and the indigence level 15.5%: 1.7 and 2.9 points less than would be given by the hypothesis of constant income distribution. As emphasized later on in this article, the notable effect that small reductions in inequality can have on poverty highlights the importance that public policies should attach to the income distribution aspect as a fundamental element in the fight against poverty.

B. Towards fulfilment of the targets in terms of poverty reduction

Although the reduction of extreme poverty by half by the year 2015 continues to be feasible for Latin America, the more modest expectations regarding the economic growth that can be attained during the period give rise to restrictions and doubts in this respect. It is therefore increasingly important to formulate policies which will strengthen the growth capacity but at the same time permit the progressive redistribution of resources so as to give preference to the aim of raising the standards of living of the most deprived sectors.

In the year 2000, the representatives of the member States of the United Nations met together at the Millennium Summit and agreed to meet a number of targets which are indispensable for the progress of world development. These agreements were summarized in the "Millennium Declaration" (see box I.3). Among those targets, one which has received the greatest attention is that of reducing extreme poverty by half by the year 2015.⁴

The previous edition of the *Social Panorama* contained a projection of the possibility of fulfilling the target of reducing extreme poverty in Latin America, based on the historical relation between growth and poverty. It was estimated that halving indigence in the region by 2015 (compared with the 1999 levels) would require a growth rate of the per capita product of not less than 2.3% per year for fifteen years (approximately equivalent to a total GDP

growth rate of 3.8% per year). It was also noted that, because of the wide range of different economic and social conditions among the countries, some would have to make major growth efforts, while others could meet the desired target with somewhat lower growth rates. In those countries with a higher relative incidence of extreme poverty, the average per capita GDP growth rate required would be around 2.7% per year, whereas those in a relatively better position would only need a per capita GDP growth rate of 2.2% per year.⁵

An estimate was also made of the economic growth needed to meet a more demanding target: that of halving the total poverty rate. In aggregate terms, the per capita product of the region would need to grow at the rate of 2.9% per year for fifteen years in order to achieve this; the group of relatively more developed countries would need to maintain a

4 Although initially the reference year with which the advances in poverty reduction should be compared was not specified, it was subsequently established, in the *Road Map towards the Implementation of the United Nations Millennium Declaration* (United Nations, 2001), that the benchmark year would be 1990.

5 See ECLAC (2001a).

THE MILLENNIUM DECLARATION

The Millennium Summit is the name given to the meeting held in New York by the United Nations General Assembly in September 2000. The General Assembly, made up of all the heads of State and Government of the States Members of the United Nations, met to reaffirm the commitment of all the countries to the Organization and its principles, as vital elements for a better future. At this historic event, the heads of State and Government of the world undertook to participate actively in the fulfillment of the nine development goals for the coming decades, set forth in the Millennium Declaration.

The targets and commitments expressed in the Millennium Declaration are based on values considered to be of fundamental importance for the proper functioning of international relations, such as freedom, equality, solidarity, tolerance, respect for nature and shared responsibility. In this context, the duties of the world community are to solve problems related with world peace and disarmament, development and poverty eradication, protection of the environment, human rights and democracy, protection of the vulnerable population, meeting the special needs of Africa, and strengthening the United Nations.

The explicit agreement of the countries to attain common development objectives and the definition of new goals make the Millennium Declaration a document of transcendental importance. Among the goals adopted, special mention may be made of the social development objectives to be fulfilled by the year 2015: to halve the number of persons in a state of extreme poverty and the number of persons without access to safe drinking water; to ensure that children everywhere will have equal access to education and will all be able to complete a full course of primary schooling; to reduce maternal mortality by three-quarters and under-five child mortality by two-thirds; and to halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS. In particular, this edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* evaluates the conditions needed to make possible the fulfillment of the first of the above objectives, namely, halving the number of persons in a state of extreme poverty.

Source: United Nations, *Millennium Declaration*. United Nations General Assembly resolution No. A/RES/55/2, New York, 2000.

similar figure, but the countries with the highest levels of poverty would need to maintain a growth rate close to 4% per year.

In this edition of the *Social Panorama* it has been considered appropriate to review the region's capacity to meet the target set in the Millennium Declaration, because of the significant changes in growth expectations which have taken place in the present two-year period. Two important changes have been

made compared with the previous period. Firstly, in line with the formulation presented by the Secretary-General of the United Nations,⁶ the benchmark poverty rates are those of 1990: i.e., the target is to halve, by 2015, the rates of extreme poverty registered in 1990. Secondly, we are now using a simulation methodology which explicitly makes it possible to take account of the changes in income distribution (see box I.4).

6 See United Nations (2001).

THE METHODOLOGY USED IN THE SIMULATIONS

Determining the relation between the evolution of poverty and the GDP growth of a country is a complex task, as it involves very diverse factors which are often beyond the current possibilities of identification and measurement. Various methodologies have been developed in the academic world for predicting poverty trends on the basis of different assumptions on their relation with economic growth and other variables. Thus, the *Social Panorama of Latin America 2000–2001* presented estimates, based on a special methodology, of the growth rate needed by the region to halve extreme poverty by the year 2015. a/

As part of the analysis of the feasibility of fulfilling various poverty reduction goals, on this occasion we have used an alternative methodology which allows the simulated changes in income distribution to be explicitly taken into account. The procedure consists of carrying out a series of simulations of the poverty rates resulting from the application of different growth rates and changes in the income inequality of households, based on the information from household surveys.

The data on household per capita income are modified through the use of two parameters, according to the following equation: b/

$$y_{new} = (1 + \beta) \left[(1 - \alpha) y_{original} + \alpha \mu \right]$$

where μ = average income, β = average income growth rate, and α = rate of reduction of the Gini coefficient.

By comparing the income vector y_{new} with the value of the poverty line, we obtain the corresponding poverty rate. In this way, the changes in α and β are related with changes in the levels of poverty and indigence. This makes it possible to construct "iso-poverty curves" c/ showing all the possible combinations of α and β which produce a given poverty result. In the particular case of figure I.4, the poverty level represented by the "iso-poverty curves" is that corresponding to half the poverty rate registered in 1990 for each country.

It is important to note that a given reduction in the Gini index can be obtained in various ways. Both a transfer of income from the richest to the poorest segments and a transfer between persons in the intermediate distribution segment are compatible with a reduction of x% in inequality, but they will have different effects on the poverty rate. In this particular case, the reduction in inequality is obtained by reducing, by a percentage equal to α , the distance of each of the incomes concerned from the mean μ . Consequently, the changes affect the extremes of the distribution scale –the incomes furthest from the mean– most strongly and have less effect on those in the centre. This assumption simplifies the process of calculation and the interpretation of the results, although it may not coincide exactly with the empirical evidence on changes in distribution.

Although the results given by this method are valid for illustrating the effect of income distribution on poverty reduction, the values may be subject to margins of variation. Moreover, the possibility of drastic and unpredictable changes in the evolution of the economy, like those observed in the present Argentine crisis, highlights the need for caution when analysing any projection of this nature.

Source: Prepared by ECLAC on the basis of the methodology contained in the document "Meeting the Millennium Poverty Reduction Targets in Latin America".

- a/ The methodology used in the *Social Panorama of Latin America 2000–2001* uses the historical relation between economic growth and poverty reduction, by estimating the mean elasticities between the two variables. These elasticities simultaneously combine the effect of economic growth and of changes in distribution, which is useful in terms of consistency with the historical evolution between the variables but does not permit isolation of the effect of each one of them individually on poverty.
- b/ This methodology corresponds to that set forth in the document "Meeting the Millennium Poverty Reduction Targets in Latin America", prepared by a group of experts for the UNDP/IPEA/ECLAC project on the evaluation of fulfilment of the Millennium Targets. The appendix to that document summarizes the main features of the micro-simulation method and gives mathematical demonstrations for the equations used.
- c/ The term "iso-poverty curve" refers to an equal level of poverty; accordingly, such a curve describes all possible situations in which poverty would remain at the same level.

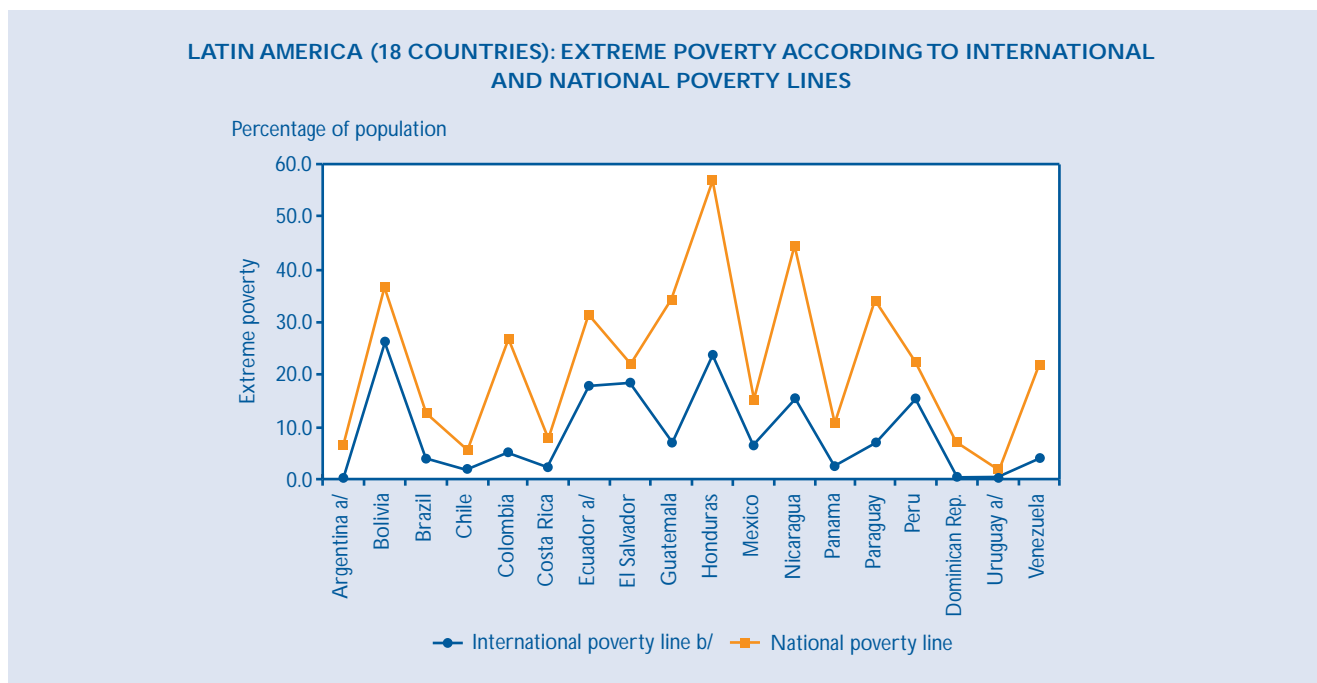
A first aspect to be addressed is that of determining the most appropriate poverty line for making the projections to the year 2015 for the Latin American countries. In the Millennium Declaration it is proposed that an income of a dollar a day, adjusted by

the purchasing power parity, should be used as the extreme poverty line, corresponding to an international minimum poverty standard by which a person would be considered poor in any country in the world. Such a minimum standard is not very representative of the

social situation in Latin America, however, and would suggest that poverty is not a major problem in the region, since it would give rates below 10% in most of the countries (see figure I.1).⁷

than advancing. The most favourable situations are those of Chile and Panama, which had already reached the target of halving extreme poverty in the year 2000, Brazil and the Dominican Republic, with

Figure I.1



Source: ECLAC, *Meeting the Millennium Poverty Reduction Targets in Latin America*, Libros de la CEPAL series, No. 70 (LC/G.2188-P), Santiago, Chile, 2002.

a/ Urban area.

b/ US\$ 1 purchasing power parity (PPP).

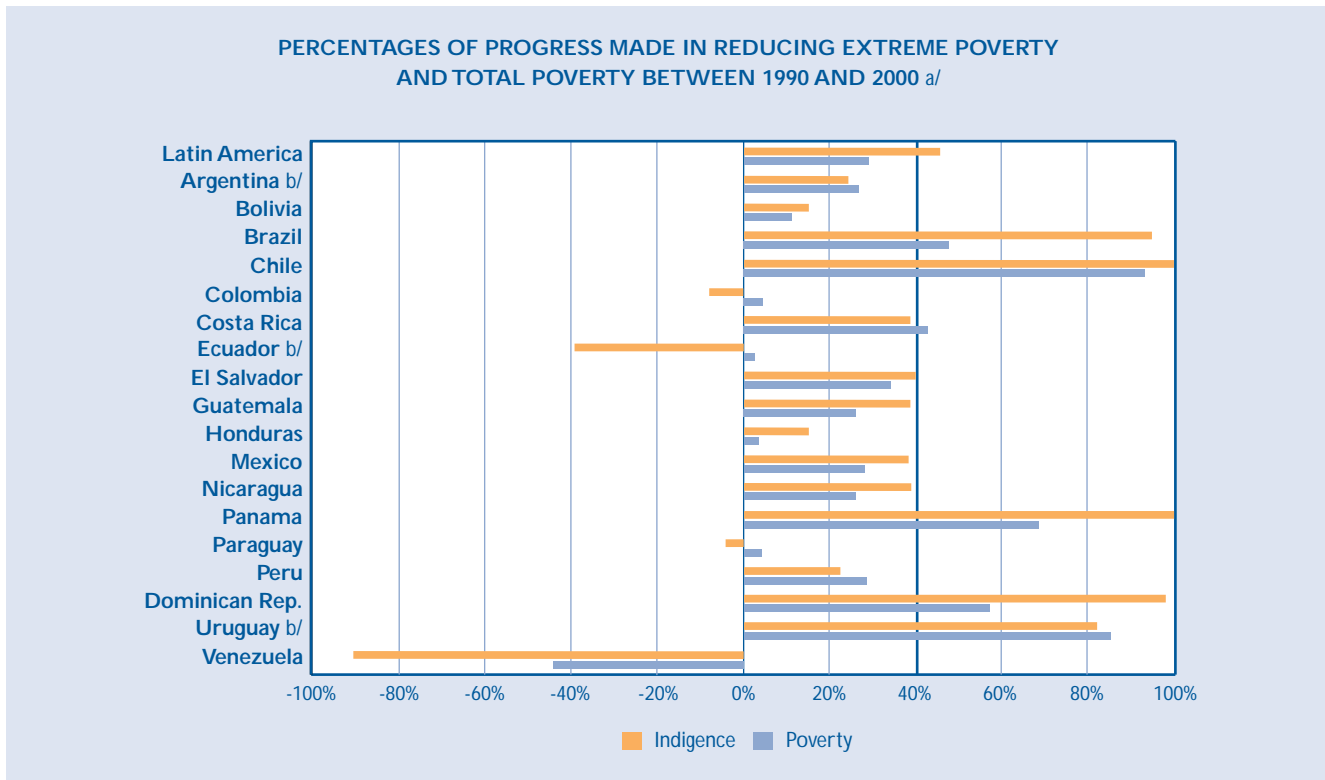
For this reason, it has been considered more appropriate to analyse the feasibility of meeting the targets on the basis of an indigence line like that used in section A of this chapter, since it takes account of the basic consumption needs of the populations of each of the countries. According to this approach, the incidence of extreme poverty in Latin America went down by 4.7 percentage points between 1990 and 2000, which represents 41% fulfillment of the target.

The progress made by the different countries is very disparate and some of them have already reached the target while others have slipped back rather

over 95% progress towards the goal, and Uruguay, with over 82% progress. Countries like Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico and Nicaragua have made nearly 40% progress: in other words, they are on the right track for meeting the target by the year 2015. Argentina, Bolivia, Honduras and Peru have also made progress towards the target, albeit at rates which, if not increased, would not enable them to meet it by the end of the stipulated period. A more complex situation is that of Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay and Venezuela, since their rates of extreme poverty in the year 2000 were higher than those of 1990 (see figure I.2).

⁷ An analysis of the Millennium Targets for Latin America, using the extreme poverty line of 1 dollar a day, may be found in ECLAC (2002a). This report also includes an evaluation of public policy mixes compatible with the economic growth rates and degrees of income inequality reduction required in order to meet the poverty targets.

Figure I.2



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

a/ The line crossing the horizontal axis at the value "40%" shows the percentage of time elapsed between 1990 and 2000 (10 years), compared with the total time for reaching the target (25 years).

b/ Urban areas.

According to the new estimates, in order to halve the 1990 level of extreme poverty in Latin America by the year 2015, an annual per capita GDP growth rate of the order of 1.4% would be required during the period from 2000 to 2015, assuming that income distribution remains unchanged throughout the period. In terms of total GDP, the annual growth rate required would be 2.7% (see table I.3).

As the degree of progress of the countries of the region in the fight against poverty is very uneven, the situation should be evaluated as a function of that progress. In this case, the countries have been classified as "high poverty" (over 30%), "medium poverty" (between 11.1% and 30%) and "low poverty" (11% or less), as a function of the poverty levels estimated for the year 2000.

As might be expected, the higher their levels of poverty, the higher the growth rates required by the

groups of countries. Thus, the countries classified as "high poverty" would require a per capita GDP growth rate of 3.5% per year; the intermediate group would need to grow at a rate of 1.4%, and the countries with the lowest levels of poverty would need a per capita GDP growth rate of only 1.3% per year. These figures correspond to total GDP growth rates of 5.7%, 2.7% and 2.5% per year, respectively.

The big differences between the growth rates needed by the three groups are due to two factors. The first is the absolute difference (in percentage points) between the indigence level registered in 1990 and the target for 2015, because the smaller this difference is, the lower the per capita GDP growth rate needed, generally speaking. The second factor affecting these growth rates is the performance of the countries between 1990 and 2000 in terms of poverty reduction, which tended to be better among those with less poverty. Thus, among the

Table I.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ANNUAL GROWTH RATES NEEDED TO HALVE THE 1990 LEVEL OF POVERTY BY THE YEAR 2015, ASSUMING NO CHANGE IN INCOME DISTRIBUTION a/ (Percentages)										
Country	Extreme poverty					Total poverty				
	1990	2000	Target 2015	Annual growth required 2000 – 2015		1990	2000	Target 2015	Annual growth required 2000 – 2015	
Argentina b/	8.2	7.2	4.1	3.0	1.9	28.5	24.7	14.3	3.4	2.3
Bolivia	39.5	36.5	19.8	7.6	5.5	64.2	60.6	32.1	7.5	5.4
Brazil	23.4	12.3	11.7	1.4	0.3	48.0	36.5	24.0	3.7	2.5
Chile	12.9	5.7	6.5	1.1	0.0	38.6	20.6	19.3	1.3	0.2
Colombia	26.1	27.1	13.1	5.0	3.4	56.1	54.8	28.1	5.7	4.1
Costa Rica	9.8	7.9	4.9	4.3	2.5	26.2	20.6	13.1	3.9	2.1
Ecuador b/	26.2	31.3	13.1	5.1	3.5	62.1	61.3	31.1	6.4	4.7
El Salvador	27.7	22.2	13.9	3.9	2.2	60.2	49.9	30.1	4.7	3.0
Guatemala	41.8	33.7	20.9	4.5	2.0	69.1	60.1	34.6	6.5	4.0
Honduras	60.6	56.0	30.3	6.6	4.3	80.5	79.1	40.3	9.0	6.6
Mexico	18.8	15.2	9.4	2.8	1.5	47.8	41.1	23.9	3.9	2.6
Nicaragua	51.4	41.4	25.7	5.8	3.3	77.6	67.5	38.8	7.4	4.9
Panama	22.9	10.7	11.5	1.3	0.0	45.7	30.0	22.9	2.5	1.3
Paraguay	35.0	35.7	17.5	6.5	4.1	63.0	61.7	31.5	7.3	4.9
Peru	25.0	22.2	12.5	4.4	3.0	56.0	48.0	28.0	4.2	2.8
Dominican Republic	21.4	10.9	10.7	1.5	0.1	41.3	29.5	20.7	3.2	1.7
Uruguay b/	3.4	2.0	1.7	1.2	0.5	17.8	10.2	8.9	1.1	0.4
Venezuela	14.6	21.2	7.3	6.6	4.9	40.0	48.8	20.0	6.6	4.9
Latin America				2.7	1.4				4.0	2.6
Countries with highest levels of poverty				5.7	3.5				7.0	4.8
Countries with medium levels of poverty				2.7	1.4				4.1	2.8
Countries with lowest levels of poverty				2.5	1.3				2.9	1.7

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of micro-simulations based on household surveys of the respective countries.

a/ Projections based on the per capita GDP growth of the countries (see box I.4).

b/ Urban areas.

countries classified as "low poverty", only Argentina (before the crisis) and Costa Rica still have to meet the challenge of reducing extreme poverty, whereas the majority of the countries listed as "high poverty" are still far from reaching that target.

An additional target set –more in keeping, in principle, with Latin America's relative degree of development in the world context– was to halve *total* poverty, and not just extreme poverty. From this perspective, no Latin American country has yet reached this goal, although Chile, Panama and Uruguay seem to have come closest, with progress of at least 70% towards this target. If they keep up the rates of reduction of total poverty they registered between

1990 and 2000, Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador and the Dominican Republic may also be candidates for reaching the target by 2015, since they have registered advances of over 35% so far. It is interesting to note that in this respect only one country –Venezuela– has slipped back from the 1990 levels; the rest have all achieved some kind of advance towards the goal (although in four cases this advance is no more than 5%) (see figure I.2).

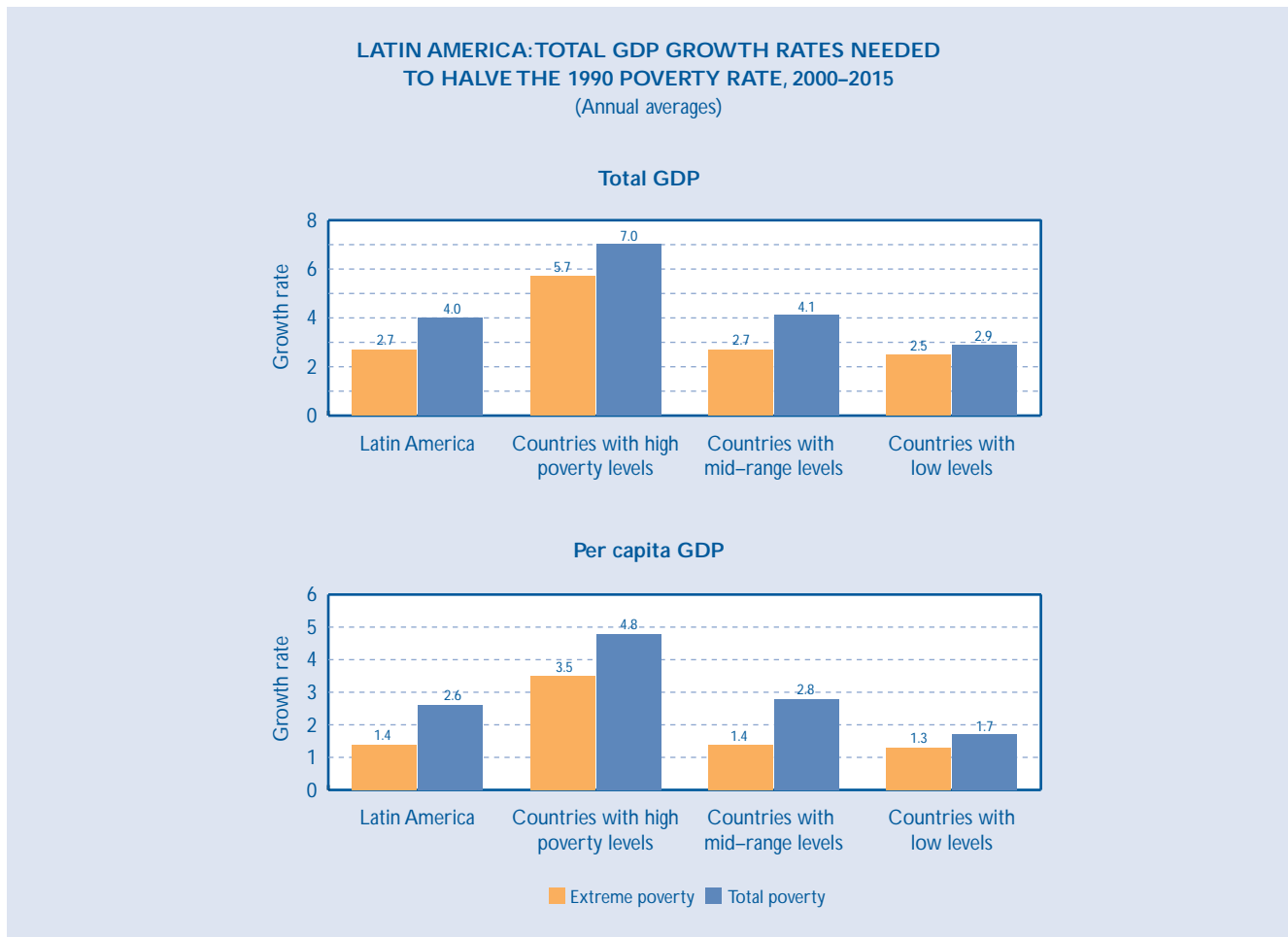
As regards the growth rates needed to halve total poverty, in the case of the region as a whole the per capita GDP would have to grow by 2.6% per year for 15 years, broken down as follows: 4.8% growth for the poorest countries, 2.8% for the medium poverty

nations, and 1.7% for the low poverty countries. According to these results, the poorest countries' possibilities of reaching the target are very small, as the 7% annual growth of the total product which would be needed is far beyond their historical possibilities (see figure I.3).

The biggest differences between the growth rates needed amount to between 2.0 and 2.3 percentage points, in the cases of Brazil, Guatemala and Honduras.

A further factor which should be taken into account is that the growth rates required refer to the

Figure I.3



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

It should be noted that the growth rates needed in this case are usually equal to or greater than those needed for reducing indigence, although there are some exceptions, such as Bolivia, Costa Rica, Peru and Uruguay. The smallest (positive) difference between the two rates is in the case of Venezuela, where a growth rate like that needed to halve indigence would give a similar result for total poverty too.

2000–2015 period. Two years of this period have already elapsed in which the region's performance was well below what is needed, with per capita GDP growth rates that were very low, and even negative in some countries, to say nothing of the serious crisis in Argentina and its effect on the economies of the region. In view of these factors, the regional per capita GDP growth rate needed to halve the level of

indigence, which had been estimated at 1.4% per year for fifteen years, has now risen to 1.9% for thirteen years (3.2% in the case of total GDP). Similarly, the target of halving total poverty now requires average per capita GDP growth of 3.3% per year (4.7% in the case of the total product), which is 0.7 percentage points more than had been estimated for the 2000–2015 period.

In view of the foregoing, it is obvious, first of all, that the goal of reducing extreme poverty involves very different challenges for the different countries. Specifically, whereas the countries with high rates of poverty need to grow much faster than they did in the 1990s, on average the countries with low rates only need to keep up the performance they registered during that period. Secondly, meeting the targets in terms of the reduction of total poverty represents an enormous challenge for the whole region, which, although still feasible if there is a possible recovery of growth in the coming years, will be increasingly arduous in the present context of low expectations and prolonged crises. This confirms yet again the need to adopt economic and social policies which, while strengthening the possibilities of broadening the production base, also include the progressive redistribution of income, as a complementary option to economic growth which will make it possible to substantially raise the standard of living of the poorest sectors of the population.

In this respect, it is well known that most of the Latin American countries have average income levels which are several times higher than the poverty line, so that hypothetical equitable distribution of total income would be more than sufficient to provide all the inhabitants of the region with a decent standard of living. It is therefore easy to

understand why small progressive transfers can have a strong impact in terms of reducing the rates of poverty and indigence: much stronger, in certain cases, than the effect of economic growth alone.

The method of analysis used in this edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* makes it possible to simulate changes in income distribution which take place simultaneously with economic growth (see box I.4). The results obtained show that the effects of changes in distribution on the rates of poverty and indigence are by no means negligible, and that an effort in this direction would greatly ease the burden of raising the living standards of the neediest, as compared with efforts based exclusively on economic growth.

If it is assumed that the region can secure some small improvements in income distribution in the coming years, this considerably reduces the efforts to increase the product which would be needed in order to meet the targets. Merely assuming a 2% reduction in the Gini index in each of the countries –corresponding to a reduction of 0.01 points or less in the value of that coefficient– would mean that the region would only need to grow on average by 0.9% per year (instead of 1.4%) in order to halve the rate of extreme poverty. From another perspective, if the region were able to maintain a growth rate around 1.4% per year, then a reduction of 2% in the average Gini index would mean that the target could be reached five years earlier. A somewhat larger reduction in inequality (reduction of the Gini index by 5%) would mean that indigence could be halved with only a 0.3% annual increase in the per capita product (see table I.4) or, alternatively, that only four years would be needed to reach the poverty target.

Table I.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ANNUAL PER CAPITA GDP GROWTH RATES NEEDED TO HALVE THE 1990 LEVEL OF POVERTY BY THE YEAR 2015, ASSUMING CHANGES IN INCOME DISTRIBUTION a/ (Percentages)						
Country	Extreme poverty			Total poverty		
	Gini unchanged	Gini reduced by 2%	Gini reduced by 5%	Gini unchanged	Gini reduced by 2%	Gini reduced by 5%
Argentina b/	1.9	0.9	-	2.3	1.9	1.2
Bolivia	5.5	4.8	3.9	5.4	5.1	4.7
Brazil	0.3	-	-	2.5	2.0	1.3
Chile	-	-	-	0.2	-	-
Colombia	3.4	2.8	2.1	4.1	3.9	3.4
Costa Rica	2.5	1.6	0.5	2.1	1.6	1.1
Ecuador b/	3.5	3.0	2.4	4.7	4.5	4.2
El Salvador	2.2	1.8	1.1	3.0	2.8	2.5
Guatemala	2.0	1.6	1.0	4.0	3.7	3.3
Honduras	4.3	4.0	3.6	6.6	6.4	6.2
Mexico	1.5	0.9	0.0	2.6	2.3	1.9
Nicaragua	3.3	2.9	2.4	4.9	4.7	4.3
Panama	-	-	-	1.3	0.9	0.3
Paraguay	4.1	3.5	2.7	4.9	4.6	4.3
Peru	3.0	2.3	1.5	2.8	2.5	2.2
Dominican Republic	0.1	-	-	1.7	1.4	1.0
Uruguay b/	0.5	-	-	0.4	0.1	-
Venezuela	4.9	4.2	3.3	4.9	4.6	4.2
Latin America	1.4	0.9	0.3	2.6	2.2	1.7
Countries with highest levels of poverty	3.5	3.0	2.4	4.8	4.5	4.2
Countries with medium levels of poverty	1.4	0.9	0.4	2.8	2.4	1.9
Countries with lowest levels of poverty	1.3	0.6	0.0	1.7	1.3	0.8

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of micro-simulations based on household surveys of the respective countries.

a/ Projections based on the per capita GDP growth of the countries (see box I.4). The methodology is summarized in box I.4.

b/ Urban areas.

Changes in inequality would also favour the process of reducing total poverty. A reduction of 2% in the Gini index of each country would reduce the regional growth rate needed for this target by 0.4 percentage points. If inequality were reduced by 5%, 0.9 percentage points less of annual growth of the per capita product would be needed, or alternatively the goal could be reached by 2010.

Figure I.4 gives, for all the countries of Latin America, curves showing all the possible combinations of growth rates and rates of reduction of the Gini index that would halve poverty and indigence in each country compared with the 1990 levels, using a projection with base year 1999 (iso-poverty curves).

The combinations referred to above correspond to specific points on these curves.

With regard to the combinations between growth and changes in inequality needed to reduce poverty, two general results are noted. Firstly, although any improvement in income distribution favours the reduction of both poverty and indigence, the biggest impact is noted in the reduction of indigence, at least for small changes in distribution. This may be noted from the fact that, as the degree of reduction of inequality increases, there is an increase in the difference between the growth rates needed to halve poverty and indigence.⁸

8 It should be noted that this result could be affected if the changes in distribution were implemented in a different way from that used in the simulation. See, in this respect, box I.4.

Secondly, it is noted that, the lower the level of extreme poverty assumed in the target for 2015, the more the reduction of the growth rate needed to attain that goal will be favoured by small changes in distribution. This becomes clear from the fact that the growth rates needed when progressing from no redistribution at all to a reduction of 2% in the Gini coefficient go down proportionately more, the lower is the indigence target of a country (leaving aside cases where the target is very close to being reached). For example, if in the case of Costa Rica the Gini coefficient were reduced by 2%, the growth rate needed to halve extreme poverty would be 0.9 percentage points lower than that needed if distribution remained unchanged. In the case of Honduras, in contrast –the country with the highest target for indigence– the growth rate needed would go down by only 0.3 percentage points for a similar reduction in the rate of inequality.

Joint analysis of the iso-poverty curves and the figures in table I.4 make it possible to characterize the countries as a function of their growth and redistribution requirements. For example, Argentina (before the crisis), Brazil, Mexico, the Dominican Republic and Uruguay are countries which, by reducing their Gini indexes by 5%, would not need to increase their growth rates in order to halve extreme poverty (plus, of course, countries which have already reached that target, such as Chile and Panama). Costa Rica could also be added to the list if it made a 10% reduction in that indicator of inequality.

At the other extreme are Honduras and Bolivia, which, even with a drastic reduction in inequality of income distribution, would need high growth rates

in order to reach the indigence target. A similar analysis, but this time with regard to the halving of total poverty, indicates that with a 10% improvement in the Gini index, the growth rate needed to reach the target would be less than 0.5% per year in Argentina (before the crisis), Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Panama, the Dominican Republic and Uruguay. In Bolivia and Honduras, however, the required growth rate would continue to be very high: of the order of 4.1% per year in the first case and 5.8% in the second.

Thus, poverty reduction in Latin America is a disparate phenomenon in terms of the factors that have the greatest incidence on it. In some countries (mostly those with low indices of poverty) income inequality is the most important factor in poverty reduction, whereas in others (typically those with high indices of poverty) economic growth is the factor with the biggest impact on reduction of the percentage of the population who are poor.

Although these results should obviously be interpreted with great caution, especially because the projections are based on simplifying assumptions about the behaviour of income distribution when there are variations in the level of the product, they are very enlightening about the importance of changes in income distribution for the reduction of poverty and indigence.⁹ In short, the results of the simulation make it possible to assert that, in a context in which sustainable economic growth seems increasingly hard to achieve, income distribution is a highly effective complementary factor for enabling the region to meet its poverty reduction targets.

9 The fact that the assumptions of the simulation model do not faithfully represent the actual situations in terms of changes in distribution does not invalidate the results obtained. By way of illustration, box I.5 presents some "iso-poverty curves" for 1990, assuming that it had been desired to reach the poverty levels of the year 1999. In most cases, the combination of growth and distributional changes which actually took place between 1990 and 1999 corresponds to a point close to the intersection of the poverty and indigence curves, which suggests that the method is reasonably robust for representing those changes.

Figure I.4

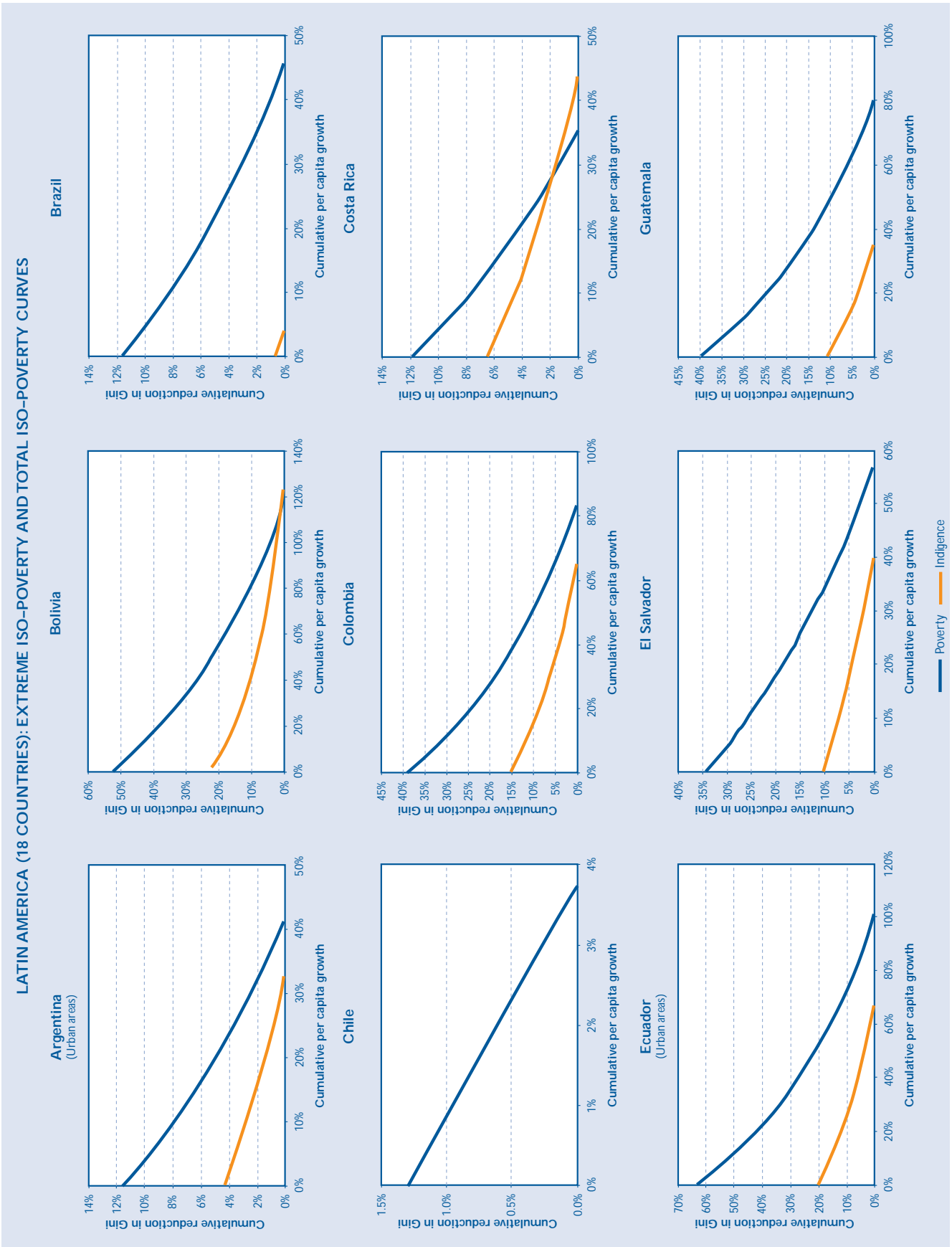
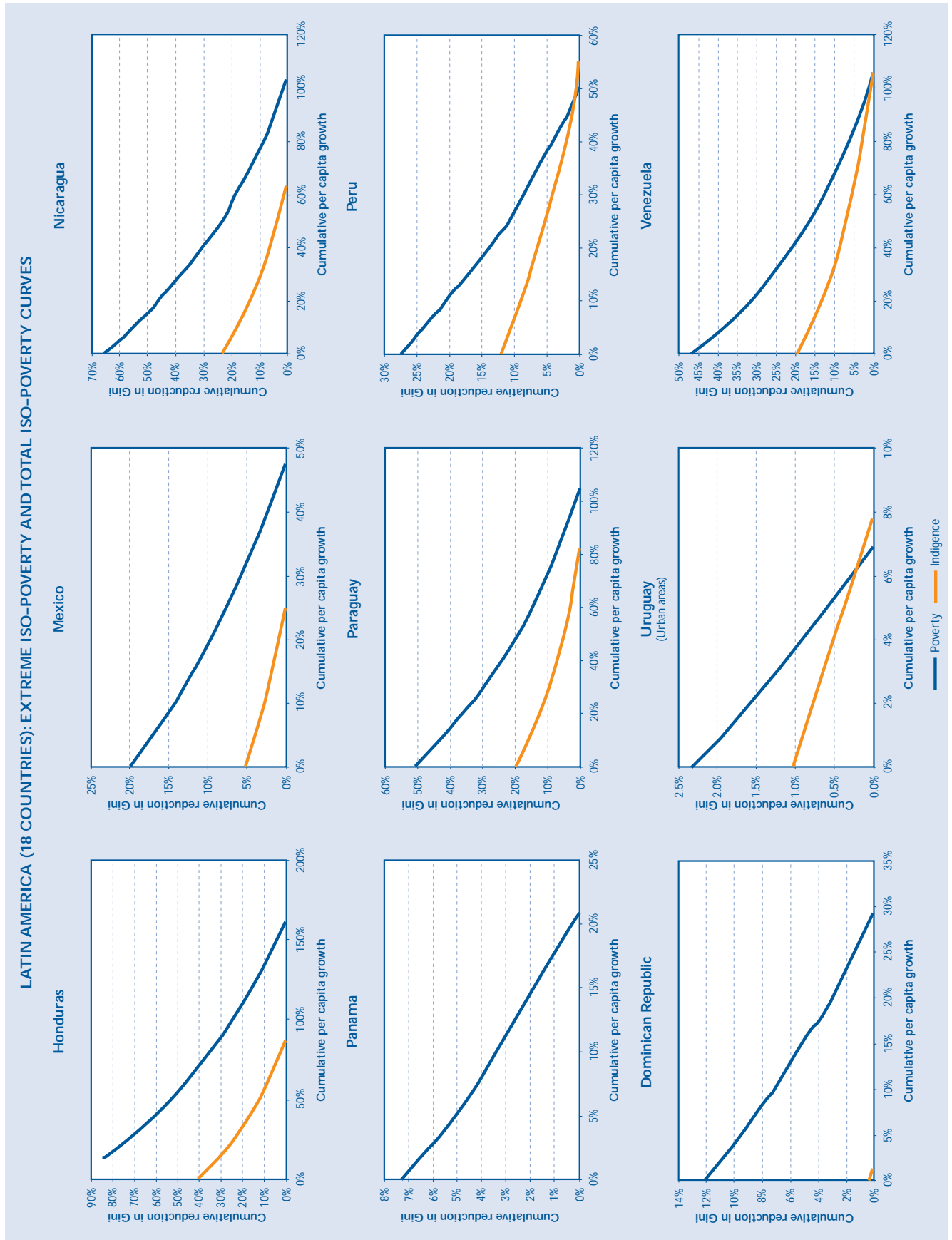


Figure 1.4 (concluded)



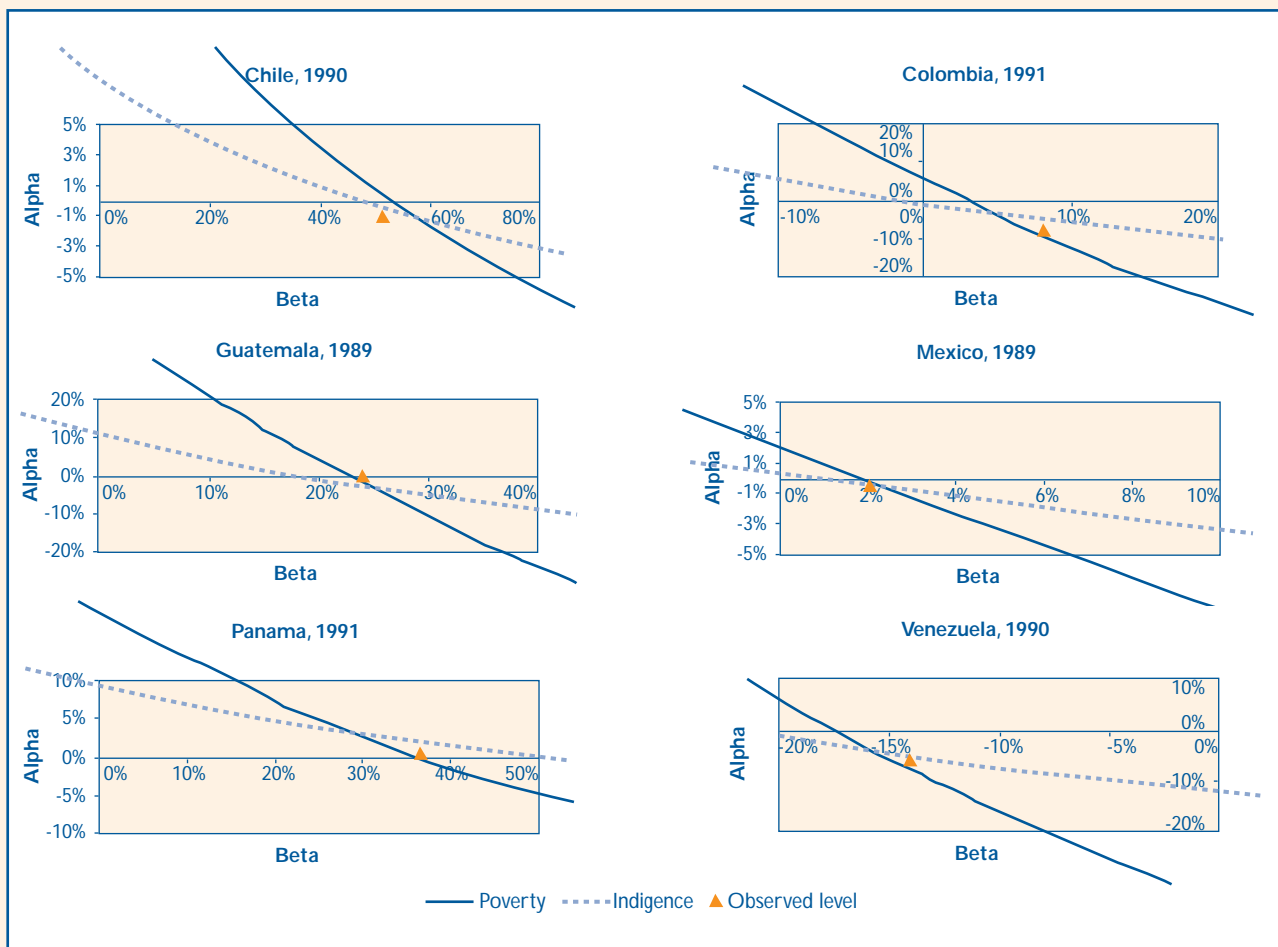
Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of the respective countries household surveys.

EMPIRICAL DEMONSTRATION OF THE RESULTS OF THE MICRO-SIMULATION METHOD

From the theoretical point of view, any change in the poverty rate can be obtained through a shift in income distribution (growth) and/or a change in its form (a change in inequality). a/ The micro-simulation method detailed in box I.4 takes account of precisely those elements, and should therefore be capable of identifying variations in poverty with great precision. However, its effectiveness can be significantly reduced by such factors as insufficiently representative sources of information, shifts in poverty lines, or distributional changes which are not reflected by the method.

In order to evaluate the empirical consistency of the model, "iso-poverty curves" were constructed for 1990 which show the combinations of growth and redistribution that would have made it possible to reach the poverty levels actually recorded in 1999. The figure also identifies the point corresponding to the changes in per capita GDP and the Gini index observed between 1990 and 1999 in each country. Curves were generated both for total poverty and extreme poverty, and it was hoped that the intersection between them would be as close as possible to the point reflecting the actual historical evolution, as an indicator of the model's performance. The graphs below show that in spite of its simplicity the method has a great capacity to capture the effect of growth and changes in inequality on variations in the incidence of poverty.

Selected countries: "total iso-poverty" and "extreme iso-poverty" curves for 1990



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys of the respective countries.
 a/ For the corresponding demonstration, see ECLAC (2002a), cited in box I.4.

C. A snapshot of income distribution in the region

Labour remuneration, made up principally of wages and salaries, is the main component of family income in Latin America. Improving the distribution of income from this source, as well as that from property rents, calls for the implementation of policies which will help to increase the productive resources of the poorest sectors, and these normally only bear fruit in the medium or long term. Public transfers, in contrast, have more immediate effects, but their low incidence in total household income considerably reduces their distributive impact, although they undoubtedly have a significant effect in raising the living standards of deprived sectors. Moreover, heads of household continue to be the main breadwinners, in spite of the sustained increase in the contribution made by secondary recipients. In this respect, women's contribution to the household budget now amounts to a third of the whole, after having registered a significant increase in the 1990s.

As may be gathered from the conclusions of the *Social Panorama of Latin America 2000–2001*, the evolution of inequality in the 1990s was marked mainly by its great rigidity, and in the few cases where there were significant variations, these were in the direction of a deterioration in distribution. Thus, of the fourteen countries analysed in that edition, only two showed signs of a reduction in inequality (ECLAC, 2001a, tables 22 and 24 in the statistical appendix).

This rigidity in income distribution is a matter of concern, especially in the light of the conclusions

reached in the preceding section on the importance of improvements in distribution in the fight against poverty. At all events, it is worth taking a brief look at the income generation structure underlying the patterns of concentration observed in the countries of the region. Knowledge of the relative shares of the different types of income in global household income not only makes it possible to identify the mechanisms which increase and perpetuate disparities in distribution but also shows how they affect the capacity of public policies to secure corrections in personal income distribution.

An analysis of household income structure by sources¹⁰ confirms, first of all, the continuing importance of labour remuneration in the income profile prevailing in the majority of countries. In 1999 it represented on average between 63% (in Brazil) and 90% (in Ecuador and Nicaragua) of total household income, and in at least eleven countries this propor-

tion exceeded 80%. The predominant importance of this source suggests that its contribution to global inequality is very considerable and that, consequently, changes in its distribution can have significant effects on variations in the inequality of total income distribution (see table I.5).

Table I.5

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): COMPOSITION OF HOUSEHOLD INCOME, 1990–2000 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Source of income					Proportion of total income contributed by:				
		Wage earners	Employers	Own-account workers	Transfers	Property ownership	Head of household	Secondary recipients	Women	Young people between 15 and 24 a/	Persons aged 65 or more a/
Argentina	1990	43.0	14.9	27.3	9.0	5.8	71.2	20.7	27.6	9.3	4.8
	1994	43.8	13.0	26.9	10.0	6.3	68.7	20.8	30.8	10.3	2.4
	1999	44.8	11.8	20.1	13.7	9.6	68.5	20.8	32.7	8.8	3.7
Bolivia	1989	43.2	8.1	40.3	3.4	5.1	68.5	18.6	28.6	9.5	2.4
	1994	42.6	19.6	23.9	9.7	4.2	69.1	22.8	29.4	10.3	2.2
	1999	45.7	8.1	30.2	10.0	6.0	67.8	21.1	31.5	12.0	2.3
Brazil	1990	48.8	13.5	16.1	13.0	8.6	70.6	22.4	27.3	12.7	2.3
	1993	47.1	10.8	16.6	17.3	8.1	71.1	21.7	28.3	11.6	2.4
	1999	38.6	9.8	14.2	23.7	13.7	70.1	21.6	33.6	10.9	2.8
Chile	1990	46.8	11.4	21.8	11.2	8.7	68.6	22.7	25.8	9.7	4.2
	1994	49.4	15.0	19.4	10.7	5.5	67.8	23.0	28.2	8.7	4.5
	2000	49.1	15.9	17.1	12.5	5.4	69.6	22.5	28.6	5.5	3.9
Colombia	1991	46.4	12.1	23.0	13.2	5.3	64.8	36.6	26.9	14.8	4.0
	1994	48.1	12.0	20.7	13.2	6.0	62.8	33.9	30.4	12.8	3.8
	1999	43.9	7.5	18.6	11.1	18.9	65.1	22.2	32.6	12.8	4.0
Costa Rica	1990	65.7	7.6	16.2	7.9	2.6	62.9	26.6	24.6	19.1	2.1
	1994	60.4	11.4	15.6	9.4	3.2	64.1	26.0	25.2	16.0	2.5
	1999	61.7	12.6	14.2	9.1	2.2	63.2	26.4	28.2	14.6	2.5
Ecuador	1990	61.2	7.8	22.1	6.1	2.8	65.2	25.3	26.9	13.6	3.1
	1994	51.4	16.8	24.0	5.0	2.8	62.2	26.5	29.0	13.6	3.6
	1999	51.5	20.8	18.0	7.5	2.2	64.2	24.0	30.5	10.8	3.0
El Salvador	1995	50.5	12.5	18.8	18.2	.	60.4	26.1	33.5	15.9	5.1
	1999	57.8	8.2	19.2	13.8	1.0	58.0	27.0	39.1	15.4	3.2
Guatemala	1989	41.7	9.3	37.0	6.1	5.8	68.6	21.3	24.9	15.8	4.2
	1999	39.1	13.6	23.0	9.7	14.7	69.3	22.7	28.3	13.7	4.5
Honduras	1990	48.0	5.8	22.6	3.2	20.3	67.9	19.9	23.8	15.1	2.9
	1994	48.1	9.9	32.3	7.0	2.8	65.3	23.4	27.6	16.1	3.9
	1999	47.5	12.8	27.5	9.2	3.0	62.4	25.0	33.1	17.3	3.9
Mexico	1989	42.2	10.9	21.9	21.5	3.5	72.3	18.5	22.1	13.7	4.1
	1994	45.1	11.1	17.2	24.9	1.7	71.5	19.2	23.4	13.2	3.3
	2000	52.0	15.7	17.6	12.6	2.1	69.6	20.7	26.2	10.3	3.0
Nicaragua	1993	48.6	1.4	40.2	8.4	1.3	58.2	21.1	33.7	15.5	2.7
	1998	54.0	12.5	23.8	8.0	1.7	57.5	24.1	29.4	15.6	2.4

10 The present analysis takes account only of monetary income, so that it excludes in particular the income imputable to households for the use of a dwelling belonging to them. It may be noted that the imputed rent is an important income source for the purpose of evaluating the standard of living of households, since in some countries it can represent a higher proportion of total income than transfers or income from property.

Table I.5 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): COMPOSITION OF HOUSEHOLD INCOME, 1990–2000 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Source of income					Proportion of total income contributed by:				
		Labour income			Transfers	Property ownership	Head of household	Secondary recipients	Women	Young people between 15 and 24 a/	Persons aged 65 or more a/
		Wage earners	Employers	Own-account workers							
Panama	1991	53.8	6.4	16.8	17.3	5.7	65.1	24.7	32.9	9.4	2.5
	1994	54.2	6.7	12.7	18.0	8.4	63.6	26.8	32.0	9.9	2.3
	1999	59.8	5.0	12.4	16.1	6.7	61.0	28.8	34.0	11.3	3.0
Paraguay	1990	43.5	23.9	22.5	5.9	4.1	63.1	26.2	29.0	11.3	4.2
	1994	45.4	23.2	18.8	9.8	2.7	61.8	27.9	32.5	15.5	3.7
	1999	47.4	17.5	22.3	10.5	2.4	63.0	25.0	32.9	12.7	5.7
Peru	1997	48.5	21.0	12.8	14.7	2.9	58.3	30.5	31.4	13.5	3.5
	1999	48.3	17.9	12.0	18.9	3.0	56.4	28.6	34.6	13.8	3.0
Dominican R.	1997	42.3	7.7	32.3	11.5	6.2	62.2	24.6	28.9	18.1	3.1
Uruguay	1990	42.6	23.2	9.8	19.2	5.3	68.3	21.9	29.8	8.1	6.8
	1994	49.8	9.1	13.3	23.4	4.4	66.3	27.4	35.8	9.1	3.3
	1999	50.1	7.4	12.4	24.6	5.5	66.1	26.2	37.9	8.3	3.2
Venezuela	1990	51.5	18.0	22.0	3.3	5.1	61.7	25.3	23.7	12.6	3.0
	1994	46.2	12.9	29.3	5.9	5.9	57.3	25.9	25.5	14.4	3.2
	1999	46.5	12.0	31.4	4.2	5.9	55.2	28.8	31.4	12.6	3.0

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

a/ Refers only to labour income and not to total household income.

Within income deriving from the labour market, that received by wage earners plays a dominant role. In seven of the eighteen countries analysed, the remuneration of this group represents over half of total family income, and in one of them (Costa Rica) it exceeds 60%. It should be noted, however, that the importance of wages and salaries in total income is determined more by the number of people receiving income from this source –who are clearly in the majority in the labour force– than by the average level of wages, which is generally below that of employers and own-account workers.

The income of own-account workers represents the second most important element in household income. Its regional average share of 20%, however, is made up of quite diverse extreme values, ranging from as little as 12% (in Peru, Uruguay and Panama) to over 30% (in Bolivia, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela).

Finally, the small share of the labour force represented in most of the countries by employers is also reflected in the composition of family income. Thus, in practically all the countries (except for Ecuador

and Peru), the relative contribution of this group to total income is less than that of own-account workers, even though the average income of employers is clearly higher than that of the latter (see table 6 of the statistical appendix). In the regional context, the share of employers averages 12%, but this is associated with wide dispersion, as reflected in the extreme values of Panama (5.0%) and Ecuador (20.8%).

Non-labour income is also a significant source of household income. Thus, public and private transfers, mainly comprising pensions paid by social security systems, represent the third largest source of such income in many Latin American countries, after the income of wage earners and own-account workers, accounting for an average contribution of nearly 13% of total household resources. Indeed, in some countries (such as Brazil and Uruguay) transfers represented the second most important source in 1999, after wages and salaries, accounting for nearly a quarter of the total family budget. It should also be noted that in almost all the countries transfers accounted for a larger share than property rents, which, with an average share of 6.1%, were the smallest source of income.

This general description of the composition of family income in Latin America shows up a simple but important fact, which is that State intervention alone has very limited possibilities of directly correcting income distribution problems, to which should be added the fact that State action in this field is generally closely linked with social investment and hence with a long-term horizon rather than the achievement of rapid results.

As is generally known, the flow of income that can be generated by a particular source depends basically on two factors: the initial endowment of production resources –especially human capital and physical and financial assets¹¹ and the price paid in the market for the use of those resources. In the case of labour income –the most important income flow– public policies aimed at substantially altering the endowment of productive capital in the short term are usually of limited scope, as these are goods whose accumulation process is generally slow and gradual (especially in the cases of human and social capital). Moreover, the State can only act to fix wages by specifying minimum wages as a means of narrowing income distribution gaps, since direct intervention in wages on a larger scale is considered inappropriate because of the adverse effects it has on the functioning of the labour market. In this sense, the possibility of improving the distribution of labour income must be conceived from a long-term perspective, in conjunction with sustained increases in productivity.

Property rents, for their part, also offer only limited possibilities of fostering redistributive effects on a large scale, since the State's work in this field is usually limited to the generation of policies –for housing, access to land, production subsidies, etc.– to support changes in the wealth of households located in the lowest part of the income distribution scale. The possibility of increased use of progressive tax rates, which directly affect the distribution of the available income, is generally limited by its possible harmful effect on the behaviour of saving and investment –and hence employment– as well as by considerations of a political nature.

In this context, public transfers appear as one of the few viable instruments capable of having an impact in the short term on disparities in income distribution. Although they are increasingly related with poverty reduction, transfers of resources to families are reflected in the average composition of household income. In spite of this, and notwithstanding the big increase in public social spending registered during the decade (see in this respect ECLAC, 2001a), transfers continue to represent only a relatively small part of total income (and even more so when it is considered that only part of them come from the State), so that they have only a feeble effect on income distribution. It should nevertheless be noted, however, that the small effect that transfers can have on distribution does not mean that they are not potentially highly effective for relieving the most extreme poverty situations, since they are usually among the most useful instruments for raising the standard of living of deprived sectors.

Analysis of income concentration within each source provides complementary information on income structure, revealing both heterogeneous forms of behaviour between countries and also some elements which are common to all of them. An example of the former occurs in the case of labour income, since whereas eight of the countries studied showed greater concentration in income generated by employers, in the remaining cases the greatest inequality was in the group of own-account workers (see table I.6).

On the other hand, a feature common to the majority of the countries was that the inequality among the wage-earning group was the lowest of all the sources of income, with an average Gini coefficient of 0.45, although this does not mean that this distribution can be considered in any way equitable. Rents from property ownership tend to be the least equitable form of income, with Gini coefficients that exceed 0.70 in many cases: a fact associated with the greater possibility that households in the upper part of the distribution have of possessing assets that provide them with gains.

11 See in particular in this respect ECLAC (1998).

Finally, transfers to households also display high Gini coefficients, reflecting inequitable distribution. This could be due to the structure of this type of income, which is made up of a better distributed but

minor component (targeted public transfers),¹² together with another component which is more concentrated in its distribution and accounts for a major share, namely, pensions provided by social security

Table I.6

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): GINI COEFFICIENTS, BY SOURCES OF INCOME OF HOUSEHOLDS, 1990–2000						
Country	Year	Labour income			Transfers	Property ownership
		Wage earners	Employers	Own-account workers		
Argentina	1990	0.3651	0.4239	0.3926	0.2975	0.7353
	1994	0.3695	0.3703	0.4314	0.4220	0.7502
	1999	0.3905	0.3936	0.4701	0.4088	0.8076
Bolivia	1989	0.4905	0.4924	0.5171	0.2829	0.5021
	1994	0.4786	0.5139	0.4730	0.5788	0.3531
	1999	0.4583	0.5267	0.6251	0.6377	0.8359
Brazil	1990	0.5701	0.5490	0.5867	0.7624	0.9090
	1993	0.5701	0.5581	0.5945	0.5156	0.8758
	1999	0.5263	0.5146	0.5707	0.5516	0.8146
Chile	1990	0.4555	0.5375	0.5496	0.5514	0.4781
	1994	0.4557	0.6176	0.5707	0.6082	0.5546
	2000	0.4856	0.5654	0.5906	0.6395	0.5781
Colombia	1991	0.3613	0.5995	0.5802	0.5461	0.4071
	1994	0.5245	0.6207	0.5562	0.6059	0.4184
	1999	0.4166	0.5722	0.5195	0.5813	0.8042
Costa Rica	1990	0.3713	0.3566	0.4106	0.5618	0.2417
	1994	0.3719	0.4807	0.4607	0.5732	0.2872
	1999	0.4016	0.4197	0.4698	0.5646	0.2689
Ecuador	1990	0.4192	0.4743	0.4550	0.5329	0.6095
	1994	0.4042	0.4865	0.4596	0.4544	0.5231
	1999	0.4677	0.5587	0.5166	0.6047	0.5417
El Salvador	1995	0.4209	0.5858	0.5020	0.5629	-
	1999	0.4327	0.5693	0.5304	0.6298	0.6416
Guatemala	1989	0.4386	0.5494	0.5335	0.5633	0.3769
	1999	0.5111	0.6783	0.6118	0.6482	0.4778
Honduras	1990	0.5027	0.7022	0.5840	0.3561	0.3753
	1994	0.4553	0.5713	0.5581	0.6720	0.7196
	1999	0.4707	0.4927	0.5469	0.6232	0.8511
Mexico	1989	0.4449	0.6311	0.5954	0.7132	0.7229
	1994	0.5097	0.6154	0.5990	0.6396	0.6328
	2000	0.4889	0.5580	0.6140	0.6941	0.6894
Nicaragua	1993	0.4387	0.6031	0.5796	0.6866	0.6830
	1998	0.4870	0.6836	0.5536	0.6483	0.8809
Panama	1991	0.4297	0.5261	0.5412	0.6261	0.8488
	1994	0.4534	0.5194	0.4783	0.6329	0.8132
	1999	0.4515	0.4158	0.4761	0.6351	0.7506
Paraguay	1990	0.3881	0.4163	0.4464	0.5526	0.7255
	1994	0.4322	0.4938	0.4803	0.6191	0.6471
	1999	0.4163	0.6156	0.5058	0.5444	0.5886

12 The minority share of targeted public transfers is further aggravated by the skew that household surveys usually suffer from in terms of the under-recording of these types of benefits.

Table I.6 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): GINI COEFFICIENTS, BY SOURCES OF INCOME OF HOUSEHOLDS, 1990–2000						
Country	Year	Labour income			Transfers	Property ownership
		Wage earners	Employers	Own-account workers		
Peru	1997	0.4373	0.6086	0.5455	0.6565	0.7042
	1999	0.5036	0.6107	0.5304	0.6847	0.7257
Dominican R.	1997	0.3999	0.5098	0.4459	0.6245	0.7865
Uruguay	1990	0.3809	0.7526	0.5096	0.5009	0.6592
	1994	0.4222	0.4225	0.5088	0.4815	0.5753
	1999	0.4364	0.4121	0.4921	0.4740	0.5992
Venezuela	1990	0.3194	0.3644	0.3850	0.2503	0.2306
	1994	0.3934	0.4017	0.4204	0.6481	0.2804
	1999	0.3830	0.4314	0.4409	0.5197	0.2450

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

systems. Whereas the first element is a way of correcting disparities in distribution, the second element tends to be more unequally distributed, both because it is associated with labour income and because individuals' likelihood of having a continuous working life of formal employment is itself highly concentrated.

Another way of analysing the structure of income is to identify the income recipients of the household by their demographic characteristics such as sex, age, or head-of-household status. With this aim, table I.5 gives information on the proportion of total income contributed by the heads of household, secondary recipients, women, persons between 15 and 24, and those aged 65 or more.

In all the countries of Latin America the main breadwinner is the head of household. In no case is his contribution less than 55%, and in almost half of the countries it exceeds 65%, reflecting a generalized state of dependence on this income recipient. Chile, Brazil and Mexico (with percentages close to 70%), on the one hand, and Venezuela (55.2%) and Peru (56.4%), on the other, represent the extremes in this respect.

A reduction in the head of household's share of the family budget is one of the most important and generalized trends of the last decade in Latin

America. In three of the twelve countries where the relative contribution of the head of household went down (Venezuela, Honduras and Panama) it did so by over four percentage points. In only four countries of the region did the head of household's contribution increase, but in no case by more than one percentage point.

The lower dependence of households on the income generated by their heads has both positive and negative elements. On the one hand, this lower dependence on the income of a single person reduces the vulnerability of the household to possible situations of unemployment or lower income, while it also furthers greater integration of the rest of the household into the labour market. The other side of the medal is seen, however, when lower participation by the head of household is accompanied by an insufficiency of income for the family unit, which will oblige other members of the family –secondary labour– to enter the labour market when they ought to be engaging in other functions (such as school-age children or old people who ought to be in retirement).

Even in the best of cases, these secondary recipients contribute only a little over a quarter of total family income, which is connected with the fact that the main income recipient is generally the head of household.¹³ The proportion of total income contri-

¹³ It should be remembered that the "secondary recipients" group has been defined as those recipients with incomes lower than that of the main breadwinner, and is therefore not complementary to the "heads of household" group, which in some cases may include persons who are not the primary recipients.

buted by this group averages 24.5%, with extreme values ranging from 20.7% (in Mexico) to 28.8% (Panama and Venezuela).

The contribution made by women to the total household budget averages around 32% and is relatively homogeneous across the region, although there are still notable differences between countries such as Chile, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Mexico and the Dominican Republic, where women's share in total household income is not more than 29%, by contrast with Uruguay and El Salvador, where it is close to 40%.

The evolution of women's share in total household income during the 1990s reflects significant progress towards gender equality. The average increase in the relative contribution of women was 4.9 percentage points, and in some cases it was nearly double that amount –in Honduras, for example, the increase was 9.3 points. The average goes down to 4.3 points, however, if we take into account Nicaragua, which was the only country where women's contribution went down in the 1990s. This general progress is due to the considerable increase in women's participation in the labour market –a phenomenon common to all the countries of the region, as may be seen from table 2 of the statistical appendix– and to the increase in the average income of this group in at least twelve countries, as shown in table 6.2 of the statistical appendix.

Finally, young people between 15 and 24 years of age accounted for an average of 12.5% of labour income in Latin America. This regional average covers different performances by the individual countries, ranging from as little as 5.5% in the case of Chile to the figure of 18.1% reported by the Dominican Republic. Persons over 65, for their part, had an average share of 3.3%, with individual values ranging from 2.3% in Bolivia to 5.7% in Paraguay.

In this section of the document we have discussed some of the elements of judgment which emerge when the sources and recipients of resources with the biggest shares and incidence in Latin American income distribution are identified. In this context, it may be concluded that although the redistributive possibilities of public policies are limited in their scope and temporal aspects, there is nevertheless a wide field of action that governments can use to promote improvements in income distribution. In the light of the evidence examined above, it becomes clear that economic growth must be complemented with policies designed to correct disparities in distribution if it is desired to achieve significant improvements in the standard of living of the population as a whole and especially of the neediest groups, as called for by the challenges in terms of the reduction of extreme poverty involved in the Millennium Targets.



Human resources training needs and the absorption of skilled labour in Latin America

Human resources training needs and the absorption of skilled labour in Latin America

The significant expansion of educational coverage in the Latin American countries and the consequent increase in access to tertiary-level education have given rise to a considerable increase in the supply of skilled human resources in the region. In the 1990s, the growth rate in the number of persons of working age with higher qualifications (between 25 and 59) –corresponding to university or full post-secondary technical training– amply surpassed (at 7.5% per year) the growth rate of the total number of persons of working age (3.1% per year). In all countries, the rate was higher for women (8.7%) than for men (6.4%), thus helping to increase women's share in the labour market and to reduce income inequalities between the sexes. Of the total of 32 million people who entered the urban population of persons of fully active age during the past decade, nearly 8 million had technical (4.3 million) or professional qualifications (3.6 million). Even so, however, Latin America has not yet attained the critical mass of human resources needed to satisfy the demands posed by the rapid restructuring of production and the raising of productivity, and at the present time no more than 20% of the population (and in some cases only around 10%) have completed professional or post-secondary technical studies.

Globalization has caused, and continues to cause, changes in almost all areas of the labour market. These changes are mainly reflected in new forms of linkage of workers with their firms and in the degree of wage-earning employment in the various activities, in changes in the sectoral structure of employment, and in the wages received by workers with different levels of qualifications. ECLAC has analysed these changes and their main effects on

the living conditions of the Latin American and Caribbean population in a number of documents, especially *Globalization and Development*. In particular, it has highlighted the links between employment and poverty and the repercussions on the latter of the sluggish generation of jobs, due not only to recessionary phases of the business cycle and the more volatile nature of growth but also to the progressive dissociation between economic growth and the

supply of jobs as a result of technological change and the processes of reform and greater openness to international trade under way in the region. Likewise, several issues of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* have emphasized that the worsening in wage income disparities during the 1990s –due above all to the faster growth of the wages of the more highly skilled workers and the slower growth, or even deterioration, of those of the less-qualified workers– has been one of the factors which have helped to increase income distribution inequality in the region during the past decade.¹

An aspect which has received less attention in recent years, in spite of its importance, is the rate of expansion of the potential and effective supply of skilled human resources and the capacity of the Latin American economies to absorb those skills in a productive manner. In an era when the amount and type of professional and technical qualifications demanded by firms are changing more rapidly in order to adapt to the new technologies, increase their competitiveness and find a suitable place in international trade, there are also changes in human resources training needs. However, the market signals to the educational system and training in general do not arrive directly or automatically, and when they do show themselves –especially through changes in the supply of jobs and in the relative wages of professions and trades– the response to them is slow and the adjustments take place with considerable delay. This is largely due to the difficulties faced by training systems in responding quickly to changes in the needs for human resources for development.

This situation gives rise to considerable disparities between the supply of skills and the demand for them and results in high costs for individuals and for society as a whole. The lack of a proper response to the demand for skilled human resources thus represents a bottleneck for the competitiveness of the Latin American countries. It is essential, however, that there should be a response in line with these needs in order to achieve true competitiveness and

increase the benefits of the economies' form of insertion in international trade.

Relatively little information is available on the supply of professional and post-secondary technical skills or the capacity of the Latin American countries to absorb that supply. Most of the analyses and data on the disparities between labour supply and requirements are limited, in general, to studies on the relative scarcity or abundance of particular types of professionals or technicians, or to very specific sectors of economic activity. Very often, the aggregate-level information on these disparities is based on a study of the rate and trend of open unemployment, in which it is claimed that the increase and persistence of high levels of unemployment among the skilled population (especially among young people) partly reflects the existence of such disparities. Emphasis has also been placed on the fact that during the 1990s there has been a certain degree of dissociation between economic growth and the level of open unemployment in a number of countries of the region (persistence or increase of unemployment even in years when growth rates were relatively high), which suggests that there are structural problems associated with rapid changes in the demand for persons with particular professional or technical qualifications, contrasting with the lack of an adequate supply of such labour. The data concerned, however, are very partial and aggregated, and it is not possible, on the basis of such information, to identify or isolate a longer-term trend in temporary fluctuations and changes associated with the business cycle.²

In view of this lack of information in this field, and bearing in mind the fact that studies on the human resources profile in Latin America have mostly centered on workers with relatively low levels of skills (because this is one of the determinants of poverty), the present chapter will give a regional overview with emphasis on the population with relatively higher levels of knowledge and skills, that is to say, the potential and effective supply of profes-

1 See ECLAC, 2001a, chapter II.

2 See ECLAC, 2001a, chapter III, section B.

nals and technicians in the Latin American countries.³ The aim is to provide information that could help in the preparation of a general framework of up-to-date comparable information on the availability of this type of resources and its growth rate during the past decade. A procedure is also suggested for establishing approximate figures on the degree of utilization of professional and technical qualifications. The analysis is based on information from the household surveys periodically effected in the countries of the region.

In view of the limitations of the source in question, together with the shortcomings of the information from other secondary sources, such as administrative records, it was decided to emphasize some characteristics which reflect longer-term changes in the structure of employment and which, directly or indirectly, may also be due to the globalization process. These characteristics are the sector of economic activity, the form of insertion in the labour

force (wage-earning employment or own-account activity), employed or unemployed status, and the levels of income obtained in the labour market by professionals and technicians of both sexes. Finally, evidence is provided on the disparity between the effective supply of skilled human resources and the demand for them in the market. The figures showing this disparity are based on the comparison of the wages obtained by employed persons with the highest qualifications and the income of employed persons who have the same number of years of work experience but have not reached any level of tertiary education: i.e., those who have not received any technical or professional training after completing their secondary education. These estimates, together with the size of open unemployment and the extent of non-participation or withdrawal of persons from the labour force (persons recorded as inactive in the surveys), make it possible to measure the degree of under-utilization of skilled human resources in the countries of the region.

3 For the purposes of this document, the term “effective supply” refers to the economically active population (which covers both the employed and unemployed population), while “potential supply” refers to the total population of working age. In addition to employed and unemployed persons, this latter term also includes the inactive population (made up mainly of students, housewives, pensioners and disabled persons), as well as the group of discouraged unemployed, i.e., persons who, according to the definitions used, are inactive because they have ceased to do anything about looking for work. This category of the population, whose quantitative importance varies according to the level of unemployment of the economy and the duration of unemployment, could be considered as forming part of the effective labour supply.

A. The availability of skilled human resources in Latin America and its evolution during the 1990s

The first aspect that must be analysed with regard to the supply of skilled human resources needed by the economies in order to raise their systemic competitiveness and adequately meet the demands of globalization is the capacity of the school system and the human resources training system in general to provide the countries with a labour force endowed with technical and professional qualifications. How fast are these resources being expanded in the various countries of the region? How are women participating, as compared with men, in this expansion? What proportion of the total population of working age have received post-secondary technical or professional training in the Latin American countries, and what differences exist between the countries in this respect?

During the 1990s, the population of fully active working age (25 to 59 years of age) with post-secondary technical or professional qualifications expanded quite fast (see box II.1). As a result of the rapid increase in the coverage of education in general, and especially in the access of the population to secondary and tertiary education and the higher rates of enrollment in the latter cycle, in all the countries of the region the number of technicians and professionals grew, as a general rule, over

twice as fast as the population lacking these levels of qualifications.⁴ Thus, the information available for 11 Latin American countries⁵ which together account for nearly 85% of the region's population, shows that in 10 of them the average growth rate of the number of technicians and professionals was over 5.5%. Brazil (which is not in this group of 10) was the country where the increase in the potential supply of professionals most amply exceeded that of the supply of technicians (see table II.1).

4 The rapid growth of the potential supply of qualified persons in the 25 to 59 age group during almost a decade (between 1990 and 1999) has two effects: the departure from that cohort of older persons who were between 50 and 59 years of age in 1990, and the incorporation of younger persons who were then between 15 and 24 years of age. The considerable increase in the proportion of young people with post-secondary qualifications and the relative weight of this group in the total population largely explain the high rate of growth of the number of more highly qualified persons in the total 25–59 cohort. However, this increase is also due to the departure of the older cohort of this age group, whose members passed through the educational system 40 years or more ago, when only a minority of the Latin American population had access to higher education.

5 Only countries which had urban and rural household surveys for around 1990 and 1999 were taken into account.

Table II.1

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): EVOLUTION OF POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY LEVEL OF QUALIFICATIONS AND SEX, 1990–1999 (Annual average rate of variation)												
Country	Period		National total					Urban areas				
			Total	Level of qualifications				Total	Level of qualifications			
				No technical or professional qualifications	With technical or professional qualifications				No technical or professional qualifications	With technical or professional qualifications		
					Subtotal	With technical qualifications	With professional qualifications			Subtotal	With technical qualifications	With professional qualifications
Argentina a/	1990–1999	Both sexes	1.6	1.1	3.7	2.8	4.9
		Men	1.5	1.4	1.9	0.0	4.0
		Women	1.7	0.8	5.3	4.9	5.7
Brazil	1990–1999	Both sexes	2.1	1.9	3.6	2.8	5.6	2.8	2.7	3.6	2.8	5.5
		Men	2.1	2.0	3.0	2.4	4.1	2.8	2.8	3.0	2.4	4.1
		Women	2.1	1.9	4.1	3.0	7.9	2.8	2.6	4.1	3.0	7.6
Chile	1990–2000	Both sexes	2.3	1.7	5.6	6.1	5.0	2.8	2.1	6.0	6.5	5.4
		Men	2.5	1.8	5.4	6.3	4.5	3.1	2.4	5.8	6.7	4.9
		Women	2.2	1.5	5.8	6.0	5.6	2.6	1.9	6.2	6.3	6.0
Colombia	1991–1999	Both sexes	3.6	3.3	6.1	7.5	5.4	4.2	3.9	5.6	7.4	4.8
		Men	3.7	3.4	5.3	6.7	4.8	4.1	3.9	4.9	6.3	4.3
		Women	3.6	3.2	6.9	8.1	6.2	4.3	3.9	6.4	8.4	5.3
Costa Rica	1990–1999	Both sexes	3.0	2.5	6.5	8.3	4.1	3.5	2.9	5.4	7.3	3.0
		Men	3.0	2.6	6.1	7.9	3.9	3.7	3.3	4.9	7.0	2.5
		Women	2.9	2.3	6.9	8.6	4.3	3.3	2.6	6.0	7.6	3.5
Ecuador	1990–1999	Both sexes	3.8	3.0	7.0	6.8	7.2
		Men	3.8	3.0	6.2	5.8	6.5
		Women	3.8	2.9	7.9	7.7	8.1
El Salvador	1995–1999	Both sexes	3.9	3.1	11.7	10.2	13.8	5.3	4.2	11.5	10.0	13.5
		Men	4.1	3.3	10.0	10.2	9.8	5.7	4.8	10.0	10.5	9.6
		Women	3.7	2.9	13.5	10.3	19.9	4.9	3.8	13.0	9.6	19.6
Guatemala	1989–1998	Both sexes	2.2	2.1	5.5	4.9	5.9	3.9	3.7	5.8	5.4	6.3
		Men	1.8	1.7	4.9	5.2	4.7	3.6	3.4	5.3	5.6	5.0
		Women	2.6	2.5	6.3	4.6	8.2	4.2	4.0	6.7	5.1	8.5
Honduras	1990–1999	Both sexes	3.3	3.0	8.7	8.0	9.0	4.4	4.0	8.0	7.2	8.3
		Men	2.9	2.6	8.2	8.1	8.2	4.2	3.7	7.7	8.2	7.6
		Women	3.6	3.4	9.4	8.0	10.2	4.6	4.3	8.3	6.3	9.5
Mexico b/	1989–2000	Both sexes	3.5	3.1	6.9	3.4	2.8	6.5
		Men	3.5	3.1	5.5	3.3	2.9	5.0
		Women	3.6	3.1	9.5	3.4	2.7	9.2
Nicaragua	1993–1998	Both sexes	3.6	2.7	15.8	25.2	8.4	4.1	2.8	15.5	22.1	10.6
		Men	3.4	2.6	12.3	19.0	7.5	3.5	2.2	12.6	16.1	10.2
		Women	3.8	2.8	19.9	31.7	9.6	4.6	3.2	18.9	28.2	11.1
Panama	1989–1999	Both sexes	2.9	2.4	5.6	5.3	5.8	3.2	2.6	5.6	5.2	5.9
		Men	2.9	2.5	5.1	4.9	5.2	3.3	2.9	5.2	4.8	5.5
		Women	2.9	2.2	6.0	5.7	6.3	3.1	2.3	6.0	5.6	6.3
Paraguay c/	1990–1999	Both sexes	4.2	3.8	6.7	9.7	3.9
		Men	4.6	4.3	6.7	10.3	4.2
		Women	3.8	3.4	6.6	9.3	3.5
Uruguay	1990–1999	Both sexes	-0.8	-1.1	1.5	1.2	2.1
		Men	-0.5	-0.7	1.5	1.5	1.4
		Women	-1.1	-1.5	1.6	1.0	2.9
Venezuela	1990–1999	Both sexes	3.3	2.9	6.1	9.3	3.8
		Men	3.3	3.1	4.4	8.3	1.5
		Women	3.4	2.6	7.8	10.4	6.0
Total countries d/	1990–1999	Both sexes	3.1	2.6	7.5	8.8	6.7	3.3	2.8	6.6	7.3	6.3
		Men	3.0	2.6	6.4	7.9	5.4	3.3	2.9	5.8	6.6	5.4
		Women	3.1	2.6	8.7	9.6	8.4	3.3	2.6	7.6	7.9	7.5

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Not possible to distinguish between population with technical-level qualifications and that with professional qualifications.

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

d/ Corresponds to simple average of the countries. In the national total, the average does not include Argentina, Ecuador, Paraguay and Uruguay. In the urban total, the average does not include Venezuela. In both levels of coverage, the disaggregated figures on the size of the population with technical or professional qualifications do not include Mexico.

MEASUREMENT OF TECHNICAL AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS ON THE BASIS OF HOUSEHOLD SURVEYS

The skills, knowledge and capabilities possessed by the members of a society at a given moment are often considered to constitute its human capital. The complexity of the set of attributes which add value in economic activity, however, make it difficult to conceptualize and accurately measure the human capital possessed by individuals.

In simplified terms, three ways of estimating the human capital of the working age population have been used. The first of these is based on the educational history of the persons concerned, and uses as an indicator the highest level of education attained by each individual. The second consists of carrying out tests and measurements to determine whether or not persons possess various attributes and types of knowledge which are important for economic activity. The third method involves analysing the differences in income between persons, which are considered to be associated with certain individual characteristics and which make it possible to estimate the market value of those attributes (such as education and work experience) and thus represent the added value of human capital.

In this chapter, which seeks to analyse the social utilization of the post-secondary technical and professional qualifications possessed by the members of Latin American societies, the main source of information is the household surveys of the countries in question. For this reason, it was decided to use the first method, even though the measurement of the number of years of studies completed by an individual, as associated with the completion of the various formal educational cycles, only captures some of the skills and types of knowledge which are important for economic activity. Some key aspects of human capital, such as work experience, knowledge of languages, computer-related skills, or the loss of skills through disuse, are not taken into account by this type of measurement.

An alternative way of identifying those who possess technical or professional qualifications from the data of household surveys consists of analysing the occupations or trades declared by members of the labour force, as classified in the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) (ILO, 1988). Analysis of these data at the one-digit level makes it possible to select persons who declare that they are working in occupations that identify them as professionals, scientists and intellectuals, whether of upper or middle level (major groups 2 and 3 of the classification in question). Comparative analysis of these data with those on educational level reveals various problems, however, including in particular the fact that about a third of those with educational levels that may be assimilated to the post-secondary technician/university-educated professional category do not declare that they belong to that group, but rather to "legislators, senior officials and managers", or to "clerks" or "craft and related trades workers" (major groups 1, 4 and 7 of the classification). Also to be found in the "professionals, scientists and intellectuals" group are employees whose educational history does not reflect any formal professional qualifications, suggesting that they have reached positions based on their experience and on skills that cannot be measured through household surveys.

Consequently, the best available approximation was obtained by using the criterion "number of years of schooling completed", on the basis of the educational cycles defined in the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCE) (1997). Although there is some degree of uniformity as regards the duration of the primary and secondary cycles in the different Latin American countries, the situation is quite different as regards post-secondary education, even within each country. Thus, there are post-secondary technical training programmes which last one, two, three or even four years, while there are university-type professional training programmes that last anywhere between four and seven years.

In view of the impossibility of preparing a form of measurement which identifies the exact number of post-secondary technical or university-level cycles completed, it was decided to class as holders of a post-secondary technical qualification all those persons who have completed between 2 and 4 years of studies in addition to the full secondary level: that is to say, between 14 and 16 years of studies in countries where completion of the secondary cycle involves 12 years' schooling, while persons with professional-level qualifications were deemed to be those who had completed 5 or more years of studies after the secondary level (see box III.6). Naturally, the first category (technical education) also includes persons with incomplete university education, but it was assumed that the acquisition of two or more years of university education implies the possession of sufficient human capital to obtain wages equivalent to those of the post-secondary technical level: an assumption based on the third type of approximation described earlier.

Source: Prepared by the authors on the basis of Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), *Human Capital Investment. An International Comparison*, Paris, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, 1999, and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)/UNESCO Regional Office on Education for Latin America and the Caribbean (OREALC), *Informe Regional Panorama Educativo de Las Américas*, Americas Summit, Regional Project on Educational Indicators.

This trend is also clearly visible in the urban areas of a larger number of countries. Thus, in 9 of a total of 14 countries, the population between 25 and 59 years of age with professional or technical quali-

cations equivalent to at least 14 years of completed schooling expanded more than twice as fast as the population without such qualifications. Table II.2 shows an estimate of the increase between 1990 and

1999 in the number of professionals and technicians in urban areas of Latin America. It may be seen from that table that, of the increase of rather more than 32 million persons of fully active working age, 7.9 million had post-secondary qualifications (4.3 million technicians and 3.6 million professionals). As explained below, however, this notable expansion in the course of a decade only served to reduce by 2.6 percentage points (from 86.5% to 83.9%) the high proportion of persons without qualifications in the total (see table II.2).

- Except in Chile and Guatemala, where the potential supply of qualified human resources grew more rapidly in urban than in rural areas, in all the other countries where it was possible to make the comparison the urban–rural gap tended to narrow (Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico and Nicaragua) or at least did not widen (Brazil and Panama). This could be due to greater internal mobility of the skilled labour force because of the growing demand for these resources as a result of the technification of agricultural, forestry

Table II.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EVOLUTION OF POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY LEVEL OF QUALIFICATIONS AND SEX, URBAN AREAS, <i>a/</i> AROUND 1990 AND 1999					
Year	Total	Level of qualification			
		Without technical qualifications	With technical or professional qualifications		
			Subtotal	With technical qualifications	With professional qualifications
(Thousands of persons)					
1990	103 549	89 617	13 932	7 755	6 178
1999	135 837	113 946	21 891	12 077	9 814
(Increase, thousands of persons)					
1990–1999	32 288	24 329	7 959	4 322	3 636
(Percentages)					
1990	100.0	86.5	13.5	7.5	6.0
1999	100.0	83.9	16.1	8.9	7.2

Source: ECLAC, estimates on the basis of household surveys of the respective countries, or population estimates by the ECLAC Population Division–Latin American and Caribbean Demographic Centre (CELADE), when the necessary information was not available from surveys.

a/ Includes the national total in the case of Venezuela.

There are three aspects which are particularly worthy of note as regards the potential supply of qualified personnel and the recent changes in this respect in the region. The first is its evolution in urban and rural areas and, hence, the widening or narrowing of the gap between the two; the second is the greater or lesser relative increase in the number of technicians with post-secondary training as compared with professionals, and the third is the relative shares of men and women in the growth rate of these resources.

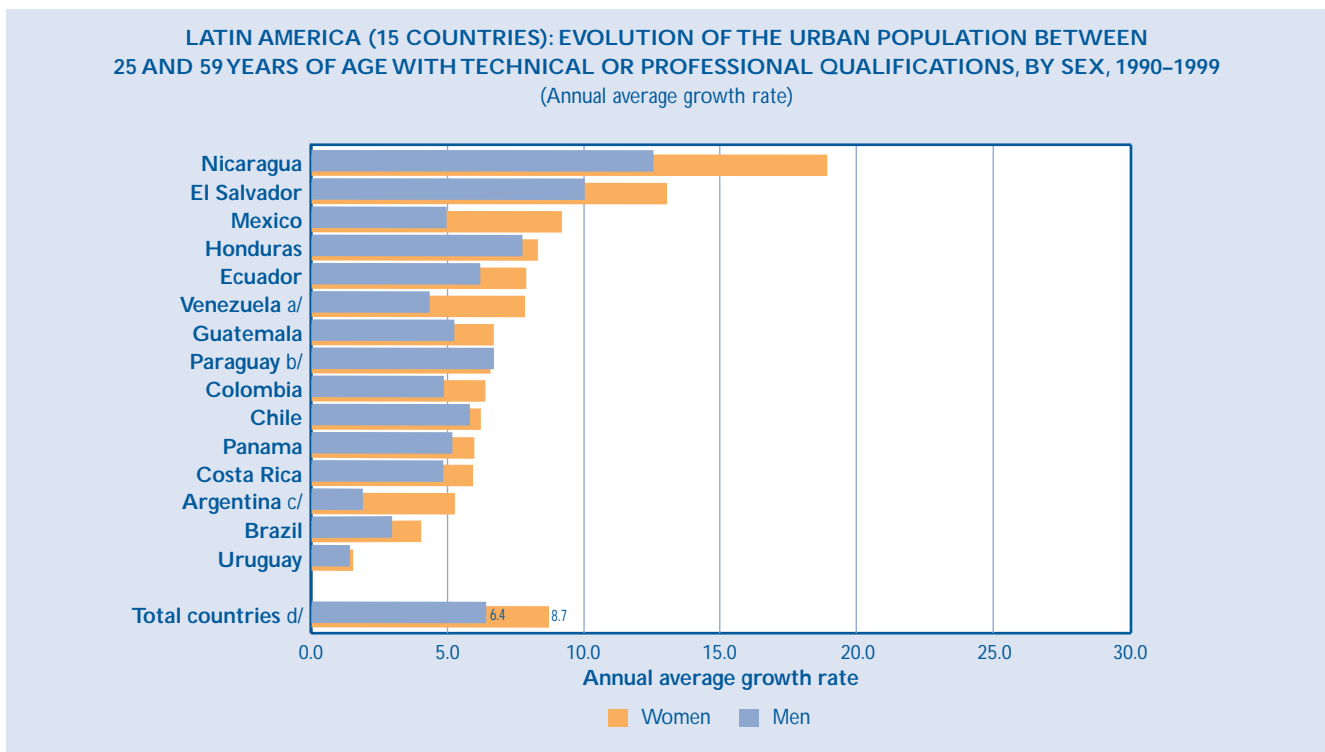
and stock-raising activities and the upsurge in service activities in rural areas, which offset the tendency prevailing in past decades towards the concentration of the population with the highest qualifications in urban areas and the big cities. It should be noted, however, that when this acceleration in the growth rate of qualified resources in rural areas began, the level was extremely low: towards the end of the 1990s, only about 3% of the population of economically active age in rural areas had technical or professional qualifications.⁶

⁶ This estimate corresponds to a weighted average for 10 countries of the region (Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua and Panama).

- As regards the greater or lesser expansion of human resources with technical as compared with professional qualifications, however, there was no uniform type of behaviour or trend among the countries. Some countries (Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Venezuela) registered a faster increase in the supply of persons with technical qualifications, thanks to the development of their tertiary-level training systems, but in the others (Argentina, Brazil, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Panama and Uruguay) the opposite tendency prevailed and there was faster growth of the number of professionals (see table II.1).
- The most significant feature of the potential supply of qualified human resources in Latin America is the notable difference in the growth

rate of the number of female professionals and technicians compared with men. Except in Paraguay (Asunción and Departamento Central) and Uruguay (urban areas), in all the countries the number of women with such qualifications grew faster than that of men (see figure II.1). This trend clearly predominated in urban areas in the case of persons with professional qualifications (once again with the exception of Paraguay), but in the case of technicians the number of men grew more quickly than that of women in five countries (Chile, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Paraguay). As we shall see below, this is probably one of the factors which has had the greatest incidence on the growing entry of women into economic activity, especially as wage earners, and on the reduction of the gender wage gap.

Figure II.1



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

a/ National total.

b/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Simple average of the countries. Does not include Venezuela.

The lag in education and in the training of qualified human resources which built up in past decades explains why, in spite of the significant expansion in the potential supply of professionals and technicians in the 1990s, Latin America continues to suffer from the limitations caused by a working-age population with very low levels of qualifications. Thus, towards the year 2000 no less than 80% of the population of the region between 25 and 59 years of age lacked any kind of technical or professional qualification. As may be seen from table II.3, according to the information from household surveys for Brazil, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic, between 90% and 95% of the population in that age group do not have any post-secondary training. In Colombia, El Salvador, Mexico, Paraguay and Uruguay, the percentage is between 85% and 90%, while in Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Panama, Peru and Venezuela between 80% and 85% of the total population do not have any technical or professional qualifications.

If the tendencies registered in the 1990s continue, the proportion of the population with post-secondary technical or professional training will amount in 2015 to close to 29% of the total population of working age, and a very large proportion of Latin Americans will enter the labour market with

low levels of qualifications, which will make it difficult to fulfil the development targets established in the Millennium Declaration of the United Nations General Assembly for that year, especially as regards poverty reduction (see chapter I). These persons will not only earn incomes which are not sufficient to protect them or their family groups from poverty and from vulnerability to recessions, but will also suffer episodes of unemployment more frequently. This means, in turn, that the average productivity and aggregate income of the economies in question will continue to grow only slowly, unless there are drastic changes in the present training systems and in the efforts made to upgrade the skills of those who did not receive training suitably adapted to the current demands of the labour market.

The region therefore faces the urgent challenge of improving the quality of the human resources needed in order to raise the systemic competitiveness of its economies. There must be more resources and better training programmes for young people and adults who have already left the educational system, but it will also be necessary to strengthen the links between the public and private sectors in order to incorporate approaches which make possible proper and timely attention to the changing demand for skills imposed by the growing international competition.

Table II.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY LEVEL OF QUALIFICATIONS, AROUND 1990 AND 1999 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	National total					Urban areas				
		Total	Level of qualifications				Total	Level of qualifications			
			No technical or professional qualifications	With technical or professional qualifications				No technical or professional qualifications	With technical or professional qualifications		
				Subtotal	With technical qualifications	With professional qualifications			Subtotal	With technical qualifications	With professional qualifications
Argentina a/	1990	100.0	82.4	17.6	10.0	7.6
	1999	100.0	78.8	21.2	11.1	10.1
Bolivia	1989 b/	100.0	78.3	21.7	13.0	8.7
	1999	100.0	81.9	18.1	11.8	6.2	100.0	74.3	25.7	16.5	9.2
Brazil	1990	100.0	92.1	7.9	5.8	2.2	100.0	89.9	10.1	7.4	2.8
	1999	100.0	90.9	9.1	6.2	2.9	100.0	89.2	10.8	7.3	3.5
Chile	1990	100.0	86.1	13.9	7.6	6.3	100.0	84.1	15.9	8.7	7.2
	2000	100.0	80.9	19.1	11.0	8.1	100.0	78.5	21.5	12.4	9.2
Colombia	1991	100.0	89.4	10.6	3.2	7.4	100.0	84.2	15.8	4.6	11.3
	1999	100.0	87.2	12.8	4.3	8.5	100.0	82.4	17.6	5.8	11.8
Costa Rica	1990	100.0	88.7	11.3	6.1	5.2	100.0	80.0	20.0	10.5	9.4
	1999	100.0	84.7	15.3	9.6	5.7	100.0	76.3	23.7	14.6	9.1
Ecuador	1990	100.0	82.6	17.4	7.8	9.6
	1999	100.0	77.0	23.0	10.1	12.8
El Salvador	1995	100.0	91.7	8.3	5.0	3.3	100.0	86.8	13.2	7.9	5.4
	1999	100.0	88.9	11.1	6.3	4.7	100.0	83.4	16.6	9.4	7.3
Guatemala	1989	100.0	96.6	3.4	1.6	1.8	100.0	91.9	8.1	3.9	4.2
	1998	100.0	95.5	4.5	2.1	2.5	100.0	90.4	9.6	4.4	5.2
Honduras	1990	100.0	96.3	3.7	1.2	2.5	100.0	91.9	8.1	2.6	5.5
	1999	100.0	94.2	5.8	1.8	4.0	100.0	89.0	11.0	3.3	7.6
Mexico	1989	100.0	90.2	9.8	100.0	86.5	13.5
	2000	100.0	86.1	13.9	100.0	81.3	18.7
Nicaragua	1993	100.0	94.4	5.6	2.1	3.6	100.0	91.4	8.6	3.3	5.3
	1998	100.0	90.2	9.8	5.4	4.5	100.0	85.6	14.4	7.2	7.2
Panama	1989	100.0	85.3	14.7	6.4	8.3	100.0	81.6	18.4	7.9	10.4
	1999	100.0	81.0	19.0	8.1	11.0	100.0	76.8	23.2	9.7	13.5
Paraguay c/	1990	100.0	86.6	13.4	5.6	7.8
	1999	100.0	83.5	16.5	9.0	7.6
Peru	1999	100.0	78.0	22.0	10.9	11.1	100.0	70.4	29.6	14.4	15.1
Dominican Republic	1997	100.0	90.6	9.4	5.5	3.9	100.0	85.7	14.3	8.2	6.0
Uruguay	1990	100.0	88.8	11.2	7.1	4.1
	1999	100.0	86.2	13.8	8.5	5.3
Venezuela	1990	100.0	87.2	12.8	4.7	8.2	100.0	85.5	14.5	5.3	9.2
	1999	100.0	83.7	16.3	7.8	8.5
Total countries d/	1990	100.0	90.7	9.3	4.4	4.9	100.0	86.3	13.7	6.7	7.0
	1999	100.0	87.6	12.4	6.2	6.0	100.0	82.7	17.3	8.7	8.5

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Eight capital cities and El Alto.

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

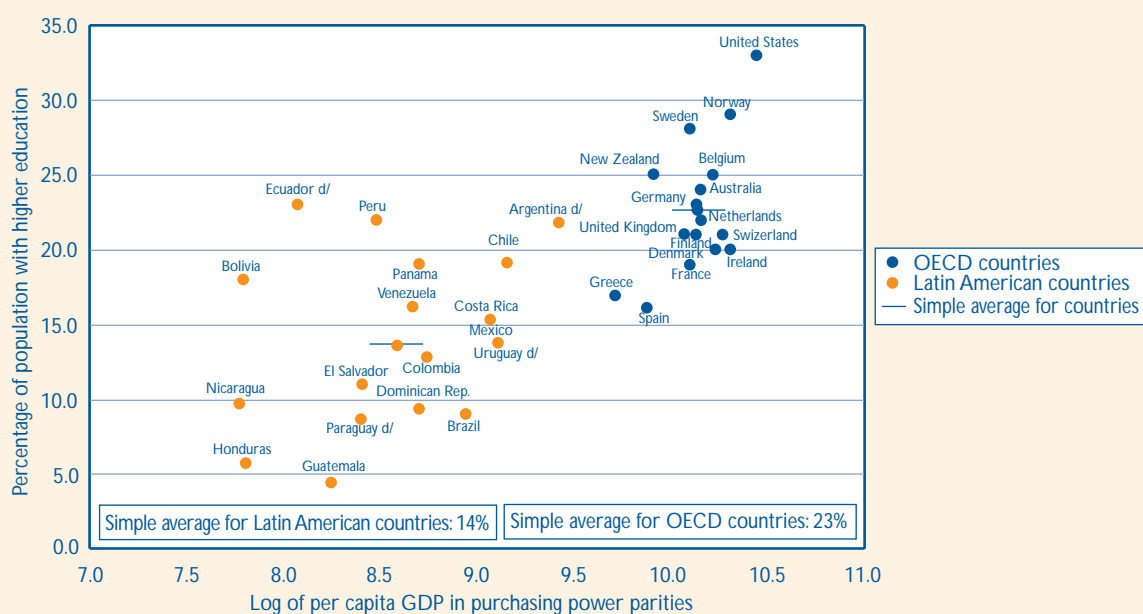
d/ Corresponds to simple average of the countries. In the national total, the average does not include Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Dominican Republic and Uruguay. In the urban total, the average does not include Bolivia, Peru, Dominican Republic and Venezuela. In both levels of coverage, the disaggregated figures on the size of the population with technical or professional qualifications do not include Mexico.

LATIN AMERICA'S LAG IN HIGHER EDUCATION: AN INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON

Ongoing investment in human capital is now a key element in the strategies followed by the OECD countries in order to promote economic development, full employment and social cohesion. It is also being increasingly recognized that the acquisition of new knowledge, skills and capabilities is essential for long-term growth within the globalized economy.

Although it is not easy to determine the optimum level of education of the population, and especially of the labour force, needed in order to satisfy the development processes of the Latin American countries, a good starting point is to make a comparison between the percentage of the population with post-secondary technical or university-level professional education and the level of development of the countries. The figure below shows the differences between this percentage and the level of per capita income for the OECD countries and the Latin American nations.

POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 64 YEARS OF AGE ^{a/} WITH HIGHER QUALIFICATIONS AND LEVEL OF PER CAPITA INCOME ^{b/} OF THE OECD COUNTRIES AND THE LATIN AMERICAN NATIONS, 1995/2000 ^{c/}
(Percentages and log of per capita GDP)



Source: The figures of tertiary-cycle education are from Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), *Human Capital Investment. An International Comparison*, Paris, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, 1999, and ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys of the respective countries. The figures for per capita GDP in purchasing power parities are from United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), *Human Development Report, 2000, 2002*.

a/ In the Latin American countries, this comprises the population between 25 and 59 years of age.

b/ Corresponds to the natural log of the per capita GDP, expressed in purchasing power parities.

c/ The information for the OECD countries corresponds to 1995 and for the Latin American countries, to around 1999.

d/ Total, urban areas.

e/ The values for Mexico and Uruguay are approximately the same.

As may be seen, although there is heterogeneity within the two groups of countries, in the case of the Latin American countries not only is the percentage lower –as a simple average, the percentage of the population with a high level of qualifications in the developed countries is almost double that of the region (23% compared with 14%)– ^{*/} but there is also a higher degree of heterogeneity in this respect, and the relation with per capita income is not as close.

Source: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), *Human Capital Investment. An International Comparison*, Paris, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, 1999, and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)/International Labour Organisation (ILO), *Technical and Vocational Education and Training for the Twenty-first Century, UNESCO and ILO Recommendations, 2002*.

^{*/} It should be noted that the comparison “favours” the Latin American countries because it refers to a population universe which does not include adults between 60 and 64 years of age, who usually have lower levels of education, and moreover the information is more recent.

B. Absorption and under-utilization of qualified employees

The economies of the region are not generating enough jobs to absorb the rapid expansion in the supply of professionals and technicians. Open unemployment among persons with high levels of qualifications, which represents one of the most obvious forms of under-utilization of human resources, increased significantly –from 3.8% to 6.6%– between the beginning and end of the decade. Likewise, the tendencies towards a decline in the wages of the most highly qualified persons, their growing employment (85% of technicians and professionals in urban areas towards 1999) in various branches of the tertiary sector, especially commerce and social and personal services, and the different rates at which wages have risen in these activities also hint at the sluggish generation of productive jobs for the most highly-qualified sectors of the population. An overall balance of the degree of under-utilization of highly-qualified human capital shows that in urban areas this affects nearly 4.5 million persons out of a total of 19 million professionals and technicians, of whom a little over a million are openly unemployed, while the remainder work in jobs where they receive low wages that are not commensurate with the investment made in their education, thus representing a serious loss at both the individual and social level.

As noted in various documents, the relations between education (especially post-secondary education) and the world of work have been modified by the changes which have taken place in the latter, giving rise to a new and complex situation as regards the demand for the training of skilled human resources and altering the ways those resources are used.⁷ Among these changes are: (i) those concer-

ning the requirements of occupations, thus generating new demands for capabilities, skills and knowledge; (ii) the reduction of the global supply of jobs, resulting in increased under-employment and open unemployment, longer searches for the first job and more prolonged episodes of unemployment, especially among the most highly-qualified workers; and (iii) changes in the sectoral structure of employment,

⁷ See Cox, 2002.

which continue to be reflected in loss of weight of primary and secondary (agriculture and manufacturing) activities and an increase in tertiary-sector activities. The main feature of this “tertiarization” is that, together with the expansion of activities which absorb relatively unskilled labour (mainly commerce and personal services), there has also been an expansion in others requiring highly-qualified staff (especially the financial sector, energy and communications, and business services).⁸ As a result, there is a tendency to “dualization” of the labour market, reflected on the one hand in an increase in occupations related with the new information and communications technologies, which require highly-qualified human resources, and on the other in the growth of informal employment of an unskilled and increasingly precarious nature.⁹

1. The potential and effective supply of skilled human resources

In the previous section we highlighted the main trends in the generation of qualified human resources in the Latin American countries during the last decade, centering on the potential supply of post-secondary qualifications consisting of technicians and professionals in the fully active population (the 25–59 age group). The most notable feature was the rapidity with which this potential supply expanded in all of the countries, the fastest increase in the most highly-qualified human resources being registered in the countries which displayed relative lags within the region at the beginning of the 1990s. It was also noted that the increase in the number of women with technical or professional qualifications was faster than in the case of men. This fact explains a considerable part of the increase in the effective supply of qualified human resources in the 1990s. A decisive factor in this rapid increase was the growing participation of women (both qualified and less-skilled) in economic activity. Table II.4 shows that in

the urban areas of the 17 countries studied the rate of participation of men in economic activity remained at about 95%, but that corresponding to women rose by ten percentage points on average (from 52% to 62%), and except in El Salvador,¹⁰ in all the countries the increase was more than 7 percentage points.

The rate of incorporation of women into economic activity was not uniform. Those with the lowest levels of qualifications increased their participation rate more quickly (from 48% to 57%), although they started from a much lower rate. The group of women with higher levels of qualifications, who already had a relatively high rate of participation in the urban labour force, rose from 77% to 82% as a whole, with larger increases (albeit from lower initial rates) in the case of the subgroup of women with post-secondary technical training (from 73% to 79%) and somewhat smaller increases (although from a higher initial level) in the case of professionals (from 83% to 87%). These tendencies were relatively generalized, and the direction of change was the same in the urban areas of almost all the countries of the region.

The most noteworthy exceptions were those of Chile, where the rate of female labour market participation is relatively low by regional standards, although in the case of professionals it is similar to the average for Latin America, and Guatemala, where the participation rate for female professionals is a good deal lower than that for women with training as technicians (see table II.4).

Despite the rapid increase in the number of women with professional or technical qualifications, gender inequalities still persist in the region as regards the social and individual utilization of these qualifications. This is reflected in the fact that the participation rates of women with post-secondary qualifications continue to be considerably lower than in the case of men with similar levels of qualifications. To a large extent, these differences are due

8 See Weller, 2001.

9 See ECLAC, 2002b.

10 It should be borne in mind that the surveys available for that country only permitted the study of the changes registered over a shorter period (1995–1999).

Table II.4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): RATE OF PARTICIPATION OF POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY LEVEL OF QUALIFICATIONS AND SEX, URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990 AND 1999 (Percentages)																
Country	Year	Total			Level of qualifications											
					No technical or professional qualifications			With technical or professional qualifications								
		Both sexes	Men	Women	Both sexes	Men	Women	Subtotal			With technical qualifications			With professional qualifications		
							Both sexes	Men	Women	Both sexes	Men	Women	Both sexes	Men	Women	
Argentina a/	1990	71	96	50	68	95	44	88	98	78	83	96	70	94	100	88
	1999	77	96	61	74	95	54	90	97	84	87	96	81	93	99	89
Bolivia	1989 b/	74	92	57	71	94	54	82	88	72	78	84	71	87	92	76
	1999	79	94	66	78	96	63	84	91	75	79	87	70	92	96	87
Brazil	1990	70	92	50	68	92	47	87	96	79	85	95	78	92	96	84
	1999	75	91	61	74	91	59	88	94	82	86	93	81	92	95	87
Chile	1990	66	92	44	63	92	38	86	94	76	80	92	69	92	96	86
	2000	73	93	54	70	93	49	84	93	75	79	90	67	92	97	87
Colombia	1991	74	95	55	71	95	51	88	94	81	80	91	70	91	96	86
	1999	79	95	66	76	95	62	92	96	88	87	91	83	95	98	91
Costa Rica	1990	68	94	45	64	94	40	81	93	68	73	89	59	89	96	80
	1999	73	94	54	70	95	49	83	93	74	79	92	68	90	95	84
Ecuador	1990	74	96	53	71	97	49	86	94	76	83	90	76	88	96	77
	1999	80	97	64	77	97	59	89	97	81	86	96	78	92	98	85
El Salvador	1995	77	94	64	76	94	62	88	93	81	84	90	79	93	97	86
	1999	78	93	66	76	93	63	89	92	85	83	88	80	95	97	92
Guatemala	1989	70	97	47	68	97	45	90	96	82	90	95	85	91	97	78
	1998	77	96	63	76	95	61	89	96	80	91	95	85	88	97	75
Honduras	1990	72	95	53	71	96	52	79	88	68	73	85	62	82	89	71
	1999	78	96	65	77	96	63	89	96	79	87	96	79	89	96	80
Mexico	1989	64	93	39	61	92	36	87	95	71
	2000	71	95	49	68	94	46	84	95	69
Nicaragua	1993	72	88	58	70	87	56	86	91	79	78	85	69	91	95	85
	1998	79	96	65	77	96	61	92	96	88	87	94	82	97	97	96
Panama	1989	73	94	54	70	94	48	89	96	82	86	96	78	91	96	86
	1999	77	95	60	73	95	52	89	96	84	86	95	79	92	96	88
Paraguay c/	1990	76	97	58	74	97	54	88	94	81	81	87	77	93	99	85
	1999	80	96	65	78	96	62	89	95	84	84	92	78	96	99	91
Peru	1999	78	93	65	76	94	62	84	91	75	78	86	68	89	96	82
Dominican Republic	1997	76	95	59	74	95	54	91	96	87	89	95	86	93	97	90
Uruguay	1990	76	96	60	75	95	57	91	97	87	89	96	85	94	98	90
	1999	82	95	70	80	95	67	92	96	88	89	95	86	95	98	93
Venezuela d/	1990	70	94	46	68	95	42	81	89	72	73	83	61	86	93	79
	1999	78	96	59	76	96	54	89	95	83	88	95	81	90	95	86
Total countries e/	1990	72	94	52	69	94	48	86	94	77	81	91	73	91	96	83
	1999	77	95	62	75	95	57	89	95	82	86	93	79	93	97	87

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Eight capital cities and El Alto.

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

d/ National total.

e/ Corresponds to simple average of the countries. Does not include Bolivia, Peru and Dominican Republic. The disaggregated figures on the size of the population with technical or professional qualifications do not include Mexico.

to the roles played by men and women in society and the corollary of this: the difficulty, or in extreme cases manifest incompatibility, between the fulfillment of the so-called domestic tasks assumed by women and their participation in the labour market, especially in the case of wage earners, because of the demands which are characteristic of this type of working status and the scant social support given for the fulfillment of household tasks and the care of children.

Although the higher incomes obtained in the labour market by more highly qualified women make it somewhat easier for them to fulfill both tasks and encourage their participation in that market, a relatively high proportion of women with technical or professional training continue to declare themselves as inactive.¹¹ Thus, as may be seen from table II.4, towards the end of the 1990s the average participation rate of female technicians was 14 percentage points below that of men, and 10 percentage points lower in the case of professionals. In this respect, when analysing changes in the labour market the gender dimension highlights the lack of utilization of qualified human resources and the net loss this represents for the countries, both because of the private and public resources invested in the training of these female professionals and technicians and because of the income forgone by women. This is why it is so important to facilitate the full incorporation of women into the labour market in order to take advantage of the greater technical and professional capabilities they now possess and to meet the demands arising from technical change and the growing integration of economies into international trade.

2. Unemployment among highly-qualified persons

Open unemployment among persons who have attained high levels of qualifications is another form of non-utilization or under-utilization of human resources in the region. In the last edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*¹² it was noted that the increase in unemployment in Latin America during the last decade was one of the most worrying features of the performance of the labour market in the region, because of its heavy incidence on poverty and on income distribution inequality. The relative dissociation which has taken place between economic growth and the level of employment in the countries suggests that the latter depends not only on conjunctural factors but also on factors of a structural nature, mainly connected with technological change. This suggests that the persistence of relatively high rates of open unemployment in recent years, together with an increase in the duration of episodes of unemployment, not only in the active population as a whole but also in the sector of the population with higher levels of qualifications, may be due to a decline in the capacity of the economies to generate enough jobs to absorb the supply of technicians and professionals, the growth rate of which has been rising (see table II.1).

Comparison of the unemployment rates prevailing at the beginning and end of the past decade in the countries which registered the biggest increases in urban unemployment (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela) indicates that this affected not only the less-qualified workers but also technicians and

11 In the population of the age group studied (25 to 59 years of age), most of those classed as inactive (in accordance with the activity status declared in the surveys) are women who, because of role incompatibility or for other reasons, are not engaged (temporarily or definitively) in paid or unpaid economic activity. This category also includes people who have lost their jobs or stopped looking for work (the "discouraged unemployed"). In this document, the category of un-utilized human resources is considered to apply both to the latter and to women who have been outside the labour market for relatively long periods of time because they are unable to participate in it on account of manifest role incompatibility. Unfortunately, the surveys do not make it possible to determine exactly the percentage of these inactive persons within the total.

12 Between 1990 and 1999 the number of urban unemployed in Latin America grew at an average annual rate of 11.4%, representing an increase of nearly 11 million. Those who had had a job but had lost it increased at the rate of 12.6% per year (i.e., by 8.5 million), while those seeking work for the first time increased by 5.6% per year (see ECLAC, 2001a).

professionals, and it hit women harder than men. Thus, towards the end of the 1990s the global open unemployment rate in those nine countries was almost double the 1990 rate (9.5% compared with 5%), with a somewhat greater increase among workers without technical or professional qualifications (10.2% compared with 5.2%). There was also a significant increase in unemployment among more qualified workers, although from a lower initial rate (6.6% compared with 3.8%). It may be noted that both the level of unemployment and the rate of failure to find work affected technicians relatively more than professionals (see table II.10 at the end of this chapter).

Gender differences are also evident in the capacity of the market to absorb qualified labour and generate enough jobs for technicians and professionals. Table II.10 shows two important facts in this respect. The first is that in the Latin American countries open unemployment is affecting women more than men, although this tendency is not completely generalized: in Mexico and the Central American countries (El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua)¹³ not only were the rates of failure to find jobs low but also there was less unemployment among women than among men. A plausible explanation for this situation in Mexico and Central America (except for Nicaragua, which has unemployment rates of over 10%) is the growing importance of maquila-related activities—which employ a large number of women—within total industrial employment.

When there is a big increase in unemployment, women are affected more than men; this is true both of less-qualified women and of those with technical or professional training. In the nine countries which registered the biggest increases in urban open unemployment in the last decade, the unemployment rate among female technicians rose on average from 5.5% to 9% and among female professionals from 3.7% to 6.5%, but among men the increases were only from 4.2% to 7% and from 2.8% to 4.5% res-

pectively. The insufficient generation of jobs and the evolution of unemployment mean that there is greater failure to take advantage of the technical and professional qualifications of women than of men.

3. Loss of wage-earning status, “tertiarization” and income trends among professionals and technicians

There were three tendencies in the changing demand for qualified human resources during the 1990s, largely due to the globalization process. The first, which has been observed in the urban areas of practically all the countries of the region and is connected with the type of links with or insertion in the labour market, concerns the relative predominance of wage-earning or self-employed status among workers. The second concerns the form in which workers have been absorbed by the tertiary sector, as compared with the degree of concentration of the demand for qualified human resources, and the third is connected with income trends and disparities between qualified and non-qualified workers.

In general terms, the information on urban areas reflects a clear global trend towards the reduction of the proportion of wage earners among workers as a whole, both skilled and unskilled (see table II.5). What should be emphasized in this process is that the rate of reduction of the proportion of wage earners is higher among the most highly-qualified workers, although the initial proportion was higher. Professionals show a somewhat faster tendency towards the loss of wage-earning status, and at the end of the past decade one out of every four was working on his own account. For their part, technicians have the highest levels of wage-earning status among the total number of urban workers in most of the countries, while their rate of loss of wage-earning status is lower than that of professionals (non-professional

13 Within Central America, Costa Rica is an exception in that both at the beginning and end of the 1990s unemployment was higher among women than among men.

technical knowledge is usually employed in production processes and in middle-management posts requiring supervision).¹⁴

The more rapid rate of loss of wage-earning status among professionals and technicians is due to a combination of circumstances which may be present to varying degrees in the different national situations. On the one hand, there is the increasing spread of new forms of activity used by the most

highly qualified professionals, especially those offering services which call for a high capacity of analysis for the solving of problems and which can be carried out on an independent basis.¹⁵ On the other hand, this process also reflects the inability of the Latin American economies to absorb the growing supply of qualified technicians and professionals. Although this could serve to strengthen the first-named tendency, it can also mean a failure to make proper use of qualifications in so far as it involves

Table II.5

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): LEVEL AND EVOLUTION OF WAGE-EARNING EMPLOYMENT AMONG WORKERS BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY LEVEL OF QUALIFICATIONS, URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990 AND 1999 (Percentage of wage earners in 1999 and variation, in percentage points, between 1990 and 1999)											
Country	Period	Total of employed persons		Level of qualifications							
				Employed persons without technical or professional qualifications		Employed persons with technical or professional qualifications					
		%	variation	%	variation	Total		With technical qualifications		With professional qualifications	
				%	variation	%	variation	%	variation	%	variation
Argentina a/	1990–1999	72.4	4.9	71.3	3.6	75.7	8.8	82.3	9.3	69.2	9.3
Bolivia	1989 b/–1999	47.0	-4.9	37.1	-7.7	73.4	-0.8	75.1	-3.6	70.9	2.7
Brazil	1990–1999	65.2	-2.4	64.3	-2.1	71.0	-4.9	72.4	-5.6	68.5	-2.7
Chile	1990–2000	76.1	1.4	74.6	1.8	80.4	-1.6	80.1	-1.5	80.7	-1.8
Colombia	1991–1999	56.4	-7.2	52.5	-8.3	71.2	-4.4	72.8	-5.0	70.5	-4.3
Costa Rica	1990–1999	71.4	-1.7	68.5	-1.4	79.0	-4.2	77.6	-6.8	81.0	-1.1
Ecuador	1990–1999	57.7	0.2	52.9	0.5	70.8	-6.6	73.0	-6.7	69.3	-6.4
El Salvador	1995–1999	64.7	5.0	60.2	4.6	84.1	1.5	86.3	1.2	81.6	2.2
Guatemala	1989–1998	56.5	-6.2	54.0	-6.7	76.9	-2.8	75.8	-6.1	77.9	0.0
Honduras	1990–1999	57.0	-5.5	54.5	-6.2	74.8	-6.9	81.8	-8.5	71.8	-6.4
Mexico	1989–2000	72.7	-2.5	70.4	-3.1	80.9	-2.3
Nicaragua	1993–1998	59.0	-2.1	55.5	-3.6	76.5	-2.8	77.4	11.9	75.7	-10.2
Panama	1989–1999	74.5	0.2	69.1	-0.7	88.5	-0.9	87.7	-1.7	89.0	-0.4
Paraguay c/	1990–1999	65.5	2.5	64.6	3.1	69.7	-1.6	74.0	-3.0	65.1	-2.6
Peru	1999	50.5	...	42.3	...	68.2	...	60.5	...	74.4	...
Dominican Rep.	1997	58.9	...	55.6	...	74.6	...	74.2	...	75.1	...
Uruguay	1990–1999	71.9	-1.5	71.1	-1.8	75.7	-0.7	82.6	-1.3	65.3	1.4
Venezuela d/	1990–1999	57.0	-9.4	53.2	-11.0	73.5	-5.5	70.5	-8.5	76.0	-3.0
Total countries e/	1990–1999	65.2	-1.6	62.4	-2.1	76.6	-2.3	78.2	-2.5	74.4	-2.8

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Eight capital cities and El Alto.

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

d/ National total.

e/ Corresponds to simple average of the countries. Does not include Bolivia, Peru and Dominican Republic. The disaggregated figures on the size of the population with technical or professional qualifications do not include Mexico.

14 It should be borne in mind, when looking at the figures in table II.5, that the percentage reduction in the number of wage-earning professionals and technicians during the decade (which went down by 2.5 percentage points, and over 5 percentage points in seven countries) represents a substantial change in terms of numbers, because the total number of highly-qualified workers has increased by around 50% (some 5 million persons) in the last ten years.

15 This is usual among organizational experts, information processing specialists, scientific researchers, investment analysts and promoters, etc. See Brunner, 2000.

open unemployment or the acceptance of jobs where it is not necessary to make full use of the skills and knowledge acquired. This would also mean that the wages paid would be much lower than could normally be expected in view of the investment made in education.

Another tendency which clearly reflects the inability of the economies to make productive use of the big increase in the supply of qualified human resources is the growing migration of the most highly qualified labour to the tertiary sector, as expressed in the concentration of the employment of technicians and professionals in certain activities.

The first noteworthy aspect of the sectoral structure of employment is that during the 1990s there continued to be a trend towards growth of the tertiary sector. Thus, in the urban areas of all the countries except Honduras, there was an increase of some 3 percentage points in the proportion of the population employed in commerce, transport, communications, financial activities and other services (business services, government service, social, community and personal services, etc.). A further element to be taken into account is that tertiary activities absorb a major proportion of qualified labour. As may be seen from table II.6, some 85% of employees with technical or professional qualifications are in posts related with those activities, whereas this proportion goes down to 68% in the case of posts not requiring such qualifications.

As a general trend, most of the jobs created in the tertiary sector were in commerce. At the regional level, this sector accounts for nearly a quarter of all urban employment, and it has been the sector which has absorbed most skilled and unskilled labour, along with government, social, community and personal services. Whereas commerce tends to absorb the least-skilled labour, however, the opposite is the case in the last-named group of services, which accounts for a high proportion of the employment of the most highly-qualified labour (see table II.6). In the two most populous countries of the region (Brazil and Mexico), nearly 58% of all technicians and

professionals work in this type of activities. In both these countries, the percentage of employment accounted for by that type of activities increased by around 3 percentage points. The fact that in the expansion of the tertiary sector the demand for qualified labour has tended to be concentrated in activities linked with the social services is an index of the insufficient capacity of the economies to generate productive jobs which will make it possible to absorb the rapid growth in the supply of technicians and professionals. The evolution of the salaries of the workers with the highest qualifications in the tertiary sector, and especially in commerce and social services, tends to corroborate this statement. Thus, as may be seen from table II.7, the sector with the lowest average wages for technicians and professionals is that of government, social, community and personal services; something similar occurs in the case of commerce, and as a general rule the average salaries of the most highly-qualified persons are lowest in these two areas of activities. These data also show that the increase in the wage gaps between the most highly qualified and least qualified workers, which has been noted as one of the factors that has helped to increase inequalities in primary income distribution in the region, is due mainly to the bigger increase in wages (an average of 2% per year) obtained during much of the past decade by workers with university-level professional qualifications. Among those who obtained post-secondary technical qualifications, whose number increased much more, the rise in wages was smaller (1.4% per year), although, just as in the case of professionals, this was much more than the increases obtained by workers without post-secondary qualifications (0.7% per year).

4. Failure to take advantage of the investment in human capital

The rates of under-utilization of human resources shown in the previous section may be evaluated more systematically by distinguishing between the three main sources of under-utilization of the available human capital:

Table II.6

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): DISTRIBUTION OF THE EMPLOYED POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY LEVEL OF QUALIFICATIONS AND SECTOR OF ACTIVITY, URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990 AND 1999 (Percentage of employed persons in the different branches in 1999 and variation, in percentage points, between 1990 and 1999)													
Country	Period		Total	Sector of activity									
				Agriculture, mining, industry and construction		Wholesale and retail trade		Energy, transport and communications		Financial activities, insurance and business services		Government, social, community and personal services	
				%	variation	%	variation	%	variation	%	variation	%	variation
Argentina a/	1990–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	24.8	-5.0	19.6	1.5	10.8	2.1	12.1	3.4	32.8	-2.0
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	28.9	-5.3	22.6	2.6	12.7	3.0	8.2	3.2	27.5	-3.4
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	12.6	-1.5	10.7	-0.6	5.2	0.3	23.4	1.9	48.0	-0.1
Brazil	1990–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	29.2	-2.8	15.8	0.6	6.6	-0.5	5.0	0.6	43.3	2.0
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	31.6	-2.3	16.7	0.7	7.1	-0.3	3.5	0.1	41.2	1.8
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	13.6	-5.4	10.3	0.4	3.9	-1.6	14.5	3.5	57.8	3.1
Chile	1990–2000	Total employed persons	100.0	32.0	-4.0	19.0	0.0	9.4	0.5	8.5	-0.7	31.1	4.2
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	35.5	-4.3	21.2	0.1	10.2	0.8	5.8	-1.0	27.3	4.4
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	22.2	0.4	12.8	1.4	7.1	0.1	16.2	-2.0	41.7	0.1
Colombia	1991–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	25.7	-3.5	25.9	0.4	8.6	0.0	7.9	1.5	31.9	1.7
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	28.2	-3.0	29.2	1.1	9.5	0.4	5.1	0.9	27.9	0.6
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	16.1	-4.5	13.7	-0.8	5.4	-1.2	18.3	2.3	46.6	4.0
Costa Rica	1990–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	26.1	-4.2	23.7	4.6	9.0	1.2	7.5	1.2	33.7	-2.8
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	30.7	-4.4	26.4	4.2	10.0	1.3	5.2	0.9	27.7	-1.9
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	13.9	-0.9	16.3	7.5	6.6	1.3	13.7	1.1	49.5	-8.9
Ecuador	1990–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	27.4	-3.8	26.9	1.2	8.1	0.3	5.2	0.8	32.4	1.6
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	31.1	-3.6	29.7	1.4	8.9	0.6	2.9	-0.2	27.4	1.8
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	16.9	-0.6	19.2	3.6	5.8	0.1	11.7	1.8	46.3	-4.8
El Salvador	1995–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	31.8	-3.9	29.7	1.0	6.5	-0.2	5.4	0.6	26.7	2.5
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	35.8	-3.5	33.5	2.4	7.1	0.0	3.6	0.3	20.1	0.8
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	14.4	-1.5	13.3	-1.8	3.8	-0.1	13.1	-0.4	55.4	3.8
Guatemala	1989–1998	Total employed persons	100.0	35.3	-3.6	30.3	8.2	6.9	0.7	4.7	1.5	22.7	-6.8
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	37.2	-4.1	32.3	9.3	7.0	0.4	3.7	1.8	19.7	-7.3
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	20.0	2.1	14.5	0.4	6.4	3.1	12.7	-1.1	46.4	-4.5
Honduras	1990–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	34.5	0.3	27.8	1.9	5.2	-1.5	4.6	1.6	27.9	-2.3
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	37.1	1.1	29.3	2.0	5.4	-1.3	3.1	1.0	25.1	-2.7
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	16.8	0.7	16.7	6.3	3.8	-3.4	14.9	3.8	47.8	-7.5
Mexico	1989–2000	Total employed persons	100.0	30.3	-4.4	20.7	0.8	6.8	0.5	2.0	-0.6	40.1	3.7
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	33.7	-3.3	22.7	0.8	7.2	0.2	1.4	-0.5	35.0	2.7
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	18.6	-6.0	14.1	2.8	5.3	1.8	3.8	-1.6	58.1	2.9
Nicaragua	1993–1998	Total employed persons	100.0	26.6	-1.4	32.7	5.0	7.3	-0.9	0.8	-1.9	32.6	-0.7
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	28.6	-0.7	35.9	7.0	7.7	-0.9	0.4	-1.7	27.4	-3.7
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	16.3	0.4	17.1	-0.4	5.4	0.7	3.1	-5.5	58.1	4.8
Panama	1989–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	24.9	-2.0	24.4	7.9	10.4	-3.7	8.6	3.3	31.8	-5.5
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	29.6	-1.9	26.7	9.2	10.4	-4.1	5.6	1.9	27.7	-5.0
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	12.5	1.4	18.4	5.4	10.3	-2.1	16.5	5.5	42.4	-10.1
Paraguay b/	1990–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	28.1	-0.7	25.0	0.4	8.6	0.7	8.0	2.1	30.4	-2.5
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	32.1	-0.1	27.9	2.1	8.5	0.8	5.7	2.7	25.7	-5.3
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	11.2	1.6	12.8	-5.1	8.7	0.1	17.7	-3.9	49.8	7.4
Peru	1999	Total employed persons	100.0	22.7	...	32.1	...	9.9	...	6.9	...	28.4	...
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	28.3	...	37.5	...	10.3	...	3.4	...	20.6	...
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	10.6	...	20.4	...	9.3	...	14.6	...	45.2	...
Dominican Rep.	1997	Total employed persons	100.0	31.3	...	28.5	...	9.6	...	5.8	...	24.9	...
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	34.0	...	30.4	...	10.1	...	3.7	...	21.9	...
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	18.2	...	19.3	...	7.3	...	16.0	...	39.2	...
Uruguay	1990–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	27.3	-2.7	18.0	1.7	7.9	0.0	7.1	2.0	39.7	-1.0
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	30.5	-2.4	19.7	2.1	8.6	-0.1	5.0	1.1	36.2	-0.7
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	10.3	-0.7	9.2	1.0	4.5	1.5	18.1	5.4	58.0	-7.1
Venezuela c/	1990–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	30.4	-3.4	24.6	4.7	8.3	0.2	5.8	-0.5	30.9	-1.1
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	33.8	-2.6	26.2	4.9	9.0	0.2	3.8	-0.6	27.2	-2.0
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	15.9	-3.9	17.7	5.6	5.3	1.1	14.5	-2.2	46.6	-0.7
Total countries d/	1990–1999	Total employed persons	100.0	29.0	-3.0	24.3	2.7	8.0	0.0	6.2	1.0	32.5	-0.6
		without technical or professional qualifications	100.0	32.3	-2.7	26.7	3.3	8.6	0.1	4.2	0.6	28.2	-1.3
		with technical or professional qualifications	100.0	15.4	-1.2	14.4	1.7	5.8	0.1	14.1	0.6	50.2	-1.2

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

c/ National total.

d/ Corresponds to simple average of the countries. Does not include Peru and Dominican Republic.

Table II.7

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE REMUNERATION OF WAGE EARNERS BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, EXPRESSED IN POVERTY LINE UNITS, BY LEVEL OF QUALIFICATIONS AND SECTOR OF ACTIVITY, URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990 AND 1999																					
(Average remuneration of wage earners with technical or professional qualifications in the different branches in 1999 and annual average variation between 1990 and 1999)																					
Country	Period	Total wage earners		Wage earners				Type of qualifications				Remuneration of wage earners with technical or professional qualifications, by sector of activity									
				Without technical or professional qualifications		With technical or professional qualifications		Technical		Professional		Agriculture, mining, industry and construction		Wholesale and retail trade		Energy, transport and communications		Financial activities, insurance and business services		Government, social, community and personal services	
		Average wage	Annual variation	Average wage	Annual variation	Average wage	Annual variation	Average wage	Annual variation	Average wage	Annual variation	Average wage	Annual variation	Average wage	Annual variation	Average wage	Annual variation	Average wage	Annual variation	Average wage	Annual variation
Argentina a/	1990-1999	6.2	1.5	4.8	0.9	10.0	1.3	7.7	0.0	12.4	2.4	11.3	1.3	10.2	8.3	10.6	0.8	12.5	0.3	8.9	1.8
Argentina	1999	5.7	...	4.5	...	8.8	...	6.8	...	10.9	...	10.4	...	9.0	...	10.2	...	11.3	...	7.9	...
Bolivia	1989 b/-1999	4.8	1.1	3.6	0.8	6.4	0.6	4.3	1.1	9.7	0.6	7.6	-0.3	4.9	-4.5	8.4	0.3	12.1	5.3	5.2	-0.1
Brazil	1990-1999	4.7	0.0	3.4	0.2	12.4	-0.3	10.2	-0.5	17.3	-0.2	16.3	-0.3	10.9	0.1	15.3	1.9	12.9	1.3	11.7	-0.3
Chile	1990-2000	6.5	4.0	4.1	2.7	12.9	4.2	8.1	2.3	17.7	5.4	19.2	6.2	12.5	3.6	13.8	4.6	14.0	2.2	10.6	5.1
Colombia	1991-1999	4.1	3.6	2.9	2.3	7.4	4.0	5.1	4.0	8.3	4.7	8.9	4.0	6.9	4.4	6.9	3.2	7.6	4.7	7.0	4.3
Costa Rica	1990-1999	6.7	0.9	4.9	0.4	10.9	0.8	9.1	1.5	13.4	1.2	11.5	-0.1	10.8	2.1	10.7	-1.2	13.1	0.9	10.6	1.2
Ecuador	1990-1999	3.3	-1.3	2.3	-2.3	5.4	-1.0	4.7	0.9	5.8	-1.5	7.7	-0.1	6.3	-2.7	7.4	0.8	7.4	0.5	4.2	-1.3
El Salvador	1995-1999	5.3	6.6	4.0	5.7	9.5	5.4	7.2	6.2	11.9	3.8	11.5	5.3	10.5	2.3	12.2	16.8	11.4	4.2	8.4	6.0
Guatemala	1989-1998	4.0	1.2	3.1	0.5	9.2	1.9	7.0	1.9	11.0	2.2	12.2	3.6	9.2	2.3	10.4	1.9	12.0	4.0	7.4	0.2
Honduras	1990-1999	3.0	-2.9	2.4	-2.9	6.4	-5.0	4.4	-5.7	7.3	-4.3	7.1	-3.0	8.5	-1.1	5.8	-4.0	6.3	-5.5	5.9	-5.9
Mexico	1989-2000	4.2	0.9	2.9	0.0	8.2	0.8	11.3	2.8	8.3	-2.4	9.6	0.6	13.7	3.3	6.4	-0.1
Nicaragua	1993-1998	3.8	0.0	2.9	-2.3	7.3	-0.4	5.0	2.3	9.3	3.3	7.7	-7.9	7.6	8.2	15.1	7.8	11.7	5.1	5.9	1.6
Panama	1989-1999	7.0	0.9	4.8	0.3	11.4	0.4	8.3	1.3	13.1	0.6	12.0	1.0	10.8	2.0	15.1	0.4	13.0	0.0	10.4	0.3
Paraguay c/	1990-1999	4.0	3.6	3.3	3.5	6.6	3.0	4.7	2.6	8.9	4.7	5.6	2.4	6.6	3.3	8.8	6.5	7.5	1.8	6.1	3.9
Paraguay	1999	3.9	...	3.1	...	7.0	...	4.8	...	9.7	...	7.2	...	6.7	...	9.0	...	7.6	...	6.5	...
Peru	1999	4.6	...	3.3	...	6.5	...	4.7	...	7.5	...	12.3	...	7.3	...	10.5	...	7.7	...	4.8	...
Dominican Rep.	1997	4.4	...	3.5	...	7.5	...	5.9	...	9.5	...	8.6	...	7.3	...	6.7	...	13.3	...	5.9	...
Uruguay	1990-1999	5.9	4.4	5.1	3.6	9.9	6.0	7.7	6.1	13.8	5.7	13.9	7.6	8.2	5.6	11.7	9.3	14.8	5.4	8.7	5.7
Venezuela d/	1990-1999	3.5	-1.5	2.7	-2.7	5.9	-0.8	4.3	-1.1	7.0	0.2	7.5	0.3	5.3	-1.4	6.9	1.9	7.8	2.2	5.0	-1.4
Total countries e/	1990-1999	4.8	1.5	3.6	0.7	8.9	1.4	6.7	1.6	11.2	2.0	10.9	1.5	8.8	2.3	10.7	3.4	11.0	2.0	7.8	1.4

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Eight capital cities and El Alto.

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

d/ National total.

e/ Corresponds to simple average of the countries. Does not include Bolivia, Peru and Dominican Republic. The disaggregated figures on wage earners with technical and professional qualifications do not include Mexico, and the annual variation is a simple average of the annual variation of the countries.

Note: The values of the relevant poverty lines are shown in table 15 of the statistical appendix to this edition of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*.

a) The employment of professionals and technicians in jobs that do not use the knowledge and skills acquired through the investment of public and private resources in the formal post-secondary educational system. The approach used to identify

this kind of under-utilization consists of making use of the information on the effective wages obtained in the labour market, and it is assumed that when these skills and qualifications are used, the income obtained will be based on a market value

(wage) higher than that obtained by persons not possessing them.¹⁶ For example, if a business graduate obtains a salary equal to or less than that received in the market by a shop assistant without post-secondary qualifications, it may be asserted that he is not making use of the knowledge and skills obtained through the investment he made in human capital. Box II.3 gives a detailed description of the procedure for estimating the number of (employed or own-account) workers in this situation.

- b) Another source of failure to take advantage of the stock of qualified technicians and professionals is open unemployment. Although naturally not all technicians and professionals who are not working can be assumed to be in that situation against their will, the presence of high and, in many countries, rising levels of prolonged unemployment undoubtedly reflects the inability of the economy to make use of their skills and knowledge. Although the rates of unemployment among professionals and technicians are lower than those of less-qualified workers, their periods of unemployment and, hence, of failure to utilize these human resources are longer. The information available for 11 countries of the region indicates that both technicians and professionals suffer longer episodes of unemployment on average: towards the end of the 1990s the average time spent looking for work was 4.3 months in the case of the urban labour force as a whole, but among those with technical qualifications it was 5.2 months, and in the case of professionals it was 6.6 months (see ECLAC, 2001a, chap. III, table III.9).
- c) A third source of non-utilization of human capital is inactivity. Since the analysis was limited to the population of fully active age (25 to 59 years of age), the two main reasons for non-participation in economic activity which involve under-utiliza-

tion of human capital in this case are the withdrawal of workers from the labour market after a long period of unsuccessfully looking for work (the discouraged unemployed) and non-voluntary inactivity, which mainly affects women who, because of the lack of suitable conditions (lack of child-care arrangements or difficulties of access to crèches and similar services), are unable to engage in activities in the labour market while at the same time fulfilling their roles in the home.

In line with these criteria, table II.8 gives an estimate of the degree of utilization of human resources with technical and professional qualifications in the urban areas of the countries of the region.¹⁷ It can be seen from this table that, with regard to the first source of under-utilization, around one in every five employed persons with technical or professional qualifications is working in a job which does not take advantage of the investment he made in his education. Most of these people –around 65%– are technicians and professionals working in a wage-earning capacity.

Likewise, one out of every twenty members of this group would appear to be in this situation because of open unemployment. The proportion is even greater in the case of women, since almost two out of every twenty are without work because, as noted earlier, open unemployment in the region affects women more than men, especially in the countries which have registered the biggest increases in unemployment in recent years.

Finally, when it is considered that, for the reasons mentioned, part of those who are highly qualified but are inactive are unable to take advantage of their knowledge and skills for reasons beyond their control, then this means that around one out of every ten highly-qualified persons is not making use of his investment in human capital because of non-voluntary inactivity. It can be seen from the table in question

16 The procedure adopted cannot be assimilated to the other approach which, though also based on effective income, gives what is known as “income-based underemployment”. In this latter approach, under-utilization is based on the average income obtained by qualified workers in a given activity, and not on a comparison with the income obtained in the market by unqualified workers.

17 The main reason for not applying this procedure in rural areas (apart from the lower availability of surveys with this coverage) was the limitations caused by the small size of the sample in such areas and the consequently larger margin of error to which the estimates would be subject.

A PROCEDURE FOR ESTIMATING THE DEGREE OF UNDER-UTILIZATION OF QUALIFIED HUMAN RESOURCES

The degree of under-utilization of the skills of persons with technical or professional qualifications was estimated on the basis of an *ex post* analysis to determine the percentage of such persons who, at the time of the survey, were receiving wages substantially lower than those corresponding to their level of qualifications.

In general terms, the procedure is as follows: in each country, the private yields on education were estimated, and on the basis of these the differences in income between workers with different educational backgrounds were calculated, broken down by sex. For this purpose, a Mincer-type equation was used whose specification made it possible to estimate the differences of income generated by each educational cycle (primary, secondary, higher), according to the number of years of (potential) experience of the persons in question:

$$\ln y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{esc} + \alpha_2 * d_b(\text{esc}-b) + \alpha_3 * d_m(\text{esc}-m) + \alpha_4 \text{exp} + \alpha_5 \text{exp}^2 + \varepsilon \quad \dots (1)$$

where **esc** is the number of years of schooling completed, **b** is the duration in years of the basic cycle, **m** is the duration of the secondary cycle, and **exp** is the potential experience, which is determined approximately by deducting from the person's declared age the official age of entry into the formal educational system and the number of years of schooling accumulated (see box III.5).

After the parameters (α) of the equation had been estimated, the set of wage earners between 25 and 59 years of age with post-secondary technical or university-level professional qualifications was selected and the effective hourly wage of each of them was compared with the wage they would have earned **if they had only completed the secondary cycle**. In order to make this comparison between the declared wage and that predicted by equation (1), the number of years of potential experience was homogenized by deducting from the original estimate of potential experience the number of extra years of higher education completed. In this way, a comparison was made between the effective wage of each worker with post-secondary education and the wage he would have obtained if he had not made this extra investment in education after completion of the secondary cycle, assuming the same number of years of potential experience.

Thus, for example, in order to compare the real remuneration of a worker 35 years old possessing a university qualification equivalent to five more years of studies after the secondary cycle, plus seven years of working experience, with what he would have obtained if he had only completed the secondary cycle, assuming an educational system with an entry age of six years and primary and secondary cycles each lasting six years, the following calculation was made on the basis of equation (1):

$$Y_{\text{estimated for 12 years' schooling}} = \text{antilogarithm} (\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 * 12 + \alpha_2 * (12-6) + \alpha_3 * (12-12) + \alpha_4 * 7 + \alpha_5 * 7^2)$$

It was considered that if the effective hourly income declared by the worker was equal to or less than $Y_{\text{estimated for 12 years' schooling}}$, then it would represent an income not commensurate with his level of specialization and his capabilities were therefore being under-utilized. In other words, he would be obtaining an effective wage so low that it would not pay back the investment in education made by the individual after completing his secondary education.

In the case of non-wage earners it was considered that although they represent a segment of the labour market with more variable levels of income linked more closely with the short-term level of demand for their services, they could nevertheless be measured with the same criterion as for wage earners. This approach holds that although a professional or technician has more independence for undertaking an economic activity, it can nevertheless happen that his income is equal to or less than that which he would obtain as a wage earner without post-secondary qualifications; this would indicate a precarious form of self-employment and in this sense there would be a failure to take advantage of his own individual contribution to human capital.^{a/}

Finally, the procedure described above does not take into account the possible under-estimation of the degree of utilization of the wage-earning labour force with high levels of qualifications which derives from the fact that some persons work part-time, although they do not wish to do so, for reasons imposed by the labour market.

Source: Prepared by the authors on the basis of box III.5.

^{a/} This naturally introduces a skew in the direction of over-estimation due to the classification as "under-utilized" of own-account workers who receive low incomes because they are only just starting their activities, or for some merely temporary situation. It was considered that this skew was only of minor importance, however, because there is a corresponding skew due to workers who receive more than average incomes.

that because this proportion is an average for both sexes taken together, it is actually substantially higher among women for the reasons already mentioned.

Figure II.2 summarizes in absolute values the degree of under-utilization of the total supply of quali-

fied human resources in the urban areas of 18 countries of the region. On the basis of these figures, it may be asserted that, because of the current deficit in the generation of jobs requiring professional and post-secondary technical qualifications, the Latin American economies are failing to make full or proper use of the

human capital of a little over 4.5 million persons who are highly qualified by the standards of the region, out of an available total of 19 million.

The main conclusion to be drawn from an analysis of the potential supply of qualified professionals and technicians and their degree of utilization is that

Table II.8

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ESTIMATED DEGREE OF UTILIZATION OF TOTAL SUPPLY OF HUMAN RESOURCES WITH TECHNICAL AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS, URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1999 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Population between 25 and 59 years of age with technical or professional qualifications									
		Total	Activity status								
			Inactive	Unemployed	Employed						
					Total	Type of situation			Occupational category		
remuneration not commensurate with qualifications a/	Wage earners: remuneration not commensurate with qualification	Own-account: remuneration not commensurate with qualifications	Total workers: remuneration commensurate with qualifications	Wage earners: remuneration commensurate with qualifications		Own-account: remuneration commensurate with qualifications					
Argentina b/	1999	100.0	10.1	7.9	82.0	13.0	10.6	2.4	69.0	51.5	17.5
Argentina	1999	100.0	13.3	6.7	80.1	16.6	13.3	3.3	63.5	46.5	17.0
Bolivia c/	1999	100.0	16.3	3.3	80.4	17.9	10.0	7.9	62.6	49.1	13.5
Brazil	1999	100.0	12.3	4.0	83.7	13.2	8.3	4.9	70.5	51.2	19.3
Chile	2000	100.0	15.6	4.2	80.2	10.8	8.7	2.2	69.3	55.8	13.6
Colombia	1999	100.0	7.9	10.5	81.6	14.2	7.8	6.3	67.4	50.2	17.2
Costa Rica	1999	100.0	16.9	1.4	81.7	16.4	11.8	4.7	65.3	52.8	12.5
Ecuador	1999	100.0	10.5	7.5	82.0	26.6	18.5	8.2	55.4	39.6	15.8
El Salvador	1999	100.0	11.5	4.5	84.1	18.8	12.6	6.2	65.3	58.1	7.1
Guatemala	1998	100.0	10.7	0.8	88.6	27.8	21.5	6.3	60.7	46.6	14.1
Honduras	1999	100.0	11.3	2.9	85.8	18.1	12.1	6.0	67.7	52.1	15.7
Mexico	2000	100.0	15.7	1.6	82.7	15.2	11.8	3.4	67.5	55.0	12.4
Nicaragua	1998	100.0	8.2	9.7	82.1	32.2	24.5	7.7	49.9	38.4	11.6
Panama	1999	100.0	10.7	6.4	82.9	17.5	13.7	3.8	65.4	59.7	5.7
Paraguay d/	1999	100.0	10.6	2.6	86.9	24.6	16.9	7.7	62.3	43.7	18.6
Paraguay	1999	100.0	10.0	2.4	87.5	26.4	17.4	9.0	61.1	45.4	15.7
Peru	1999	100.0	16.4	4.1	79.6	23.9	12.3	11.6	55.7	42.0	13.7
Dominican Rep.	1997	100.0	8.9	11.0	80.1	14.2	10.6	3.7	65.8	49.2	16.7
Uruguay	1999	100.0	8.4	3.0	88.6	35.1	27.6	7.5	53.5	39.4	14.0
Venezuela e/	1999	100.0	11.2	9.0	79.8	14.5	10.4	4.1	65.3	48.3	17.0
Total countries f/	Both sexes	100.0	12.6	4.8	82.6	15.0	10.5	4.5	67.6	51.6	16.0
	Men	100.0	5.1	4.2	90.7	15.6	10.8	4.8	75.1	53.1	22.0
	Women	100.0	20.2	5.5	74.3	14.3	10.2	4.1	60.0	50.2	9.8
Total countries g/	Both sexes	100.0	13.2	4.8	82.0	16.1	10.9	5.2	65.9	50.2	15.7
	Men	100.0	5.7	4.2	90.0	17.4	11.7	5.7	72.6	51.1	21.6
	Women	100.0	20.7	5.4	73.9	14.7	10.1	4.6	59.2	49.4	9.8

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys of the respective countries and the population framework deriving from them.

a/ Corresponds to wage earners or self-employed persons whose monthly income, when adjusted to a standard 48-hour week, is less than the income expected from working as wage earners without post-secondary qualifications. See box II.3.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Eight capital cities and El Alto.

d/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

e/ National total.

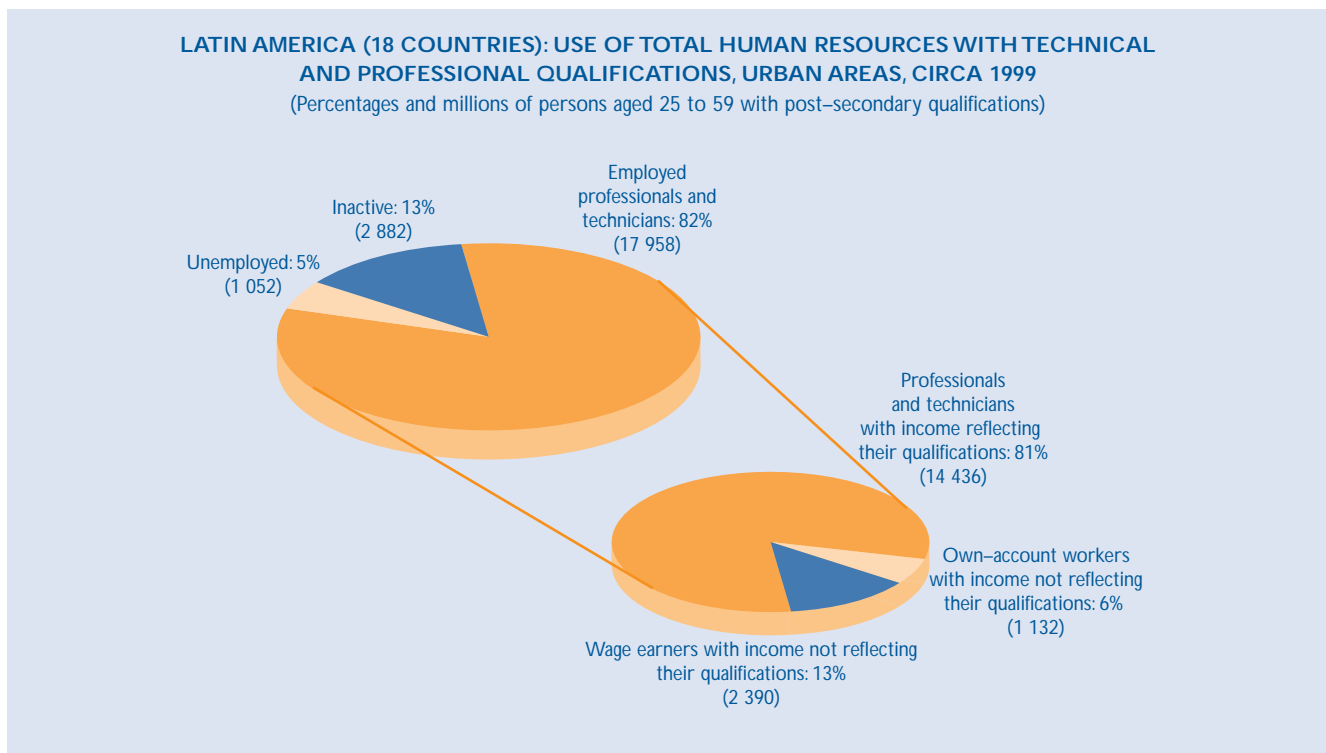
f/ Corresponds to Greater Buenos Aires in Argentina, Asunción and Departamento Central in Paraguay, the national total in Venezuela, and does not include Bolivia, Peru or Dominican Republic.

g/ Corresponds to totals for urban areas in Argentina, Bolivia and Paraguay and to the national total in Venezuela.

although the supply of professionals and technicians is expanding relatively quickly, the economies of the region have not generated enough jobs to absorb this expansion, even in periods of relatively rapid economic growth. Likewise, the high degree of under-utlization suggests that the systems of higher training and education should be made more flexible in order to adapt to changes in the demand for specialized human resources and thus meet the new needs of the productive systems and respond to the rapid rate of technological change and the demands arising from the incorporation into international trade flows.

As noted in the following chapter, it would appear that the educational systems of the region are not only incapable of keeping the population in school throughout the basic and secondary cycles (which would make it possible to secure more rapid growth of the population with post-secondary qualifications), but also display shortcomings in terms of the quality and appropriateness of the higher knowledge imparted, as well as lacking continuous training systems which prevent that knowledge from rapidly becoming obsolescent.¹⁸

Figure II.2



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

18 See CONOCER (2000).

Table II.9

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ESTIMATED DEGREE OF UTILIZATION OF TOTAL SUPPLY OF HUMAN RESOURCES WITH TECHNICAL AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS, URBAN AREAS, 1990–1999 (Thousands of persons) a/													
Country	Year	Population between 25 and 59 years of age with technical or professional qualifications											
		Total	Inactive	Unemployed	Activity status								
					Total	Type of situation						Total workers: remuneration commensurate with qualifications	Occupational category
						Total workers: remuneration not commensurate with qualifications b/	Wage earners: remuneration not commensurate with qualification	Own-account: remuneration not commensurate with qualifications	Total workers: remuneration commensurate with qualifications	Wage earners: remuneration commensurate with qualifications	Own-account: remuneration commensurate with qualifications		
Argentina c/	1990–1999	1 116.9 (313.5)	112.7 (13.4)	87.9 (73.1)	916.2 (227.1)	145.7 (-6.8)	118.9 (0.3)	26.9 (-7.1)	770.5 (233.9)	574.7 (232.1)	195.9 (1.8)		
Argentina	1999	2 062.6	273.4	137.3	1 651.9	342.4	274.5	67.9	1 309.5	958.2	351.3		
Bolivia	1999	481.9	78.4	15.8	387.7	86.2	48.1	38.1	301.5	236.5	64.9		
Brazil	1990–1999	5 847.6 1 580.5	721.7 (170.5)	231.1 (166.4)	4 894.8 1 243.6	772.1 (159.0)	483.7 (47.5)	288.4 (111.5)	4 122.7 1 084.6	2 993.4 (655.7)	1 129.3 (428.9)		
Chile	1990–2000	1 236.9 547.0	193.3 (93.4)	52.2 (27.7)	991.4 (426.0)	133.9 (65.4)	107.1 (50.4)	26.8 (15.0)	857.5 (360.6)	689.6 (282.8)	167.9 (77.8)		
Colombia	1991–1999	1 855.1 654.5	146.6 (5.1)	194.9 (135.6)	1 513.6 (513.7)	262.7 (125.3)	145.2 (43.3)	117.5 (82.0)	1 250.9 (388.4)	932.1 (278.6)	318.7 (109.9)		
Costa Rica	1990–1999	155.8 (59.0)	26.3 (7.5)	2.2 (0.1)	127.3 (51.4)	25.6 (7.1)	18.3 (4.5)	7.3 (2.6)	101.7 (44.3)	82.3 (32.9)	19.4 (11.4)		
Ecuador	1990–1999	735.4 (335.0)	77.4 (21.1)	54.9 (40.5)	603.1 (273.4)	195.8 (74.8)	135.8 (52.7)	60.0 (22.1)	407.3 (198.6)	291.3 (119.1)	116.0 (79.5)		
El Salvador	1995–1999	222.0 (78.2)	25.4 (7.6)	9.9 (5.7)	186.7 (65.0)	41.8 (22.1)	28.0 (14.5)	13.8 (7.6)	144.9 (42.9)	129.0 (42.0)	15.9 (0.9)		
Guatemala	1989–1998	136.9 (54.8)	14.6 (6.8)	1.1 (-0.2)	121.2 (48.2)	38.1 (6.8)	29.4 (2.0)	8.6 (4.8)	83.1 (41.4)	63.8 (33.0)	19.3 (8.4)		
Honduras	1990–1999	98.6 (49.2)	11.2 (1.0)	2.8 (0.7)	84.6 (47.5)	17.9 (8.6)	12.0 (5.8)	5.9 (2.8)	66.8 (38.9)	51.3 (27.2)	15.4 (11.7)		
Mexico	1989–2000	4 769.7 2 378.4	748.7 (448.8)	77.3 (41.4)	3 943.7 1 888.3	724.8 (-148.9)	564.8 (-201.1)	160.0 (52.1)	3 218.9 2 037.2	2 625.3 (1 680.5)	593.6 (356.7)		
Nicaragua	1993–1998	125.1 (64.3)	10.2 (1.6)	12.1 (4.7)	102.8 (58.0)	40.3 (27.1)	30.7 (20.8)	9.6 (6.3)	62.5 (30.9)	48.0 (22.3)	14.5 (8.6)		
Panama	1989–1999	179.7 (75.7)	19.2 (7.4)	11.5 (1.2)	149.0 (67.1)	31.4 (15.0)	24.6 (11.6)	6.8 (3.3)	117.6 (52.1)	107.3 (47.1)	10.3 (5.1)		
Paraguay d/	1990–1999	108.3 (47.7)	11.4 (4.1)	2.8 (0.8)	94.1 (42.8)	26.6 (17.5)	18.3 (9.9)	8.3 (7.6)	67.4 (25.3)	47.3 (19.1)	20.2 (6.2)		
Paraguay	1999	153.4	15.4	3.8	134.3	40.5	26.8	13.8	93.7	69.6	24.1		
Peru	1999	1 937.2	316.8	79.4	1 541.1	462.6	237.7	224.9	1 078.4	812.8	265.7		
Dominican Rep.	1997	217.3	19.3	24.0	174.0	30.9	22.9	8.0	143.1	106.9	36.2		
Uruguay	1990–1999	148.6 (19.0)	12.4 (0.4)	4.5 (0.2)	131.7 (18.5)	52.2 (-13.3)	41.1 (-12.6)	11.1 (-0.7)	79.5 (31.8)	58.6 (25.8)	20.9 (6.0)		
Venezuela e/	1990–1999	1 527.4 (630.5)	171.8 (5.0)	136.9 (96.7)	1 218.7 (528.8)	221.8 (39.8)	158.8 (-3.6)	63.1 (43.5)	996.9 (488.9)	737.5 (354.5)	259.4 (134.4)		
Total countries f/	1990–1999	18 263.9 6 887.5	2 302.9 (793.4)	882.2 (594.7)	15 078.8 5 499.4	2 730.7 (399.6)	1 916.6 (46.0)	814.2 (353.7)	12 348.1 5 099.8	9 431.5 3 852.8	2 916.6 1 247.0		
Total countries g/	1999	21 891.2	2 882.0	1 051.8	17 957.5	3 521.2	2 389.5	1 131.7	14 436.3	10 993.6	3 442.7		

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys of the respective countries and the population framework deriving from them.

a/ The figures in brackets indicate the difference in the number of employed persons between the final and initial years.

b/ Corresponds to wage earners or self-employed persons whose monthly income, when adjusted to a standard 48-hour week, is less than the income expected from working as wage earners without post-secondary qualifications. See box II.3.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

e/ National total.

f/ Corresponds to Greater Buenos Aires in Argentina, and Asunción and Departamento Central in Paraguay, the national total in Venezuela, and does not include Bolivia, Peru or Dominican Republic.

g/ Corresponds to totals for urban areas in Argentina, Bolivia and Paraguay and to the national total in Venezuela.

Table II.10

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): UNEMPLOYMENT RATES AMONG THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY LEVEL OF QUALIFICATIONS AND SEX, URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990 AND 1999 (Percentages)																
Country	Year	Total			Level of qualifications											
					No technical or professional qualifications			With technical or professional qualifications								
		Both sexes	Men	Women	Both sexes	Men	Women	Subtotal			With technical qualifications			With professional qualifications		
								Both sexes	Men	Women	Both sexes	Men	Women	Both sexes	Men	Women
Argentina <i>a/</i>	1990	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.9	4.7	5.2	2.1	2.6	1.5	2.8	2.7	3.0	1.3	2.5	0.0
	1999	11.9	10.2	14.3	12.9	10.8	16.4	8.8	7.7	9.7	10.4	9.1	11.5	7.0	6.4	7.7
Bolivia	1989 <i>b/</i>	6.8	6.8	6.9	7.2	7.2	7.2	5.6	5.7	5.5	6.1	7.3	4.7	4.9	4.1	7.6
	1999	4.7	4.0	5.7	5.1	4.0	6.4	3.9	4.0	3.8	4.7	4.5	4.9	2.8	3.4	1.8
Brazil	1990	3.2	3.6	2.5	3.4	3.8	2.6	1.7	1.5	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.4	1.1	2.1
	1999	8.3	6.6	10.5	8.8	7.0	11.3	4.5	3.5	5.5	5.4	4.3	6.3	2.8	2.3	3.5
Chile	1990	6.5	6.0	7.3	7.1	6.6	8.1	4.2	3.5	5.0	5.6	4.8	6.5	2.7	2.2	3.4
	2000	8.8	8.1	9.8	10.1	9.2	11.5	5.0	4.7	5.4	6.5	6.0	7.2	3.2	3.2	3.3
Colombia	1991	6.0	4.2	8.6	6.1	4.0	9.2	5.6	5.0	6.4	8.6	5.8	12.1	4.5	4.7	4.3
	1999	14.5	12.0	17.6	15.3	12.5	18.7	11.4	9.8	13.2	15.7	14.9	16.4	9.5	7.8	11.6
Costa Rica	1990	3.7	3.3	4.4	4.0	3.7	4.6	2.7	1.8	4.0	2.7	1.7	4.1	2.8	2.0	3.9
	1999	3.7	2.7	5.1	4.4	3.3	6.2	1.7	0.9	2.6	1.5	0.6	2.5	2.0	1.3	2.8
Ecuador	1990	4.0	2.2	7.0	3.9	2.1	7.1	4.2	2.6	6.6	5.5	4.5	6.7	3.2	1.4	6.6
	1999	10.4	6.9	15.3	11.2	7.3	16.8	8.3	5.9	11.5	11.1	8.5	13.9	6.3	4.3	9.2
El Salvador	1995	4.6	5.8	3.2	4.8	6.1	3.2	3.3	3.8	2.7	3.8	4.8	2.9	2.7	2.9	2.3
	1999	5.1	6.7	3.3	5.1	7.1	2.9	5.0	5.0	5.1	4.4	5.2	3.6	5.8	4.7	7.2
Guatemala	1989	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.2	2.1	2.4	1.7	1.4	2.2	2.6	2.5	2.9	0.8	0.5	1.4
	1998	2.1	2.5	1.5	2.2	2.9	1.4	0.9	0.4	1.7	1.5	0.6	2.8	0.3	0.2	0.5
Honduras	1990	5.4	6.2	4.2	5.4	6.4	3.9	5.3	4.1	7.4	6.4	5.7	7.4	4.8	3.5	7.4
	1999	3.7	4.4	2.8	3.7	4.7	2.6	3.2	2.7	4.1	2.5	2.4	2.6	3.5	2.8	4.8
Mexico	1989	1.5	1.6	1.1	1.4	1.6	1.0	1.7	1.8	1.3
	2000	1.5	1.9	1.0	1.4	1.9	0.6	1.9	1.7	2.3
Nicaragua	1993	13.0	15.9	9.1	12.8	15.3	9.6	14.1	20.8	4.3	19.1	25.0	10.0	11.6	18.5	1.4
	1998	11.2	12.2	9.9	11.3	12.4	9.9	10.5	10.9	10.1	10.5	10.8	10.3	10.5	11.1	9.9
Panama	1989	13.4	12.4	14.9	14.0	12.7	16.3	11.2	11.0	11.4	15.1	15.3	15.0	8.4	8.2	8.5
	1999	9.3	7.2	12.4	10.1	7.6	14.4	7.2	5.7	8.6	10.1	8.2	11.7	5.2	4.1	6.4
Paraguay <i>c/</i>	1990	3.1	3.5	2.5	2.9	3.5	2.1	3.7	3.4	4.1	3.7	2.7	4.5	3.8	3.8	3.8
	1999	6.9	5.9	8.2	7.8	6.6	9.5	2.9	2.7	3.1	1.4	0.7	2.1	4.4	4.4	4.4
Peru	1999	4.8	4.4	5.2	4.7	4.5	5.0	4.9	4.3	5.6	6.0	5.1	7.3	4.0	3.7	4.4
Dominican Rep.	1997	12.6	7.3	20.4	12.7	7.0	21.8	12.1	8.7	15.2	13.7	7.9	18.2	10.1	9.7	10.5
Uruguay	1990	5.5	3.9	7.6	5.8	4.0	8.3	3.7	2.4	4.7	3.4	2.3	4.0	4.2	2.5	6.3
	1999	7.7	5.1	10.9	8.6	5.5	12.5	3.3	2.1	4.2	3.8	2.4	4.7	2.5	1.8	3.3
Venezuela <i>d/</i>	1990	7.6	8.3	6.0	8.0	8.8	6.1	5.5	5.2	5.9	8.0	8.1	7.8	4.3	3.8	5.0
	1999	11.5	11.2	12.1	11.8	11.6	12.3	10.1	8.8	11.3	13.4	11.7	15.1	7.2	5.9	8.3
Total countries <i>e/</i>	1990	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.8	5.7	6.0	4.7	4.7	4.6	6.4	6.2	6.3	4.0	4.1	4.0
	1999	7.8	6.9	9.0	8.3	7.4	9.8	5.7	4.8	6.6	7.0	6.1	7.9	5.0	4.3	5.9
Total countries where unemployment increased <i>f/</i>	1990	5.0	4.6	5.4	5.2	4.9	5.8	3.8	3.3	4.3	4.8	4.2	5.5	3.1	2.8	3.7
	1999	9.5	8.1	11.3	10.2	8.6	12.4	6.6	5.6	7.7	8.0	7.0	9.0	5.4	4.5	6.5

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Eight capital cities and El Alto.

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

d/ National total.

e/ Corresponds to simple average of the countries. Does not include Bolivia, Peru and Dominican Republic. The disaggregated figures on the economically active population with technical or professional qualifications do not include Mexico.

f/ Includes Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela.



**Dropping out of school.
An obstacle to achievement
of the Millennium
Development Targets**

Dropping out of school . An obstacle to achievement of the Millennium Development Targets

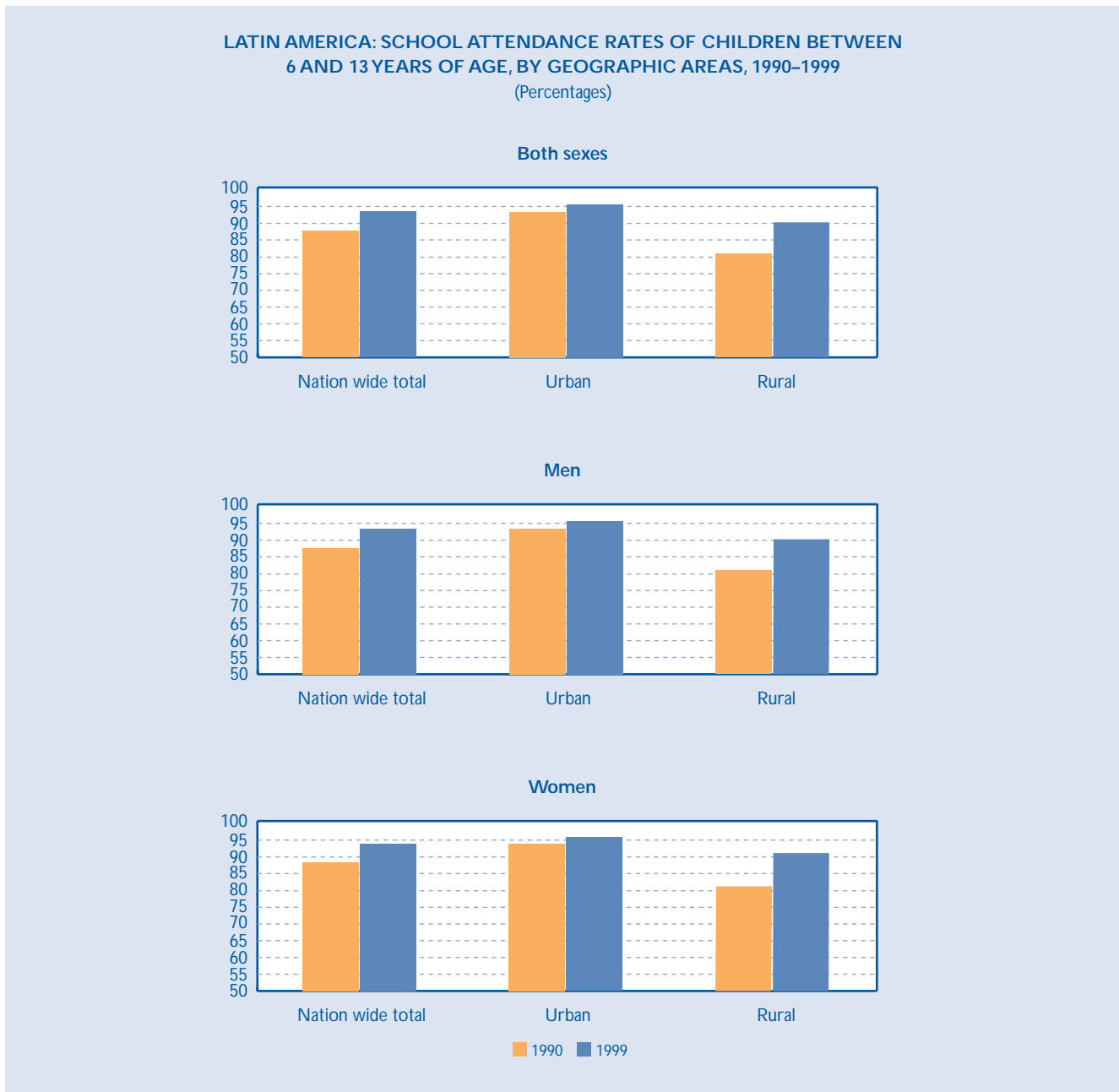
Today, at the dawn of the 21st century, nine out of every ten Latin American children have access to primary education. Despite this high coverage of the basic cycle and the expansion which has been registered in many countries in secondary cycle enrolment, there are still educational levels in the region which are very low, both by world standards and by the demands imposed by the globalization process. While progress was made in the last decade towards universal access to primary education and greater retention of children and adolescents in school, Latin America still has very high rates of early school drop-out. One of the main challenges for making decisive progress towards achievement of the Millennium Development Targets for the year 2015 is therefore to prevent children from dropping out of school before completing the basic cycle and to significantly reduce drop-out in the secondary cycle.

Progress was made in most of the Latin American countries in the last decade in terms of access to primary education and, to a lesser extent, in the coverage of secondary education. As reported in the document *Globalization and Development* (ECLAC, 2002b), during the 1990s rates of attendance in primary education rose to over 90% in the great majority of the countries of the region. Rates of attendance in secondary education also rose, but only averaged around 70% towards the end of the decade. This progress made it possible to reduce urban–rural disparities in access to education, and furthermore today there are almost no disparities in access between males and females in the region (see figure III.1).

Nevertheless, there are still serious shortcomings and lags in educational matters. Thus, notwithstanding the progress made towards universal basic education –especially in urban areas– a very high proportion of children and adolescents still leave the school system very early, without reaching the minimum levels of knowledge and skills needed to integrate into society and thus also failing to receive the right to basic education laid down in the relevant international instruments.

In addition to the relatively low coverage of enrolment in secondary education there is the fact that a high percentage of the adolescents who move on from the basic to the secondary cycle drop out before

Figure III.1



Source: Based on figures from table 10.1 of ECLAC, *Globalization and Development* (LC/G.2157(SES.29/3)), document prepared for the twenty-ninth session of ECLAC (Brasília, Brazil, 6–10 April 2002), Santiago, Chile, 2002.

completing the latter, thus failing to obtain the minimum educational capital needed to enter the labour market with a high possibility of keeping out of poverty throughout their working life. Insufficient coverage of preschool education, with a high level of access to the basic cycle but little capacity for retaining students in the primary and secondary cycles, is a distinctive feature shared to a greater or lesser ex-

tent by all the educational systems of the region. Repetition of grades and scholastic lag –which are very often forerunners of dropping out of school altogether–, together with a low level of learning of the basic contents of the education provided, are also typical characteristics of the Latin American educational systems (PREAL, 2001).

These shortcomings significantly limit the possibility of taking full advantage of children's potential from an early age, and their negative effects build up throughout the school cycle and have a very unequal incidence on their opportunities for well-being, depending on their place of residence (urban or rural) and especially the socio-economic level of their family background. This latter aspect is reflected not only in differences in income, and hence in unequal possibilities of gaining access to public or private educational systems and educational circuits of very different quality, but also in disparities as regards the educational climate of the home (the educational level of the parents), which has an influence on the educational achievements of children and adolescents that is just as strong as, or even stronger than, the economic resources of the family. There is thus a tendency towards the reproduction of inequality of opportunities from one generation to the next, so that factors of an ascriptive nature determine or decisively influence the achievements during the various stages of school life. As noted in previous editions of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*, this is possibly the greatest obstacle that the educational systems of the region must overcome in order to play their role of promoting equal opportunities and social inclusion more fully and effectively.¹

This chapter aims to do the following:

- i) To provide estimates of the magnitude of school drop-out in the Latin American countries and the changes which took place in this respect in the 1990s, through a methodology based on information from household censuses, which makes it possible to supplement and follow up over time

the scanty and often poorly comparable data on the phenomenon of school drop-out, which is one of the main dimensions of the (in)efficiency of the educational systems of the region.

- ii) To identify the differences in total drop-out rates between countries and between urban and rural areas, as well as the relative magnitude of school desertion in the different stages of the formal educational cycle: early drop-out, drop-out at the end of the primary cycle, and drop-out during the secondary cycle.
- iii) To determine the weight of some factors which are determinants of school drop-out or are associated with it. In view of both the limitations and possibilities of household surveys,² special emphasis is placed on changes in the school drop-out risk associated with students' socioeconomic origin, their urban or rural residence, the educational level of their mothers and different forms of family structure. Reference is also made to the differences between males and females in terms of early entry into the labour market.
- iv) To evaluate the size of the loss of labour income caused by school drop-out, on the basis of the estimated extra income provided by additional years of schooling in the urban labour markets. Special reference is also made to the potential of programmes that seek to improve the indices of retention in school by offering monetary transfers and subsidies to low-income families (the "Bolsa Escola" programme in Brazil and the educational component of the Education, Health and Food Programme (Progres) in Mexico).

1 See ECLAC (1998, chap.V) and UNDP (2001, chap. IV).

2 Because of the nature of the information collected, household surveys usually only permit the study of the repercussions of factors or determinants of school drop-out risk which are of a "macrosocial" type, not those which refer typically to processes or chains of circumstances that lead to the abandonment of schooling and are rather of a "microsocial" nature and have to do mainly with conditions and characteristics within the school itself. The analysis of this latter type of factors calls for longitudinal (panel) type data which allow students to be followed up during the entire school cycle.

A. School drop-out: a proposal for analysing the educational situation of Latin American adolescents

Rather than shortcomings in coverage or access to education, the problem of the educational systems of the region is their insufficient capacity to keep children and adolescents in school. It would be a mistake to think that the trend towards universal basic education in the Latin American countries –reflected in high gross and net rates of primary school enrolment– means that the great majority of boys and girls actually complete this cycle and that the lags in educational matters are due mainly to the low quality of the content of the education and its inappropriateness to the needs of the world of work. Although these problems are indeed serious and are present in all the countries of the region, they are additional to the more fundamental problem of the insufficient capacity to keep children and adolescents in school, especially during the primary cycle and the transition to the secondary cycle and also, in many cases, in the first two grades of primary school. The clearest reflection of this problem is the high rates of school drop-out recorded in the great majority of the countries, which result in a small number of years of schooling completed: far below the full cycle of secondary education which is considered to be the minimum educational capital needed to obtain urban jobs that will give a high possibility of keeping the worker in question out of poverty.³ This is why it is important to have a regional picture of the magnitude and tendencies of school drop-out and of some of the main factors associated with the capacity of families and educational systems to keep children and adolescents in school until they have completed the secondary cycle.

The inequalities in the educational capital that children from homes in different socioeconomic strata manage to accumulate grow throughout the

school cycle. The differences in opportunities of access to preschool education (which is a strong determinant of children's performance in the early years of primary education) affect subsequent repetition and lagging behind, which, in turn, are closely related to school drop-out during basic education. In the majority of Latin American countries, the differences in educational capital between young people from different social strata begin to take shape at an early age and are associated with the rates of dropping out of school during the basic cycle rather than with problems of access.

However, the scarcity of reliable and timely information on the extent and characteristics of school drop-out in the region makes it difficult to effect comparative analyses between countries and compare their recent trends in this respect. The importance of this phenomenon thus clearly points to the need to develop measurement methods and approaches to this problem based on primary data sources –household surveys– whose periodical execution would make it possible to follow up the successes and failures in this field.

Details are given below (based on data from household surveys) on the magnitude of school drop-out before completion of the secondary cycle in 18 Latin American countries, and the changes which took place in this respect between the early and late 1990s. In order to analyse school drop-out in the primary and secondary cycles, a classification was prepared which describes the school situation of adolescents between 15 and 19 years of age and, on its basis, a set of drop-out indicators was established for different points during the two cycles (see box III.1).

³ See ECLAC (1994). In some countries of the region which have attained higher average levels of education of the economically active population, completion of secondary education is no longer sufficient to ensure access to urban jobs with incomes high enough to keep the worker out of poverty throughout his working life. At least in the cases of Argentina and Chile, along with the tendency towards mass enrolment in secondary education there has also been a trend towards higher minimum educational requirements, which now stand at over 12 years' schooling.

This age group is very suitable for analysing the phenomenon because it includes adolescents who are in a critical period of transition: they have had to make the move from the primary to the secondary cycle (a stage in which drop-out tends to be higher), they

have reached the age when they can legally take up paid employment, or they have already been exposed to circumstances which are an incentive to abandon school, such as early pregnancy or a serious lag in their grades.

Box III.1

SCHOOL DROP-OUT: METHODOLOGY FOR ITS ESTIMATION ON THE BASIS OF HOUSEHOLD SURVEYS

1. Procedures for calculating rates of school drop-out

In the specialized literature, three types of procedures are described for studying the phenomenon of withdrawal from the formal school system, each associated with a particular type of indicator: a/

- i) calculation of the **annual events of drop-out**, which makes it possible to measure the proportion of students leaving school each year before completing the corresponding programme of studies and which provides relevant information on recent drop-out;
- ii) calculation of the **drop-out status of a given age-group**, which covers the cumulative process of drop-out of all the young people in that group. The rates of drop-out associated with this type of measurement are generally much higher than in the case of the first type of indicator, since they include all cases of drop-out, regardless of when they occurred. As well as indicating the extent of the problem in the reference population, this method makes it possible to estimate future education and training needs in order to give the drop-outs a better place in the labour force;
- iii) calculation of **drop-out within cohorts**, which makes it possible to analyse the cases of drop-out within a specific cohort of students over a period of time, through successive measurements. These studies of a longitudinal nature (panel surveys) are naturally much more rewarding in terms of the depth and scope of the information they provide, and they make it possible to analyse the nature of drop-out processes, in which the event of school abandonment is the culmination.

The nature and quality of the information available (administrative records) and the difficulty of using certain instruments (use of costly cross-sectional or longitudinal surveys) make drop-out one of the indicators of school system efficiency which is most difficult to collect, follow-up and compare. It is therefore not surprising that there are no systematic comparable data for the region which enable this phenomenon to be studied through the different stages of school life.

2. Estimates based on household surveys (cross-sectional surveys) and the classification of drop-outs

Going deeper into the implications of the Millennium Targets for education proposed at the Millennium Assembly, ECLAC has tried to measure the magnitude of school drop-out in a group of 18 Latin American countries, on the basis of information from the household surveys periodically effected in them. In view of the nature of the information provided by these surveys, the methodology which could be applied corresponds to the second type of calculation procedure: i.e., that which makes it possible to estimate the cumulative extent of drop-out among young people between 15 and 19 years of age at the time of each survey.

This age group was chosen for several reasons: (i) in most of the surveys the measurements on participation in the labour market –a phenomenon which is associated with school drop-out– begin with age 15; (ii) the great majority of these young people are at ages when they ought to be studying in the formal school system (this depends on the characteristics of the educational cycle of the country in question); and (iii) as a result of the foregoing, this is a cohort which covers ages when young people are going through critical processes of transition which may culminate in drop-out, and this means that there is still time to intervene with programmes of reincorporation into school and supplementary training.

A general classification by educational situation was prepared for this group, on the basis of information from household surveys on the number of years of schooling completed, whether the person in question was currently attending school, and his or her age. In order to adapt the classification to each of the countries studied, information was obtained from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) on the specific characteristics of the country's

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educational system as regards official age of entry into primary education and the duration of the primary and secondary cycles (see box III.6 at the end of this chapter).

The classification consists of nine types of educational situations for the selected group. The first five of these cover young people who were not attending an educational establishment when interviewed:

- a) **Young people who never went to school**, that is to say, those who had not completed a single year's schooling at the time of the survey and were not currently attending any educational establishment. However, this class does not make it possible to distinguish between those who had never entered the educational system and those who had dropped out in the first year of primary education (the event of drop-out during the first grade of primary education).
- b) **Young people who dropped out of the educational system at an early stage**: those who had not completed the primary cycle of their country and were not currently attending an educational establishment. It should be borne in mind that as no information is available on when they actually entered the educational system and when they left it, this category includes not only those who entered the system at the official age and dropped out while they were still children and those who entered later than they should have done (out-of-age students) and then dropped out.
- c) **Young people who dropped out at the end of the primary cycle**: this covers both young people who did not enter the secondary cycle after completing their primary education and those who entered the first year of the secondary cycle but then dropped out without completing it (some studies suggest that these young people represent a significant proportion of the whole).
- d) **Young people who dropped out early in the secondary cycle**: this group includes those who completed at least the first year of secondary studies but then dropped out with three or more years to go. Unfortunately, the household surveys do not make it possible to include those who entered the first year but then dropped out without completing it (see category (c)).
- e) **Young people who dropped out towards the end of the secondary cycle**: this covers young people who had dropped out of the educational system at the time of the survey but only needed one or two years to complete the secondary cycle.

On the basis of these first five categories of the classification, the following drop-out rates were defined, excluding in all cases adolescents who had never entered the formal educational system (category (a)):

Global drop-out rate:	$(b) + (c) + (d) + (e) / ((\text{Total number of young people between 15 and 19}) - (a)) \times 100$
Early drop-out rate:	$(b) / ((\text{Total aged 15-19}) - (a)) \times 100$
Drop-out rate at end of primary cycle:	$(c) / ((\text{Total aged 15-19}) - (a) - (b)) \times 100$
Drop-out rate at the end of secondary cycle:	$((d) + (e)) / [(\text{Total aged 15-19}) - (a) - (b) - (c)] \times 100$

The following four types of classifications correspond to young people who were still studying at the time of the survey. In view of the way persons' ages are inquired in household surveys, and taking account of the special features of the educational systems of each country, it was decided to apply a one-year lag with respect to the official age of enrolment or entry into the primary cycle of each country. This is because of the impossibility of detecting the repetition of a year as distinct from the late enrolment of children reaching the compulsory age of entry after the middle of the school year (late enrolment). Furthermore, the data provided by the household surveys do not make it possible situations of temporary school drop-out (dropping out and returning after the normal age).

- f) **Students lagging seriously behind the normal grade age**: young people between 15 and 19 who are three or more years behind the normal grade age (i.e., students with two years of repetition, late entry or temporary drop-out and one year of possible lag due to late enrolment) but are currently attending a formal educational establishment.
- g) **Students who are behind the normal grade age**: those who are two years behind the normal age but are still studying (two years of repetition without late enrolment, or one year of repetition plus late enrolment).
- h) **Students who are up to date in their studies**: young people who are still studying and are up to date in terms of their grade age, subject to a possible lag due to late enrolment. For example, if the official age of entry into the primary cycle is 6, then a young person of 15 should have 9 years' schooling. If the possibility of a lag due to late enrolment is taken into account, this category also includes students with 8 years' schooling.

SCHOOL DESERTION: METHODOLOGY FOR ITS ESTIMATION ON THE BASIS OF HOUSEHOLD SURVEYS

- i) **Graduates:** young people who, regardless of whether they say they are still studying or not, say they have completed the secondary cycle.

As the length of the primary and secondary cycles varies from one country to another, and in some cases there have been changes in this respect during the 1980s or 1990s, it has been necessary to make some exceptions and adaptations in the classification:

- in countries where the secondary cycle only lasts three years, children who drop out at the beginning of the secondary cycle (category (d)) are included among those who dropped out at the end of this cycle (category (e));
- in Paraguay, which made a change in its educational system in 1994 by bringing forward the age of entry into primary education, this did not affect the age group studied, so that the old system was followed (with official entry at the age of 7);
- in the Dominican Republic, the 15–19 age group studied was affected by the extension of the duration of the primary cycle in 1987 (from 6 to 8 years, while the secondary cycle was shortened from 6 to 4 years). Although the oldest students (those aged 19 in 1997) were at that time already in the second grade of the primary cycle they were considered to be subject to the reform, so that they had to complete an 8-year primary cycle (moreover, in 1996 the official entry age was brought forward from 7 to 6 years of age, although this naturally did not affect the group in question);
- in Venezuela, since information was available for both 1990 and 1999, in the first period the system in force up to 1985 was applied (entry at 7, 9-year primary cycle and 3-year secondary cycle), while in the second period the system in force as from 1986 was applied (entry at 6, 9-year primary cycle and 2-year secondary cycle). In the latter case it was necessary to change the criterion for category (e), limiting it to those who only needed one year to complete the secondary cycle and putting the remaining cases (students who drop out at the end of the primary cycle) in category (c).

Source: Prepared by the authors.

a/ In the literature in English, the drop-out rates associated with each of these three types are called event rates, status rates and cohort rates, respectively (see McMillen, 1997, pp. 97–473).

The selected group includes both adolescents and young people who should have completed their primary education (even if they entered or completed it late) and those who should have completed their secondary education. The classification and the respective indicators try to capture the different educational situations of the adolescents of each of the ages comprised in the group, from that which represents the worst situation (not having entered the primary cycle at all) to that which reflects the most desirable one (completion of the secondary cycle without any lag).

Before analysing the magnitude and evolution of school drop-out, it is worth emphasizing the utility of the classification based on the educational status of adolescents between 15 and 19 for studying the phenomenon in question. Table III.1 illustrates the

pronounced differences in the educational profiles of adolescents from countries which have made different degrees of progress in education, as well as the differences between urban and rural areas. The same table also shows school drop-out indicators calculated on the basis of information from the 1999–2000 household surveys. The global drop-out rate⁴ includes three situations: early drop-out (which refers to adolescents who entered the primary cycle but dropped out before completing it);⁵ drop-out on completion of the primary cycle (those who dropped out of school after completing the primary cycle or during the first year of the secondary cycle); and drop-out during the secondary cycle (those who dropped out during their secondary education, without completing it), which in most of the countries means that the students completed 12 years' schooling.⁶

4 The measurements of school drop-out based on the administrative records of the countries of the region refer in most cases to drop-out in the fifth grade of the primary cycle and correspond to cohort rates. In many cases the rates reported are not sufficiently up to date and only refer to national averages, without any kind of breakdown, thus making it impossible to examine factors which are determinants or concomitant elements in early school drop-out. Figures based on this type of indicator may be found in UNESCO/OREALC (2001).

5 In most of the countries it includes adolescents who have completed five or less years' schooling.

6 In 11 of the 18 Latin American countries covered by this study, completion of the secondary cycle means completing 12 years' schooling. In Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua, Peru and Venezuela it means completing 11 years (see box III.6).

Table III.1

LATIN AMERICA (COUNTRY GROUPS) <i>a/</i> : CLASSIFICATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE BETWEEN 15 AND 19 BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS, <i>b/</i> BY AREAS, AROUND 1999 (Percentages) <i>c/</i>				
Educational status	Urban areas		Rural areas	
	Argentina, Chile and Panama	El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua	Brazil, Colombia and Peru	Bolivia, Honduras and Mexico
(1) Young people who never entered the educational system	0.4	4.5	4.2	5.8
(2) Early dropouts (during the primary cycle)	2.8	15.8	21.2	28.0
(3) Dropouts on completion of primary cycle	7.9	9.5	12.0	20.3
(4) Subtotal, dropouts in primary cycle (2 + 3)	10.7	25.3	33.2	49.2
(5) Dropouts early in secondary cycle	7.2	5.5	5.1	9.7
(6) Dropouts late in secondary cycle	2.8	2.3	2.1	2.2
(7) Subtotal, dropouts in secondary cycle (5 + 6)	9.9	7.8	7.2	14.1
(8) Total drop-outs (2 + 3 + 5 + 6)	20.6	33.1	40.4	63.3
(9) Students with serious scholastic lag	8.6	11.0	26.8	10.3
(10) Students with scholastic lag	10.9	8.3	8.4	6.4
(11) Subtotal, students with scholastic lag (9 + 10)	19.5	19.3	35.2	14.2
(12) Student up to date in their studies	42.4	31.6	13.6	13.6
(13) Graduates of secondary cycle	17.0	11.4	6.6	3.6
(14) Total, students and graduates (11 + 12 + 13)	78.9	62.4	55.4	31.0
(15) Total young people between 15 and 19 (1 + 8 + 14)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Early drop-out rate [(2) / [(15) - (1)]] * 100	2.8	16.6	22.1	29.7
Drop-out rate at end of primary cycle [(3) / [(15) - (1) - (2)]] * 100	8.2	11.9	16.1	30.7
Drop-out rate in secondary cycle [(7) / [(15) - (1) - (4)]] * 100	11.2	11.1	11.5	31.2
Global drop-out rate [(8) / [(15) - (1)]] * 100	20.7	34.7	42.1	67.1

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

a/ The country groups (only 12 in total out of the 18 countries for which information is available) were chosen in order to illustrate the capacity of the indicators to capture the differences in the magnitude of school drop-out both between countries and between urban and rural areas, for the different stages of the educational cycle.

b/ The classification of the educational status of young people is adapted to the special characteristics of the educational system of each country (see box III.1 for details of the classification and box III.5 for the relevant characteristics of the educational systems in this respect).

c/ Based on simple averages of the percentage distributions for the different country groups.

The relative differences in the educational status of adolescents in the four groups of countries selected for purposes of illustration are notable. In the urban areas of Argentina, Chile and Panama, the global drop-out rate during the primary and secondary cycles amounts to one in every five adolescents, rising to one in three in the urban areas of El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua. In rural areas, not only is the school drop-out rate considerably higher than in

urban areas, but there are also greater differences among the countries. Thus, in Brazil, Colombia and Peru two out of every five adolescents between 15 and 19 drop out of school before completing their secondary education, but in Bolivia, Honduras and Mexico the figure rises to two out of every three, and in both groups of countries around 80% of total school drop-out takes place during or on completion of the primary cycle.

The higher private and social costs (in terms of future loss of income in the labour market) due to early school drop-out (defined as drop-out before completing the number of years' schooling provided for in the primary cycle of each country),⁷ highlight the need to concentrate efforts in terms of retention of children in school on the early years of that cycle. In this respect, it is important to evaluate the capacity of the proposed educational status indicators to capture the differences in the level of school drop-out in the various stages of the educational cycle which exist between countries and between urban and rural areas. As shown in table III.1, these differences are also very pronounced, with the rate of early school drop-out ranging from an average of

2.8% in urban areas of Argentina, Chile and Panama to 16.6% in El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua, 22.1% in rural areas of Brazil, Colombia and Peru, and 29.7% in rural Bolivia, Honduras and Mexico. It is therefore hardly surprising that the two largest programmes in the region aimed at improving retention in school have concentrated their efforts and resources initially on keeping children in school at least until the end of the primary cycle (the Bolsa Escola programme in Brazil) and on prolonging education sufficiently to ensure that adolescents from low-income families in rural areas complete at least the first secondary cycle or ninth grade (the Progresá programme in Mexico) (see boxes III.2 and III.3).

Box III.2

THE EDUCATIONAL COMPONENT OF THE PROGRESA PROGRAMME IN MEXICO: MAIN CONCLUSIONS OF EVALUATION STUDIES

The Education, Health and Food Programme (Progresá), which was begun in 1997 and is coordinated by the Ministry of Social Development, is the main Mexican social programme for the development of human capital in the poorer strata. Its benefits are concentrated directly on families in a state of extreme poverty in rural areas. It is designed to relieve poverty situations through the provision of benefits in money and in kind and to reduce future levels of poverty through investments in education, health and nutrition in order to interrupt the mechanisms responsible for the intergenerational transmission of this scourge. The integrated nature of the programme reflects the conviction that simultaneous actions in the main dimensions of human capital will redound in greater social benefits or returns than those obtained by applying them separately.

Like the Bolsa Escola programme in Brazil, Progresá gives its benefits exclusively to mothers, as it recognizes their greater potential for using the resources efficiently and effectively and applying them to the immediate needs of the family. It makes the provision of benefits conditional on the level of income of the selected households in poor rural areas, on regular, proven school attendance by the children (an attendance record of not less than 85%), and on periodic visits to health centres to control the health of mothers and children. The families in the programme which fulfill these requirements receive benefits for three years; at the end of that time they can apply for readmission, subject to a new appraisal of their socio-economic situation.

The educational component of Progresá gives monetary subsidies to children under 18 who regularly attend school between the third grade of primary education and the third grade of the secondary cycle. In this way it tries to prevent school drop-out at critical moments: during or at the end of the primary cycle and in the first years of the secondary cycle. The amount of the subsidies is readjusted every six months in line with inflation, but unlike the Bolsa Escola the subsidies for keeping students in school are variable: they increase as children and adolescents progress in the educational system, in order to offset the growing opportunity cost represented for poor families by the fact of keeping their children in school instead of sending them out to work in order to contribute to the family income.

The transfers or scholarships for children studying in the first cycle of secondary education are about 15% higher for girls, with the aim of avoiding the tendency of girls to leave school earlier than boys. In the second half of 2000, for example, the subsidies were between 90 pesos (around nine dollars) per month for children in the third grade of the primary cycle, to a maximum of 335 pesos (34 dollars) per month for girls studying in the third grade of the secondary cycle. Progresá also gives subsidies for school materials twice a year: in the year 2000 these amounted to 180 pesos (18 dollars) for primary school students and 225 pesos (23 dollars) for those attending secondary school. In its first year the programme served around 400 000 households, but by 2001 this figure had risen to nearly 2.5 million households.

The evaluations which have been made of the effects of the different components of Progresá indicate that it has been a success, particularly as regards its educational component.^{a/}

⁷ It should be recalled that the main educational target for the year 2015 laid down in the Millennium Development Targets involves the achievement of universal complete primary education.

**THE EDUCATIONAL COMPONENT OF THE PROGRESA PROGRAMME IN MEXICO:
MAIN CONCLUSIONS OF EVALUATION STUDIES**

As in other countries of the region, primary school enrolment in Mexico is high (close to 93%), but at the end of this cycle (which lasts six years) there is massive drop-out by students from low-income households. Between the end of the primary cycle and the first year of the secondary cycle, the rate of enrolment goes down to around 55%. The second critical point is at the end of third grade in the secondary cycle, when enrolment drops to only 58% of those who could continue their studies for the next three years and thus complete 12 years' schooling. The central objective of the educational component of the Progresá programme is therefore to keep children in school until they complete their primary education and significantly increase the percentage of poor young people from rural areas who complete the basic part of secondary education (grades 7, 8 and 9).^{b/} The main results of some evaluation studies of the effect of Progresá on retention of children in school and other indicators of educational progress are given below.^{c/}

1. **Increased enrolment.** The evaluations conclude that Progresá has had positive effects on the enrolment of boys and girls. These effects are greater in the secondary cycle (grades 7 to 9), than in the primary cycle (grades 3, 4, 5 and 6), and are also greater among girls than among boys. Thus, for example, the proportional increase in school attendance in the first three grades of the secondary cycle (which was previously 67% for girls and 73% for boys) was between 7.2 and 9.3 percentage points for girls (representing an increase of between 11% and 14%). In the case of boys, the increases (before and after the programme) were between 3.5 and 5.8 percentage points, representing increases of between 5% and 8% in enrolment. These are substantial achievements considering the short time in which they took place (two years) and the high initial rates of school attendance, especially in primary education.
2. **Better rates of retention in school in the transition to the first year of the secondary cycle.** The greatest effects of the programme, in terms of retention in school, were achieved in the critical period of transition from the last primary grade to the first secondary one. Retention is estimated to have increased by 14.8 percentage points among girls and 6.5 points among boys, which represent increases of 20% and 10%, respectively, over the rates prevailing before the introduction of the programme. A larger proportion of girls are now entering and staying in the secondary cycle in poor rural areas of Mexico, thus reducing gender inequalities in this respect.
3. **Higher average years of schooling and future income in the labour market.** Another evaluation study ^{d/} concludes that if the increases in enrolment rates up to ninth grade are maintained over time, children of both sexes would increase their average years of schooling by 0.66 years: an increase of more than 10% over the average of 6.2 years registered by young people of 18 before the initiation of the programme. Using the present urban wages to evaluate the private gains which will be obtained in the future by the beneficiaries of Progresá thanks to their greater education, it was estimated that they will earn 8% more income during their working life, so that the internal rate of return of the educational benefits of the programme (taking account of the cost of the subsidies) is of the order of 8% per year.
4. **Reduction of child labour.** The evaluations made on this crucial aspect indicate that programmes like Progresá offer considerable potential for combating child labour. The application of double difference models (before and after the application of the programme) gave reductions of between 15% and 25% in the probability that children would take part in (paid or unpaid) economic activities. The lower incidence of child labour due to the programme would explain 82% of the increase in school attendance (measured in November 1998) and 65% of that measured in November 1999.
5. **Progresá seems to have had a greater positive effect on enrolment than on regular school attendance.** An aspect of the programme which causes some concern and calls for greater research is that the evaluation based on a panel sample of children between 6 and 16 years of age (receiving benefits from the programme or not) indicated that the rates of school attendance in 1998–1999 were greater in rural localities further away from big cities, and that Progresá had more effect on rates of enrolment than on rates of school attendance, which are what the programme seeks to improve. It may be conjectured that the lower school attendance of beneficiary children living close to large urban centres is due to the greater opportunities and incentives for obtaining paid employment, which would appear to indicate the need to adjust the benefits provided by the programme (i.e., higher subsidies in inverse relation to the distance from urban centres), so as to correct them for the higher opportunity cost for poor families of sending their children to school when they live in rural areas close to major urban centres.

Early in 2002 the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) approved a loan of US\$ 1 billion to expand and consolidate the Progresá programme. These resources will back up a six-year multi-phase project with an estimated cost of US\$ 4.8 billion, whose main purpose is to extend the coverage of Progresá to indigent families in urban areas. The counterpart funds for this new phase in the execution of the programme amount to US\$ 1.4 billion, aimed among other things at extending school support to students in the second cycle of secondary education (grades 10, 11 and 12).

a/ Fernando Medina, "La política social de México 1995–2000: evaluación de resultados; versión preliminar", *Seminario de Alto Nivel sobre las Funciones Básicas de la Planificación: compendio de experiencias exitosas*, Seminarios y conferencias series, No. 8 (LC/L.1544–P; LC/IP/L.189), Edgar Ortégón (coord.), Santiago, Chile. Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), May 2001. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.01.II.G.85.

b/ See Skoufia and McClafferty (2001). This and other studies evaluating different aspects of this programme form part of the activities of the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) (www.ifpri.org/themes/progresá.htm).

c/ A description of the methodological and empirical procedures behind these evaluations may be found in the bibliographical references given on the internet site mentioned.

d/ See Schultz (2000).

B. School drop-out in Latin America and its evolution over the last decade

On average, close to 37% of Latin American adolescents between 15 and 19 years of age drop out of school at some point in the school cycle, and almost half of those who drop out do so at an early stage, before completing their primary education. In a number of countries, however, most of the drop-out takes place after that cycle has been completed, often during the first year of secondary education. To a greater or lesser extent, all the countries of the region display shortcomings in their capacity to keep children in school, although almost all of them made progress in this respect during the last decade, especially in the form of a substantial reduction in early drop-out from school. School drop-out displays pronounced differences between countries, but in all of them it is much more frequent in rural areas. In the group of countries which have attained relatively higher levels of education, the global drop out rate in urban areas is between 16% and 25%; in another group school drop-out is around 37%, while in a small number of countries with a lower level of primary educational coverage between 40% and 50% of adolescents drop out of school. In rural areas, global drop-out rates range from nearly 30% to over 70% of all the children who enter the school system, with most of the drop-out taking place during the primary cycle.

1. How serious is school drop-out in the Latin American countries, and how has it evolved over the last decade?

Around 2000, considerable differences were to be observed in school drop-out before completion of secondary education in the urban areas of 18 Latin American countries. Thus, the global drop-out rate among adolescents between 15 and

19 was less than 20% in Bolivia, Chile, Peru and the Dominican Republic, while in Argentina, Brazil, Colombia and Panama it was between 20% and 25%. In eight countries (Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela) school drop-out affected between 25% and 35% of adolescents, while in Honduras and Guatemala the urban school drop-out rate was 40% and 47% respectively (see figure III.2 and table III.2).

At the end of the last decade, the gulf between urban and rural areas in terms of school drop-out was enormous. The information available for 13 of the total of 18 countries studied shows that in ten of

them the global rate of drop-out in rural areas was at least 20 percentage points higher than the urban rate, and in five countries it was 30 or more percentage points higher. Only in Brazil and the

Figure III.2

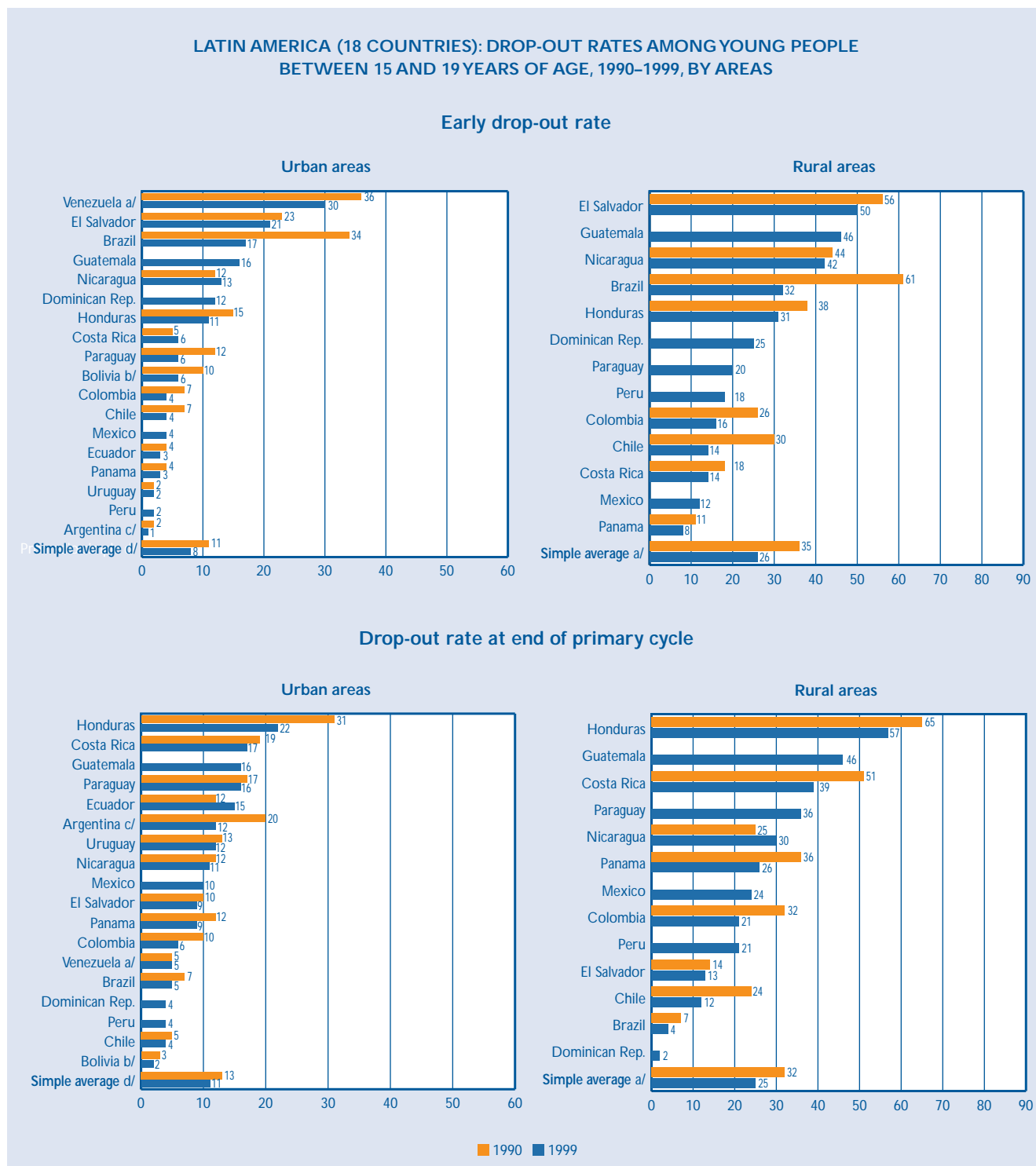
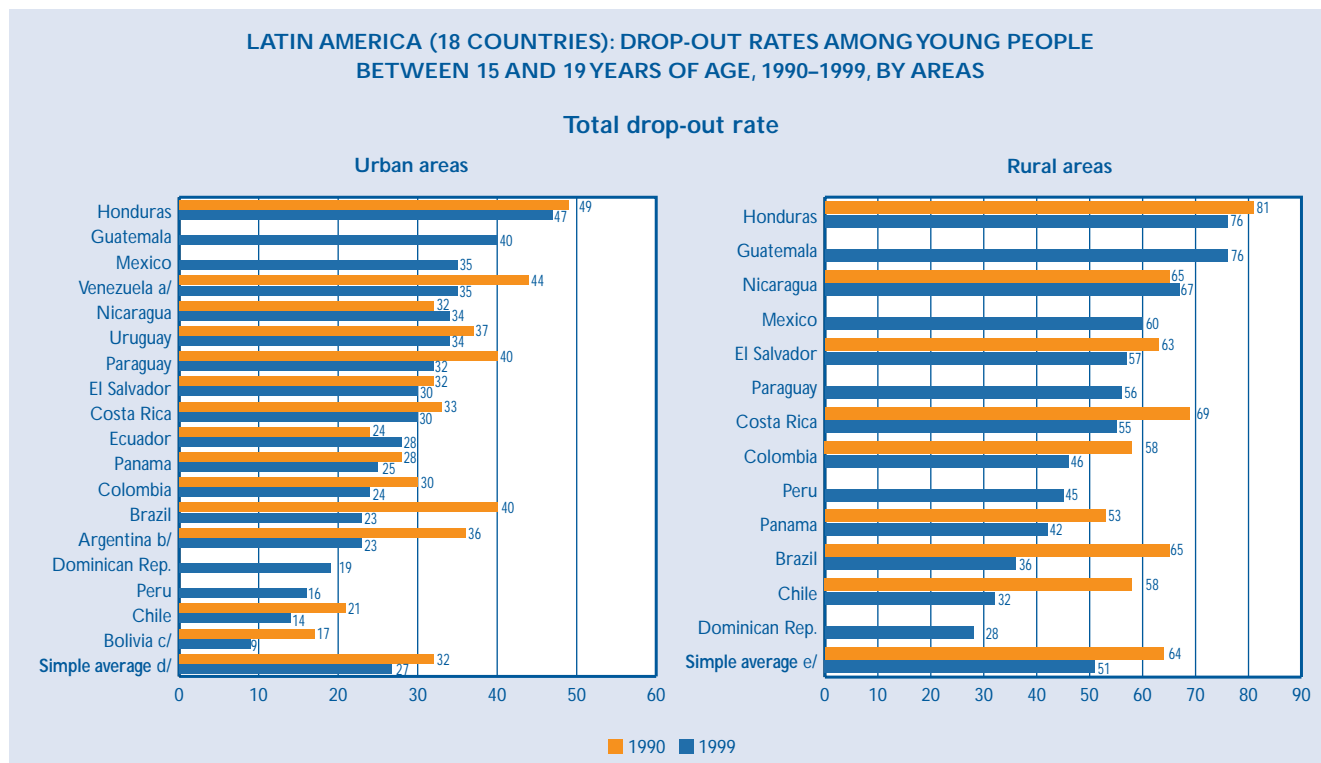


Figure III.2 (Concluded)



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

a/ National total.

b/ Greater Buenos Aires.

c/ Eight capitals of departments, plus El Alto.

d/ Includes Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay.

e/ Includes Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama.

Dominican Republic, and to a lesser extent in Chile and Panama, were the differences smaller, but even so they were disturbingly high.

2. In what stages of the educational cycle does school drop-out currently tend to be concentrated in the Latin American countries?

Studying the stage in which school drop-out is concentrated⁸ is of the greatest importance, because the types of policies or programmes which are most suitable for improving the retention of children in

school, their cost, and the (social and private) losses involved in failing to complete children's schooling are very different. It is in the urban areas of the countries, rather than in the rural ones, that the biggest differences are registered in this respect. Thus, in seven countries (Bolivia, Brazil, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela) between 40% and up to over 70% of children drop out of school before completing the primary cycle of the respective countries.¹⁰ In another six countries (Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Panama, Peru and Uruguay), in contrast, between 50% and 60% of school drop-out takes place in the secondary cycle, and in all of them, with the exception of Chile, it is concentrated more at the beginning than at the end of the

8 It should be noted that although there is some degree of association between the level reached by the global drop-out rate and the stage in which school drop-out tends to be concentrated (before, at or after completion of the primary cycle), this association is not perfect, nor can it be expected to be so.

9 The drop-out rates were calculated taking into consideration the characteristics of the educational system of each country (age of entry and years of duration of each cycle). Because of this, the early drop-out rate depends to a certain extent on the length of the primary cycle. The clearest case of this is Venezuela, where around 1990 the primary cycle lasted nine years, and at the national level, 87% of the drop-out took place before completion of that cycle.

Table III.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DROP-OUT RATES ^{a/} DURING THE SCHOOL CYCLE IN THE 1990s AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED BETWEEN 15 AND 19, BY AREAS															
Country	Year	Duration of primary and secondary cycles (years)		Global drop-out rate			Early drop-out rate			Drop-out rate at end of primary cycle			Drop-out rate in secondary cycle		
				National total	Urban areas		National Total	Urban areas		National Total	Urban areas		National Total	Urban areas	
					Rural	Rural		Rural	Rural		Rural	Rural			
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	7	5	...	36	2	20	17	...
	1999	7	5	...	23	1	12	10	...
Argentina	1999	7	5	...	23	2	12	10	...
Bolivia (8 departmental capitals plus El Alto)	1989	8	4	...	17	10	3	5	...
	1997	8	4	...	9	6	2	2	...
Bolivia	1997	8	4	28	16	57	21	10	46	4	2	10	6	5	12
Brazil	1990	8	3	46	40	65	40	34	61	7	7	7	3	3	1
	1999	8	3	25	23	36	20	17	32	5	5	4	2	2	1
Chile	1990	8	4	27	21	56	11	7	30	8	5	24	11	11	19
	2000	8	4	17	14	32	5	4	14	5	4	12	8	8	10
Colombia	1991	5	6	43	30	59	16	7	26	18	10	32	17	16	19
	1999	5	6	32	24	46	9	4	16	11	6	21	16	15	18
Costa Rica	1990	6	5	53	33	69	12	5	18	36	19	51	17	14	22
	1999	6	5	43	30	55	10	6	14	28	17	39	12	10	15
Ecuador	1990	6	6	...	24	4	12	11	...
	1999	6	6	...	28	3	15	12	...
El Salvador	1995	9	3	45	32	63	37	23	56	11	10	14	3	3	2
	1999	9	3	42	30	57	33	21	50	10	9	13	3	3	2
Honduras	1990	6	5	66	49	81	27	15	38	46	31	65	13	12	14
	1999	6	5	61	47	76	21	11	31	43	32	57	15	13	18
Guatemala	1998	6	6	59	40	76	32	16	46	29	16	46	16	15	17
Mexico	2000	6	6	45	35	60	7	4	12	16	10	24	30	25	39
Nicaragua	1993	6	5	44	32	65	24	12	44	16	12	25	13	12	17
	1998	6	5	47	34	67	25	13	42	17	11	30	16	15	19
Panama	1991	6	6	35	28	53	6	4	11	19	12	36	16	15	19
	1999	6	6	30	25	42	4	3	8	13	9	26	16	16	16
Paraguay	1994	6	6	...	40	12	17	18	...
	1999	6	6	43	32	56	12	6	20	24	16	36	14	14	14
Peru	1999	6	5	26	16	45	8	2	18	9	4	21	12	11	15
Dominican Republic	1997	8	4	23	19	28	17	12	25	3	4	2	3	4	2
Uruguay	1990	6	6	...	37	2	13	25	...
	1999	6	6	...	34	2	12	23	...
Venezuela	1990	9	3	44	40	65	36	32	61	5	5	5	8	8	7
	1999	9	2	35	30	5	2
Simple average ^{b/}	1990			45	32	64	23	11	35	18	13	32	11	12	14
	1999			37	27	51	17	7	26	15	11	25	10	11	12

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

a/ Classification adapted to the special characteristics and changes of the educational system of each country, especially the age of entry into the system and the duration of the primary and secondary cycles (see box III.1 for methodological details on the classification used and box III.6 for the characteristics of each system). Except for the global drop-out rate, the other rates given here were calculated after excluding young people who dropped out in previous stages of the system, so they are not cumulative.

b/ The simple average covers all the countries for which there are comparable figures for both years. The average for the national total covers Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama and Venezuela. The average for urban areas covers Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay (urban total) and Uruguay. The average for rural areas covers Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama.

cycle (see table III.3). In five countries (Argentina, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Honduras and Paraguay) over half or even as much as 60% of those who drop out of school do so after completing the primary cycle. Although only five countries account for

the bulk of drop-out on completion of the primary cycle, school drop-out at this stage is substantial in all urban areas, since the percentage of withdrawal from formal education after completing that cycle is between 23% and 35% in a further nine countries.

Table III.3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES, URBAN AREAS): DISTRIBUTION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED BETWEEN 15 AND 19 WHO DROPPED OUT OF THE FORMAL SCHOOL SYSTEM IN THE 1990s, BY STAGE OF THE SCHOOL CYCLE IN WHICH THEY DROPPED OUT ^{a/} (Percentages)						
Country	Year	Early dropouts (during primary cycle)	Dropouts at end of primary cycle	Dropouts early in secondary cycle	Dropouts late in secondary cycle	Total dropouts
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6.7	55.2	38.1	0.0	100.0
	1999	6.2	54.0	29.8	10.1	100.0
Argentina	1999	8.5	53.3	28.3	10.0	100.0
Bolivia (8 departmental capitals plus El Alto)	1989	60.8	15.7	11.4	12.2	100.0
	1997	60.6	19.6	15.0	4.8	100.0
Bolivia	1997	61.0	12.8	12.6	13.6	100.0
Brazil ^{b/}	1990	84.3	11.5		4.2	100.0
	1999	75.3	16.6		8.1	100.0
Chile	1990	33.6	21.3	19.6	25.4	100.0
	2000	26.3	23.7	20.9	29.1	100.0
Colombia	1991	24.7	29.7	36.9	8.7	100.0
	1999	16.3	25.0	39.4	19.3	100.0
Costa Rica	1990	14.0	54.2	23.9	7.9	100.0
	1999	21.3	52.5	20.4	5.8	100.0
Ecuador	1990	14.3	48.1	30.9	6.6	100.0
	1999	11.8	51.8	29.1	7.3	100.0
El Salvador ^{b/}	1995	70.8	22.8		6.4	100.0
	1999	68.3	23.5		8.2	100.0
Honduras	1990	31.2	54.5	9.4	4.9	100.0
	1999	22.9	60.8	10.8	5.5	100.0
Guatemala	1998	40.1	33.6	21.1	5.2	100.0
Mexico	2000	10.0	28.1	52.2	9.7	100.0
Nicaragua	1993	36.8	34.2	24.5	4.5	100.0
	1998	38.3	27.4	26.2	8.2	100.0
Panama	1991	13.8	42.2	36.3	7.7	100.0
	1999	11.4	32.8	48.1	7.7	100.0
Paraguay (Asunción and Departamento Central)	1994	19.1	39.5	35.8	5.6	100.0
	1999	12.4	46.4	31.5	9.6	100.0
Paraguay	1994	31.1	36.8	28.1	4.0	100.0
	1999	18.6	46.9	26.7	7.8	100.0
Peru	1999	10.3	23.0	39.3	27.4	100.0
Dominican Republic	1997	63.7	18.9	6.9	10.5	100.0
Uruguay	1990	6.0	35.1	44.2	14.7	100.0
	1999	7.1	35.1	48.3	9.4	100.0
Venezuela	1990 ^{b/}	79.2	8.0		12.8	100.0
	1999 ^{c/}	87.2	9.8		3.1	100.0

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

a/ See box III.1 for details of the classification.

b/ This country has a secondary cycle lasting only three years, so that the category "drop-outs early in secondary cycle" is included in "drop-outs late in secondary cycle".

c/ Total nationwide. In this country the secondary cycle lasts only two years, so the category "drop-outs at the end of the secondary cycle" refers only to children who lack a year to complete that cycle (see box III.5).

In rural areas, as might be expected, drop-out occurs almost entirely or at least much more frequently during the primary cycle, and in some countries (Brazil, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela) only a very low percentage of children manage to complete that cycle. Only in Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Panama and Peru –countries where a relatively high proportion of children from rural areas have access to secondary education– do a relatively lower proportion of children drop out of school during that cycle (between 20% and 40% of the total) (see table III.4).

Despite this high rate of school drop-out, and especially in the light of the target of the universaliza-

tion of secondary education by 2015 –an educational target which is more appropriate to the great majority of countries of the region than that laid down in the Millennium Declaration– due emphasis should be placed on the considerable progress made in the region in terms of the retention of children in school and hence also on the improvement registered in the efficiency of the educational systems. The reduction in school drop-out in almost all the countries was aided by a (variable) combination of factors. The reduction in drop-out in rural areas was greater than in urban areas, thus making it possible to reduce the enormous disparities prevailing at the beginning of the 1990s. In Brazil, the global urban drop-out rate went down by 17 percentage points and the rural ra-

Table III.4

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES, RURAL AREAS): DISTRIBUTION OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED BETWEEN 15 AND 19 WHO DROPPED OUT OF THE FORMAL SCHOOL SYSTEM IN THE 1990s, BY STAGE OF THE SCHOOL CYCLE IN WHICH THEY DROPPED OUT ^{a/} (Percentages)						
Country	Year	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs early in secondary cycle	Drop-outs late in secondary cycle	Total drop-outs
Bolivia	1997	81.0	8.9	3.7	6.3	100.0
Brazil b/	1990	94.8	4.4	0.7		100.0
	1999	89.7	8.2	2.0		100.0
Chile	1990	52.8	29.6	9.9	7.7	100.0
	2000	44.0	31.8	10.7	13.6	100.0
Colombia	1991	44.1	39.6	13.4	2.9	100.0
	1999	35.9	38.3	21.0	4.7	100.0
Costa Rica	1990	26.0	61.0	9.2	3.8	100.0
	1999	25.2	60.8	9.7	4.3	100.0
El Salvador b/	1995	89.1	9.7	1.2		100.0
	1999	86.6	11.6	1.8		100.0
Honduras	1990	47.0	49.4	2.1	1.6	100.0
	1999	40.9	51.9	4.5	2.7	100.0
Guatemala	1998	60.2	33.2	6.5	0.2	100.0
Mexico	2000	20.3	35.9	41.4	2.3	100.0
Nicaragua	1993	67.2	22.0	8.4	2.4	100.0
	1998	62.5	26.0	9.7	1.8	100.0
Panama	1991	20.0	60.2	17.5	2.3	100.0
	1999	17.9	56.2	22.4	3.5	100.0
Paraguay	1999	35.3	51.9	11.9	0.9	100.0
Peru	1999	40.7	37.4	14.1	7.9	100.0
Dominican Republic	1997	87.4	6.3	2.8	3.5	100.0
Venezuela b/	1990	93.1	2.9	4.0		100.0

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

a/ See box III.1 for details of the classification.

b/ This country has a secondary cycle lasting only 3 years, so that the category "drop-outs early in secondary cycle" is included in "drop-outs late in secondary cycle".

te by 29 points; in Chile the reductions were by 7 and 24 percentage points; in Colombia, by 6 and 13 points; in Costa Rica, by 3 and 14 points, and in Panama, by 3 and 11 points. In Greater Buenos Aires there was also a significant reduction (by 13 percentage points). In Venezuela, the reduction at the national level was by 9 points, but the information available does not make it possible to determine whether this was accompanied by a reduction in the urban–rural disparity. Data are given later on in this chapter which illustrate how far these reductions in school drop-out in the region benefitted children from lower-income households, thus helping to narrow the gulfs between socio-economic strata.

3. What were the factors which may have helped to reduce school drop-out in the last decade?

No studies are available which describe the factors that generated such substantial reductions in school drop-out as those mentioned earlier in a number of countries of the region, but some of the following may have aided in this respect:

- The increase in the coverage of preschool education, which improves children's performance in the early years of the primary cycle and reduces the repetition of grades, which is one of the most important factors in early school drop-out. In 15 countries of the region, the average rate of preschool enrolment rose from 29.4% to 40.2% between 1990–1994 and 1998–1999.¹⁰
- The change to systems of automatic promotion to the next grade during primary education or the early years of this cycle, which reduces age/grade

disparities: a factor closely associated with dropping out of school.¹¹

- The introduction, expansion and in some cases better targeting of programmes and subsidies designed to increase retention in school (scholarships, free provision of school materials, school food programmes, etc.), especially in rural areas where rates of drop-out from the primary cycle were very high at the beginning of the last decade.¹²
- The contribution made by the two largest-scale programmes in the region to the reduction of school drop-out registered between the beginning and end of the decade was perhaps rather limited, however, since the Progresá programme in Mexico concentrated on rural areas from 1998 on, and only now is it planned to extend it to urban areas, while the “Bolsa Escola” programme in Brazil only began to be applied in the mid-1990s and its coverage was likewise broadened only at the end of the decade. Even so, the sharp reduction in school drop-out registered in Brazil in 1999 was probably due at least in part to the positive impact of that programme.
- The improvement in school infrastructure and the availability of schools in isolated rural areas, since a frequent reason for non-attendance at school in such areas is the difficulty of reaching the establishments.¹³
- The greater involvement of parents and the introduction of incentives for their participation in school activities and in following up the school situation and performance of their children. As a result, parents and the schoolchildren themselves now value education more highly as the only or at least the main capital capable of improving their opportunities for obtaining urban jobs.

¹⁰ See UNESCO/OREALC (2001, table 20, p. 596).

¹¹ There is growing evidence, based on international studies, that educational systems with automatic promotion do not necessarily have a lower performance than those using the system of repeating grades. See García-Huidobro (2000).

¹² A recent study notes that the educational reforms under way in the region have made it possible to introduce well-targeted programmes for the provision of school materials and equipment and the improvement of infrastructure in 11 Latin American countries (see PREAL, 2001).

¹³ It has been estimated that Chile, one of the countries which most sharply reduced the percentage of school drop-out in the 1990s, managed to reduce to less than 5% the proportion of adolescents between 14 and 17 years of age who were not attending school because of difficulties of physical access or the fact that schools simply did not exist. These figures are from the “Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional” (CASEN) for 1998.

2. What differences are there between boys and girls in terms of school drop-out?

In urban areas, girls drop out of school less often than boys, go through the school cycle with fewer cases of repetition, and more girls than boys between 15 and 19 graduate from secondary education without any lag. In rural areas, in contrast, girls generally drop out of school earlier than boys, especially during the first years of the primary cycle, and in some countries (Bolivia, Guatemala, Paraguay, Peru and the Dominican Republic) a higher percentage of girls than of boys either do not enter the system at all or drop out without completing first grade (see tables 33 and 34 of the statistical appendix).

The faster expansion of enrolment in urban areas has been accompanied by greater capacity of the school systems to keep girls in school, as reflected in the lower drop-out rates for girls as compared with boys. Thus, towards the end of the 1990s, in five countries of the region (Costa Rica, Honduras, the Dominican Republic, Uruguay and Venezuela) girls between 15 and 19 had a global drop-out rate between 5 and 9 percentage points lower than boys of the same age. The differences between the sexes were smaller but nevertheless significant (the rates for girls were between 2 and 4 percentage points lower) in the urban areas of five other countries (Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Nicaragua and Panama). In Chile, Guatemala, Mexico and Paraguay practically no differences were observed, while in Bolivia and El Salvador girls had somewhat higher drop-out rates than boys.

It is interesting to note that girls not only drop out of school less than boys, but they pass through the educational cycle with fewer lags. As indicated earlier, one of the main risk factors in school drop-

out is the repetition of grades due to absenteeism, poor performance in school, and the out-of-age status associated with the consequent scholastic lag.¹⁴ Although the lower figures for school drop-out among girls do not allow us to affirm that these figures are a direct consequence of the lower degree of scholastic lag generally displayed by girls, it is nevertheless highly probable that this factor does influence that result. This hypothesis is backed up by the fact that the differences between the percentages of boys and girls between 15 and 19 years of age who are lagging behind increase among adolescents who are “seriously behind” (three or more years with respect to the age-for-grade), and this occurs in both urban and rural areas in most of the countries. Consequently, a higher percentage of girls than of boys complete their secondary education before the age of 20, especially in urban areas (see tables 33 and 34 of the statistical appendix).

The effects of these tendencies are by no means negligible. On the one hand, the greater education received by girls on average favours their incorporation into the labour market and gives them more opportunities for obtaining paid employment, thus reducing the inequalities in the levels of open unemployment between men and women because –for the same level of qualifications– women are more affected by unemployment than men.¹⁵ On the other hand, the greater return for extra years of secondary education obtained by women compared with men in the urban labour markets of Latin America tends to be reflected in a narrowing of wage gaps and a tendency towards more equal hourly pay in jobs that require full secondary education, since a higher proportion of young women succeed in completing the secondary cycle. This may partly explain the moderate reduction in wage inequality between the sexes observed in a number of countries during the last decade. This aspect will be addressed in greater detail later in this document.

14 As noted in box III.1, this chapter gives estimates of the situation in terms of school drop-out which, since they are not based on panel-type data (observation of the same individuals over the course of time), do not permit analysis of the effect of scholastic lag on school drop-out events.

15 See ECLAC (2001a, chap. III, pp. 217–220).

C. School drop-out and socio-economic inequalities

The insufficient household income and the various deficits in the material well-being of children and adolescents of the poorer strata represent a decisive factor in the latter's higher frequency of scholastic lag and school drop-out compared with young people from middle- and high-income households. In spite of the substantial reduction in drop-out rates in Latin America over the last ten years, adolescents from the 25% poorest urban households have drop-out rates which are three times, on average, those of young people from the 25% richest households. These inequalities between the top and bottom socio-economic strata are greater in urban than in rural areas; they are much greater in the case of early school drop-out, and as a general rule they are higher in the countries of the region which have progressed further towards universal access to primary and secondary education. Although in the latter countries early school drop-out is less frequent than in the other countries, because greater importance is attached to keeping young people in school until they complete the secondary cycle, such drop-out is an increasingly "hard" area of social policies.

The big disparities in drop-out rates between children and adolescents from different socio-economic strata contribute very decisively, and from an early stage, to the reproduction of social inequalities. The fact that school drop-out is much more frequent in the low-income strata does not of itself, however, explain a complex phenomenon which is due to multiple causes and circumstances, many of which are indeed associated with the lack of material resources in the household, but others of which are related mainly with in-school factors and, above all, with the interaction between these two sets of factors.

Thus, the concentration of school drop-out in the low-income strata is a very significant fact for the

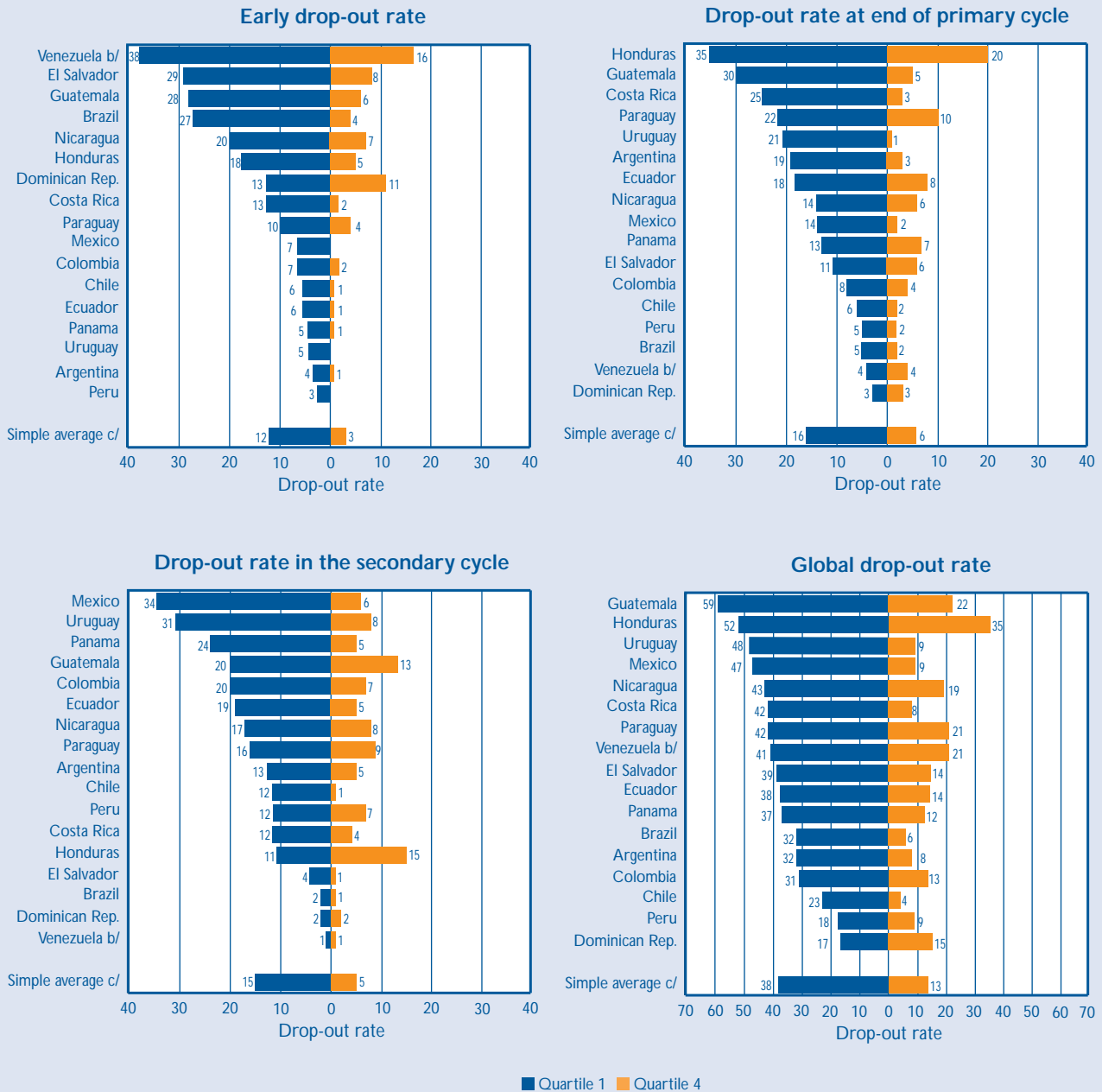
investigation of its causes, but it is not a sufficient explanation for helping in the design of effective policies and programmes to reduce such drop-out.

1. How much more does school drop-out affect children and adolescents of the poorest strata?

In order to answer this question we compared the three measurements of school drop-out among adolescents between the ages of 15 and 19 from the bottom quartile (the 25% of families with the lowest incomes) with the measurements for the top quartile (the 25% of families with the highest incomes).

Figure III.3

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): DROP-OUT RATES AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE BETWEEN 15 AND 19 YEARS OF AGE BELONGING TO QUARTILE 1 AND QUARTILE 4 a/ OF THE HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION SCALE. URBAN AREAS, 1999



Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys of the respective countries.
 a/ Refers to the 25% poorest and the 25% richest households, ordered according to their per capita income.
 b/ National total.
 c/ Excluding Venezuela, and taking Greater Buenos Aires in the case of Argentina.

Figure III.3 and tables III.12 and III.13 at the end of the chapter –corresponding to urban and rural areas, respectively– give estimates for 17 Latin American countries.¹⁶ The main conclusions are:

- School drop-out in any of the stages of the educational cycle (during the primary cycle, on its completion, or during the secondary cycle) is much more frequent in the poorest households. On average,¹⁷ the global drop-out rate in the first quartile in urban areas is 37%, whereas in the highest-income quartile it is 14%. The average rates of early school drop-out are 12% and 3%, respectively, while the averages for withdrawal from school on completion of the primary cycle are 16% in the poorest quartile and 5% in the richest. Finally, the percentages of the total number of adolescents between 15 and 19 years of age who drop out of secondary school before completing the cycle are 15% and 6% in the extreme quartiles.
- In the countries which have attained lower drop-out rates in the primary cycle, the inequalities between socio-economic strata are generally more pronounced, precisely in the case of early school drop-out. As occurs with the reduction of poverty indexes, in proportion as progress is made in keeping children in the school system and increasing its efficiency, it becomes more difficult to make new achievements because more complex situations are encountered in terms of the mechanisms giving rise to school drop-out, while the family groups tend to be less receptive to the influence of policies designed to avoid it.
- The reduction in drop-out rates during the 1990s benefited not only adolescents from households in the low-income strata but also those from the middle- and high-income strata, and in some countries the latter even registered greater progress. The disparities in terms of drop-out rates between the top and bottom income distribution quartiles tended to persist, although at lower levels.
- The significant reductions in school drop-out in rural areas (albeit starting from higher rates than those of urban areas) were not accompanied by a narrowing of the differences between the high- and low-income strata either. In the 25% lowest-income households, the average reduction in the global drop-out rate was 12 percentage points (from 66% to 54% between 1990 and 1999), whereas among the 25% highest-income households the reduction was 13 percentage points (from 56% to 43%) (see table III.13).
- It is a matter of concern that in the urban areas of 11 of the 17 countries studied, over half the children who drop out without completing the primary cycle come from the lowest-income households. Indeed, in Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires and the total for all urban areas), Chile, Costa Rica, Honduras, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay (Asunción and Departamento Central) and Uruguay, 60% or more of the children who drop out during the primary cycle come from the 25% poorest households (see table III.5). Furthermore, the progress made in the region during the past decade in terms of the efficiency of educational systems was also accompanied by a greater concentration of scholastic lag and drop-out from the secondary cycle in the lowest-income strata.

16 The table on urban areas excludes Bolivia, the only case where the estimates based on the household surveys for 1989, 1997 and 1999 show a form of behaviour that is completely different from that of all the other countries of the region in that disaggregation of the drop-out rates by income strata showed that in the three years in question school drop-out rates increased in proportion as family income grew.

17 This refers to the simple average of the drop-out rates in urban areas of 17 countries around 1999.

Table III.5

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES, URBAN AREAS): PERCENTAGE OF YOUNG PEOPLE AGED BETWEEN 15 AND 19, BY EDUCATIONAL STATUS ^{a/} WHO BELONG TO QUARTILE 1 OF THE HOUSEHOLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION SCALE, ^{b/}							
Country	Year	Drop-outs belonging to quartile 1, as % of total number of drop-outs	Early drop-outs belonging to quartile 1, as % of total number of such drop-outs	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle who belong to quartile 1, as % of total number of such drop-outs ^{c/}	Drop-outs during secondary cycle who belong to quartile 1, as % of total number of such drop-outs ^{d/}	Students with serious scholastic lag who belong to quartile 1, as % of total number of such lagging students ^{e/}	Secondary graduates belonging to quartile 1, as % of total number of graduates
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	44	50	50	34	43	20
	1999	50	72	53	43	50	14
Argentina	1999	55	73	59	46	55	20
Brazil	1990	35	38	18	20	36	6
	1999	48	53	30	28	49	8
Chile	1990	44	51	52	36	42	17
	2000	57	61	62	54	53	21
Colombia	1991	30	34	30	27	35	15
	1999	41	54	38	38	41	17
Costa Rica	1990	37	50	42	23	34	16
	1999	40	59	39	27	36	16
Ecuador	1990	27	24	30	24	34	19
	1999	37	48	33	39	39	16
El Salvador	1995	34	35	31	22	39	12
	1999	33	36	28	27	39	10
Honduras	1990	29	30	31	19	25	10
	1999	36	53	33	24	43	15
Guatemala	1998	38	44	40	25	32	6
Mexico	2000	40	58	38	37	41	16
Nicaragua	1993	35	40	32	32	26	14
	1998	29	35	28	23	31	13
Panama	1991	48	49	55	42	41	18
	1999	51	61	51	48	45	17
Paraguay (Asunción and Departamento Central)	1994	33	44	30	30	31	10
	1999	51	74	51	44	56	14
Paraguay	1994	32	46	26	25	37	12
	1999	36	47	38	29	41	12
Peru	1999	33	44	39	29	45	21
Dominican Republic	1997	25	31	20	11	31	19
Uruguay	1990	56	74	69	46	50	15
	1999	63	88	75	52	50	23
Venezuela	1990	31	33	23	22	37	21
	1999 ^{f/}	33	35	22	22	33	19
Simple average ^{g/}	1990	38	43	39	29	37	14
	1999	43	56	42	36	43	15

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

a/ The classification of the educational status of young people is adapted to the special characteristics of the educational system of each country (see box III.1 for details of the classification and box III.5 for the relevant characteristics of the educational systems in this respect).

b/ Corresponds to the 25% poorest households, ordered according to their per capita income.

c/ Includes those who dropped out during the first year of the secondary cycle (see box III.1).

d/ Excluding those who dropped out before completing the first year of the secondary cycle.

e/ Lagging behind by 3 years or more compared with the age-for-grade.

f/ National total.

g/ Includes Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay (total, urban areas) and Uruguay.

THE BOLSA ESCOLA PROGRAMME IN BRAZIL: CHARACTERISTICS, COST AND POTENTIAL REPERCUSSIONS OF ITS UNIVERSAL APPLICATION

The National Programme for a Minimum Wage linked to school attendance (the “Bolsa Escola” programme) is based on the granting of a financial incentive to low-income families, provided they guarantee that their children will stay in school. It is governed by Law No. 10.219 of 11 April 2001 sanctioned by President Fernando Henrique Cardoso. At the federal level, it is run by the Ministry of Education and Sport, through the National Secretariat for the Bolsa Escola Programme (www.educacao.gov.br).

As part of a strategy to combat poverty, the programme seeks to link education with minimum family income by giving a monthly financial incentive to families in a high-risk situation, in return for keeping their children in school in order to promote universal basic education and reduce school drop-out and repetition. In its first year of large-scale application, the programme benefited 8.5 million school-age children from 4.9 million families. These represented around 57% of the potential number of eligible children, and the resources allocated to the programme were equivalent to nearly 0.1% of GDP.

The information available on this first large-scale phase of the implementation of the programme indicates that it does indeed seem to be securing greater school attendance in almost all the municipalities of Brazil; at the end of 2001, only 48 of the 5 561 municipalities of the country were not yet participating in the Bolsa Escola. The expansion of this programme is due to the success of its application in various regions of Brazil since 1995. In order to consolidate its activities, in 2001 the Fund for the Fight Against Poverty allocated nearly 1.7 billion reales (about US\$ 800 million) to the Ministry of Education and Sport.

The universe on which the programme's activities are focused was established on the basis of the observation that there are currently some 10 million families in Brazil whose per capita income is equal to or less than half the monthly minimum wage (90 reales).^{a/} These families include some 11 million children between 6 and 15: i.e., of primary school age (the primary cycle lasts 8 years). It is estimated that with these new resources the Bolsa Escola programme will be in a position to serve almost the whole of that universe.^{b/}

As of 2001, the federal government became responsible for the whole of the resources needed to serve the families covered by the programme. For each child between 6 and 15 years of age who is enrolled and can be proved to be attending school, the family is entitled to receive 15 reales per month, for a maximum of three children (45 reales). The federal authorities pay the benefits directly to the mothers of the children participating in the programme, or, if they are absent or impeded, to a legal representative duly accredited through a magnetic identity card of the family enrolled in the programme. Families receiving benefits from the Child Labour Eradication Programme (PETI) cannot participate in the Bolsa Escola programme, nor can adolescents who are 16 or older or whose proven school attendance rate is below 85%.

The Bolsa Escola programme in Brazil and the Progresia programme in Mexico are examples of social programmes which, if given universal scope, could have a substantial impact on the retention in school of children from the low-income strata, with positive results in terms of the level of schooling of the population and the reduction of social inequalities. It is therefore important to illustrate what the aggregate effects of the universalization of these programmes could be. For this purpose, the Bolsa Escola programme has been selected, in order to give a rough idea of the number of households and persons benefited, the cost of the programme (excluding its administration), and its impact on poverty, since the programme makes monetary transfers to very low-income households, subject to the attendance at school of their children if their ages correspond to the primary cycle.

The 1999 PNAD survey provides data that serve this purpose. The universal application of the programme in the country would mean that, under the present conditions whereby the benefits are granted, it would cover some 14.9 million children between 6 and 15 years of age and that the total amount of the transfers –if the present figure of 15 reales per child is maintained– would come close to US\$ 1 350 million per year, which is equivalent to about 0.2% of GDP. It is estimated that universal application would benefit not less than 8.2 million families whose monthly per capita income is less than 90 reales (half the minimum wage). This greater income would be reflected in a reduction in the percentage of households in a state of indigence by rather more than one percentage point (from 9.6% to 8.4%), but the reduction in the percentage living in poverty would not be so marked (from 29.9% to 29.5%).

The greatest effect of the universal application of the programme, however, lies in its capacity to keep children and adolescents in school: that is to say, almost all of those who are currently in the various primary grades should stay in school until they complete the primary cycle. In addition, there is the contingent of young people who dropped out of school temporarily and may now re-enter it. A crucial point, therefore, is the programme's capacity to bring about the re-entry of these persons. At the present time there are about 1.4 million children and adolescents between 6 and 15 years of age (around 760 000 boys and 660 000 girls) from households which could be eligible for benefits who are not attending school. They represent 14% of the total number of children and adolescents in that age group who are currently outside the school system. An aspect which may affect the success of the programme is the amount of income transferred per beneficiary and the delimitation of the eligible universe on the basis of per capita household income. Both these figures must be compared with the opportunity cost for low-income households of taking their children away from work to keep them in school: a cost which can vary considerably according to the geographical location of the household and the sex and age of the children. It should be recalled that participants in the Child Labour Eradication Programme (PETI) cannot obtain benefits under the Bolsa Escola programme.

a/ The calculation of the monthly family income includes benefits granted under federal programmes such as rural social security, unemployment insurance, minimum income for the elderly and disabled persons, and benefits under state and municipal income supplementation programmes.

b/ As planned, in the year 2001 the programme benefited 10.7 million children and adolescents between 6 and 15 from 5.9 million families.

In short, the improvements in the averages did not reduce the disparities in educational achievement between adolescents from different social strata. Among other consequences, this means that the persistence of educational lags in the region will continue to be a factor in the maintenance of inequalities and social exclusion of young people. Likewise, low family income and shortage of resour-

ces in households continues –and perhaps to an even greater extent– to be a decisive dimension for orienting policies and targeting the benefits of programmes, although their design must be based on an understanding of the complex and varied set of factors that affect the decisions of those dropping out of school in the different stages of school life.

D. Determinants, associated factors and circumstances which favour school drop-out

Although an inadequate socio-economic situation in the households where young people live tends to increase school drop-out significantly, it is not in itself a risk factor, but rather the result of other factors more directly related with education achievement, such as low educational level of the mother, absence of one or both of the parents from the household, and the need for early entry into the labour market. Among these factors, low educational level of the mother is the element which most affects school drop-out, especially in urban areas: among young people between 15 and 19, the global drop-out rate is almost trebled when the mother has a low level of education (41% compared with 15%), and the risk of dropping out at an early stage in the educational cycle increases fivefold (15% compared with 3%). On the other hand, among the reasons adduced by young people for dropping out, over 70% say they did so because of economic difficulties or because they found work or were seeking it (Bolivia, Nicaragua, Paraguay and El Salvador), while in Chile, Peru and Venezuela the same reasons were given by over half of those interviewed. Among girls, economic factors are very important too, but they also very often mention housework and pregnancy and motherhood. As might be expected, difficulty in reaching the school is given relatively frequently as the reason for dropping out only in rural areas.

School drop-out is the result of a process which is affected by many factors and circumstances, some of which are typical of children and young people and their socio-economic situations (out-of-school factors), while others are associated with shortcomings in the educational system itself (in-school factors). Identifying these drop-out risk factors more exactly and increasing our knowledge of the circum-

stances and processes that induce young people to abandon their studies are essential requisites for designing policies and programmes designed to raise school retention rates in the near future and advance towards fulfillment of the Millennium Development Targets. This in turn requires that the countries of the region should make an effort to perfect the questionnaires used in the household surveys they carry out

periodically, so as to improve the methods of investigating the educational situation of children and young people and their reasons for not going to school.

1. What factors determine or condition school drop-out?

Definitive withdrawal from school is rarely an unexpected event; more often than not it is due to a chain of circumstances that gradually raise the risk of dropping out as children get older and experience growing difficulties of performance and adaptation, especially when moving from the primary to the secondary cycle.

The specialized literature on the causes of dropping out or withdrawing from school reflects two main views or frames of interpretation regarding the nature of the context that gives rise to factors which encourage withdrawal from the educational system. These involve different social agents in both the generation of the problem and its solution.

The first view emphasizes the socio-economic situation and family background of children and young people as the main source of various factors which can directly or indirectly facilitate withdrawal from school –poverty and marginality, early entry into the labour market, anomie of the family, addictions, etc.– and therefore assigns responsibility for the production and reproduction of these factors to “out-of-school” agents: the State, the market, the community, peer groups and the family. According to this view, there are various coexisting explanations which give more importance to one or another of these factors as the main element in the decision to give up studying. In particular, it highlights the importance of work or the need to work as a factor that sparks off school drop-out, although it does not make it clear whether school drop-out is a condition that already exists prior to the act of taking up em-

ployment or whether progressive incompatibility grows up between early entry into the labour market and school attendance and performance.¹⁸

An important place is also occupied in this type of explanation by the establishment and existence of “anomalous” forms of family organization –especially single-parent families, as a source of neglect, violence and even promiscuity– which, because of their structural characteristics, do not support the formative work of the school, especially as regards discipline, and facilitate the development of transgressive forms of conduct and neglect of their studies by young people. In this sense, these forms of family organization fail to provide an adequate social basis for the formal socialization process.

Another line of analysis, which has been much criticised, tends to highlight the consumption of alcohol and drugs, situations of violence and adolescent pregnancy as generalized problems of young people (showing their high degree of “anomie”) which also contribute to or facilitate school drop-out.

The second frame of interpretation, which has gained currency as the first approach has displayed shortcomings in terms of explaining the phenomenon, focuses on the intra-system situations which make students’ continuation in school conflictive: poor performance, problems of conduct, authoritarian teachers, etc. According to this view, it is the characteristics and structure of the school system and the in-school agents themselves which are directly responsible for generating the elements which cause students to drop out, either because of their inadequate socializing action or their inability to channel or contain the influence of the (adverse) socio-economic environment in which children and young people live and study.

Among the problems and situations of inadaptability within the school system which precipitate or accen-

18 The criticisms of the importance attached to this factor claim that it fails to understand that child and juvenile labour is part of the subsistence strategies practiced by the lower strata –so that it is impossible to eradicate it by decree– and that, as a daily cultural environment, it can be incorporated in the curricula of educational establishments. Seen in this light, paid work can be a rich source of social and scholastic learning, and it is also an important factor in strengthening self-esteem and building social identity (see Goicovic, 2002).

tuate the tendencies towards withdrawal and drop-out, there is the view that failure in school may be understood as a form of resistance to the codes of socialization offered by the school: the school and its agents may be seen as denying the validity of the cultural capital which young people have when they arrive at the school and, by defining what it is legitimate to learn, trying to socially discipline the students. According to this view, by refusing to ascribe any formative potential to the culture and juvenile activities of the poorest strata of the population, the teachers assume that their most specific role is to prepare young people for an adverse setting in which they will have to behave in a disciplined manner. Social discipline consequently becomes the guiding principle of the educational processes. The school is reduced to a place where young people receive obligations and instructions, living passively in an environment which bores them and where there is no place for their interests, concerns and problems. Resistance to the symbolic violence deployed by the system therefore takes the form of scholastic failure, normally followed by withdrawal from the school.¹⁹

On the other hand, it is assumed that the teachers should have qualities and attributes that most do not possess: professional capacity for taking decisions on the planning and organization of their work, recognition of their students' will to participate, and the disposition and motivation to make possible the critical, creative, committed and self-correcting participation of the children and young people. The wage erosion suffered by teachers in recent decades seems to have helped to dissuade the best candidates from working or staying in teaching, however.²⁰ Furthermore, the gap between the training received and the skills required for effective and innovative teaching activity has widened, and initial teacher training programmes are usually far removed from the real problems that an educator has to solve in his work, especially when working with socially underprivileged pupils. The interaction between teacher and pupil, based on discipline and the execution of plans and programmes whose obsolete and abstract

content is totally divorced from the real situation of young people, provides a favourable setting for repetition of grades and encourages school drop-out.

Finally, in the framework of this second approach, it is suggested that the recognition by the socializing agents of the poverty of children and young people tends to be a factor negating their cultural potential. Lower-class students whose culture is different from the predominant culture of the school have to make considerable efforts to assimilate the latter, going through a kind of re-education process in which the school does not integrate but often segregates students from the under-privileged classes who have poor marks and bear the stigma of scholastic failure; the verdicts of the teachers convince them that they are incapable of studying anything and should content themselves with a modest job in keeping with their capabilities. For many children and young people of the poorer strata, the street becomes a place for socialization among peers where they gain their greatest satisfaction, while the school is their first experience of social failure.²¹

2. What do household surveys indicate about the relative importance of the factors affecting school drop-out?

The surveys regularly carried out in the countries of the region provide two types of evidence on some of the factors mentioned above: (i) on the motives leading young people to abandon their studies (information provided by the young people themselves or by the person answering the questions in the survey about the reasons for not currently attending school or for having left it altogether), and (ii) information emerging from the analysis of certain factors associated with school drop-out (poverty, family characteristics, etc.), whose importance can be gauged by comparing the (relative) frequencies of school drop-out among young people who do or do not display these characteristics.

19 See Herrera (1999).

20 See Tedesco (1998).

21 See Redondo (1997).

CHILE: THE SECONDARY SCHOOL FOR ALL PROGRAMME

The “Secondary School for All” programme of the Ministry of Education of Chile,^{a/} begun in mid-2000, was designed to tackle the problem of school drop-out among secondary school students.^{b/} It forms part of the actions aimed at achieving universal minimum 12-year schooling improving the quality of the education offered by the urban and rural establishments all over the country which have the greatest educational and social difficulties and which receive State financing.

The educational establishments in question were selected through a School Vulnerability Risk Index which estimates the school drop-out probability of the students of each school on the basis of the mother’s level of schooling and the repetition and attendance rates of the students. The same Index serves to determine the number of scholarships required by each establishment. It is complemented with an appraisal card for the students, which allows the beneficiaries to be selected on the basis of their school attendance, average marks and out-of-age status (scholastic lag), if applicable.

The programme involves a complex strategy for action in two main areas: the teaching area, and the psycho-social area. This is because it considers that the problem of school drop-out and poor school performance of the young people attending the secondary schools with the highest socio-educational vulnerability has a number of different causes.

The main concern of the teaching development area is to help secondary schools to build up suitable educational practices which will ensure high-quality educational processes, taking account of the diversity of their students. This area develops levelling-up projects, pilot plans for innovations in teaching practices in schools with adverse institutional conditions, and other innovative measures. The main task of the psycho-social development area, for its part, is to support and strengthen conditions and capabilities in the schools which will make possible a learning experience based on suitable interpersonal relations and will foster a climate suitable for learning in the school, bearing in mind the actual conditions of the young people who attend it.

The programme is therefore based on an intervention strategy which combines two dimensions: the quality of life, and the quality of education of the young people concerned. The first of these includes access to welfare services (mainly financial scholarships for the students who are most vulnerable and whose educational trajectory shows them to have the highest risk of dropping out), improvement of the conditions in the establishments, and the implementation of a school health programme designed to help keep young people in school. Each establishment must formulate and develop a plan of action to avoid school drop-out, based on a process of reflection and analysis on their own real conditions, in accordance with which the following four components will be applied:

- a) the scholarships, worth 148 000 Chilean pesos per year (about US\$ 200 per beneficiary);
- b) a teaching development plan, through the training of teachers and directors and the promotion of strategies for the participation of the school community;
- c) a psycho-social development plan to generate conditions and strengthen capabilities that will make possible a positive learning experience; and
- d) the improvement of boarding schools, through the provision of support for management and attention to the students.

The “Secondary School for All” programme has not yet been evaluated globally in terms of its effect on the capacity to keep students in school in the secondary cycle, and its coverage has been relatively limited.^{c/} The experience collected so far, however, indicates that most of the secondary schools are agreed on the usefulness of working from a multi-causal standpoint, with special emphasis on support in the area of teaching, economic support, heightening of family awareness and involvement, and improvement of the students’ environment.

a/ See the web page of the Ministry of Education of Chile (MINEDUC): <http://www.mineduc.cl/media/lpt/index.htm>.

b/ According to official figures, in Chile some 138 000 young people between 14 and 17 years of age do not attend a secondary educational establishment: a figure that the government aims to halve by the year 2005.

c/ During 2001 the programme awarded around 6 000 scholarships. See MIDEPLAN (2001).

With regard to the first type of evidence, not all the surveys reveal information on the reasons for school drop-out, and even those which do use questions with different possible answers referring to different factors, thus making it more difficult to compare the reasons for drop-out stated by those interviewed. Thus, only 10 of the 18 countries studied ask the reasons for non-attendance at school; in one of those ten countries (Guatemala) the question is posed only to children between 5 and 14 years of age,

while in another (Panama) the great majority of the answers in this respect are concentrated in a single category (“other reasons”). In the other countries, the question on the reasons for dropping out of school offers a wide variety of possible types of answers.

In order to highlight some of the factors most frequently mentioned as the reason for dropping out of school, the answers used were those given by young people between the ages of 15 and 19 who had

dropped out of school and who, depending on the classification used, included those who dropped out before or on completion of the primary cycle, and those who withdrew during the secondary cycle. The variety of answers given to the eight questions analysed were summarized in six types of reasons or “causes” for school drop-out:

- i) **economic reasons**, including both lack of resources in the household for covering the expenses involved in attending school and dropping out in order to work or look for work;
- ii) **lack of educational facilities**, including the non-existence of schools or, if they do exist, the lack of the necessary grades or levels within them; excessive distance and difficulties of access; and lack of teachers;
- iii) **family problems**, including the reasons most frequently given by girls: need to do housework, pregnancy and motherhood;
- iv) **lack of interest**, including lack of interest on the part of the parents;
- v) **problems of school performance**: poor marks, problems of conduct, and age-related problems;
- vi) **other reasons**: physical disability, military service, sickness or accidents, attendance at special courses, etc. Table III.6 shows the relative frequency of the answers given by adolescents of both sexes living in urban and rural areas, grouped under the six types of reasons.

In seven of the eight countries studied (excepting the Dominican Republic), the main reason for dropping out of school in the case of male adolescents was connected with economic factors. In four of them (Bolivia, El Salvador, Nicaragua and Paraguay), over 70% of these young people stated that

they had dropped out of school because of economic difficulties or because they were working or looking for work. In the other three countries (Chile, Peru and Venezuela), over half those questioned gave this reason. The fact of working was not the main reason in all cases, however: in Paraguay and Peru 50% or more of school drop-outs said that their main reason was the economic difficulties faced by their households in meeting the cost of keeping young people in school.

Among adolescent girls, economic factors are also important, but the need to do housework, pregnancy and motherhood are very often mentioned. It should be noted that not all the surveys identify adolescent pregnancy and motherhood specifically among the reasons for dropping out, and this motive is very probably “hidden” in the general category of “family problems”.²² Only in the case of Chile, one-third of adolescent girls expressly state that they dropped out for this reason; in Venezuela 11% of those interviewed gave this as their reason for dropping out, and in Paraguay only 6% (see table III.6).

As might be expected, only in rural areas is the lack of schools or difficulty of reaching them given as a relatively frequent reason for dropping out. In rural areas of Bolivia, Chile, Nicaragua and Paraguay the answers giving this reason ranged from 7% to 20%; in Peru and the Dominican Republic the percentages were lower: between 3% and 6%.

Finally, it may be noted that lack of interest in schooling is given as the main reason for dropping out more frequently than problems of scholastic performance, although the two factors are undoubtedly closely related. In both urban and rural areas, more boys than girls stated that they had dropped out because of lack of interest in their studies. This is consistent with the evidence of the longer period spent in school and the better performance achieved by

22 Although it is not remunerated, housework is a motive for school drop-out which is basically of the same nature as paid employment, and as such could have been classified under “economic reasons”. However, it has been classified under “family problems” in order to form a clearer contrast between the reasons for dropping out associated with the gender roles of boys and girls. This decision also seems justified because the difference between the patterns of answers given by boys and girls suggests that adolescent pregnancy –one of the main reasons for dropping out among girls– could be “hidden” in the general category of “family problems”.

Table III.6

LATIN AMERICA (8 COUNTRIES): REASONS FOR SCHOOL DROP-OUT MENTIONED BY YOUNG PEOPLE AGED BETWEEN 15 AND 19 WHO HAD DROPPED OUT OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM BEFORE COMPLETING THE SECONDARY CYCLE. URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1999 (Percentages)																
Reasons for dropping out a/	Bolivia		Chile		El Salvador		Nicaragua		Paraguay		Peru		Dominican Rep.		Venezuela b/	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Urban areas																
Economic reasons	74	51	55	29	72	40	70	38	71	55	63	44	35	21	52	31
(Working or looking for work)	50	38	34	14	47	22	38	7	21	14	17	6	35	20	37	12
Lack of schools	0	1	1	2	1	2	0	4	0	1	2	1	1	1
Family problems	15	41	4	50	5	49	1	14	2	31	1	32
(Pregnancy or motherhood)	0	34	0	6	1	11
(Need to do housework)	1	11	0	23	0	3	0	19	1	21
Lack of interest	15	9	1 c/	1 c/	24	16	21	18	20	15	46	48	38	24
Problems of scholastic performance	12	6	1 e/	1 e/	0	0	0 e/	0 e/	2 e/	0 e/	9	5	1	2
Other reasons	11	7	14	5	21	9	4	21	7	9	13	10	9	24	7	9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Rural areas																
Economic reasons	70	48	55	38	76	35	71	40	66	57	47	38	43	10
(Working or looking for work)	55	31	28	9	51	16	42	6	15	5	17	7	43	9
Lack of schools	13	16	6	7	7	8	8	20	4	3	4	6
Family problems	7	29	3	33	4	43	2	7	7	31
(Pregnancy or motherhood)	0	20	0	3
(Need to do housework)	1	13	1	26	0	2	0	14
Lack of interest	15	9	2 c/	3 c/	16	14	19	11	32	26	49	54
Problems of scholastic performance	8	6	3 e/	2 e/	1	1	0 e/	0 e/	2 e/	0 e/	1	7
Other reasons	9	8	13	6	16	18	5	10	5	5	8	2	3	22
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

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

a/ Three points (...) indicate that the category was not measured by the survey.

b/ Corresponds to national total.

c/ The categories shown include the following reasons, depending on the country in question:

- economic reasons: lack of resources in the household to cover the outlays required by school attendance, or drop-out in order to work or look for work.
- lack of schools: non-existence of a school (or non-existence of certain grades or levels in it), excessive distance, lack of teachers, or student disorders.
- family problems: need to do housework, pregnancy, motherhood and other reasons connected with the home.
- lack of interest: lack of interest among young people in continuing to study or lack of interest of the parents in keeping young people in school.
- problems of scholastic performance: poor marks, problems of conduct and age-related problems (out-of-age problems).
- other reasons: physical disability, military service, sickness or accident, attendance at special courses, etc.

d/ Only includes lack of interest on the part of the parents.

e/ Only includes age-related problems. In Peru, only includes problems of scholastic performance.

adolescent girls as compared with boys, especially in secondary education. In Chile, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Peru, between 10% and 25% of adolescents of both sexes give lack of interest as their main reason for dropping out of school. In the Dominican Republic and Venezuela these percentages are higher:

between 25% and 48%. With regard to reasons connected with scholastic performance, only in Chile did a relatively high percentage of young drop-outs (between 6% and 12% of the total) give this as their reason for dropping out.

As noted earlier, another way of analysing the “causes” of school drop-out is to examine various factors assumed to be related with scholastic failure and drop-out. Tables III.7 and III.8, which list the risk factors that can be measured with the data from household surveys, show the differences in drop-out

rates, according to whether these factors are present or not.²³

The first point to note is that (except in the cases of Bolivia and the Dominican Republic) the socio-economic situation of the households in which

Table III.7

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES, URBAN AREAS AROUND 1999): GENERAL AND EARLY DROP-OUT RATES ^{a/} AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED BETWEEN 15 AND 19, ON ACCOUNT OF VARIOUS FACTORS									
Country	Year	Poverty		Work		Young people living with their parents			
		Poor	Non-poor	Working	Not working	Educational level of mother		Family structure	
						5 years' schooling or less	Over 5 years' schooling	Single-parent	Two-parent
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1999	37 (4)	18 (1)	51 (6)	16 (1)	40 (3)	17 (1)	32 (4)	16 (0)
Argentina	1999	33 (4)	19 (1)	56 (6)	16 (1)	40 (5)	17 (1)	31 (3)	17 (1)
Bolivia	1997	15 (10)	16 (9)	38 (25)	7 (4)	16 (10)	6 (3)	15 (8)	10 (6)
Brazil	1999	32 (27)	18 (12)	32 (23)	18 (14)	25 (19)	9 (6)	25 (19)	16 (12)
Chile	2000	24 (7)	11 (3)	41 (12)	11 (3)	26 (8)	9 (2)	18 (5)	10 (3)
Colombia	1999	29 (5)	17 (2)	51 (10)	17 (2)	29 (6)	9 (1)	23 (4)	15 (2)
Costa Rica	1999	47 (16)	26 (4)	59 (11)	21 (5)	53 (16)	21 (3)	34 (7)	24 (5)
Ecuador	1999	34 (4)	17 (2)	59 (8)	17 (2)	51 (9)	16 (1)	27 (4)	22 (2)
El Salvador	1999	39 (29)	25 (16)	62 (45)	20 (13)	39 (29)	13 (7)	34 (24)	20 (14)
Honduras	1999	52 (13)	34 (5)	73 (16)	31 (7)	65 (22)	27 (2)	45 (10)	42 (10)
Guatemala	1998	55 (26)	31 (10)	69 (29)	21 (8)	53 (23)	12 (2)	39 (18)	36 (14)
Mexico	2000	46 (7)	30 (2)	66 (8)	20 (2)	51 (7)	22 (2)	37 (7)	29 (2)
Nicaragua	1998	38 (16)	27 (8)	56 (22)	24 (9)	44 (20)	16 (4)	33 (14)	28 (11)
Panama	1999	37 (5)	21 (2)	58 (7)	17 (2)	51 (10)	17 (1)	24 (2)	20 (3)
Paraguay (Asunción and Depto. Central)	1999	38 (7)	20 (1)	40 (6)	22 (3)	45 (9)	14 (2)	41 (8)	14 (2)
Paraguay	1999	41 (10)	24 (2)	50 (10)	23 (4)	47 (14)	14 (2)	37 (8)	21 (5)
Peru	1999	18 (2)	15 (1)	27 (3)	11 (1)	22 (3)	8 (1)	25 (3)	11 (1)
Dominican Republic	1997	17 (13)	21 (12)	37 (23)	14 (9)	22 (15)	10 (5)	18 (11)	14 (8)
Uruguay	1999	63 (10)	30 (1)	62 (3)	24 (2)	57 (12)	28 (1)	37 (4)	29 (2)
Venezuela ^{b/}	1999	40 (36)	29 (24)	63 (55)	25 (21)	54 (50)	21 (18)	34 (29)	29 (25)
Simple average ^{c/}	1999	37 (13)	23 (6)	53 (18)	19 (6)	41 (15)	15 (3)	30 (10)	22 (7)

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

a/ Figures in brackets show early dropout rate.

b/ National total.

c/ Covers urban areas of Argentina and Paraguay.

23 An examination of the specific effect that some drop-out risk factors have, based on Cox regression analyses using data from household surveys in Chile, Honduras, Uruguay and Venezuela, may be found in Filgueira, Filgueira and Fuentes (2001).

Table III.8

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES, RURAL AREAS AROUND 1999): GENERAL AND EARLY DROP-OUT RATES ^{a/} AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED BETWEEN 15 AND 19, ON ACCOUNT OF VARIOUS FACTORS									
Country	Year	Poverty		Work		Young people living with their parents			
		Poor	Non-poor	Working	Not working	Educational level of mother		Family structure	
						5 years' schooling or less	Over 5 years' schooling	Single-parent	Two-parent
Bolivia	1997	60 (50)	49 (34)	67 (54)	26 (21)	58 (47)	34 (25)	55 (43)	54 (44)
Brazil	1999	36 (34)	35 (29)	40 (36)	28 (25)	31 (28)	18 (14)	36 (33)	29 (26)
Chile	2000	36 (18)	30 (12)	75 (34)	23 (10)	39 (20)	22 (8)	38 (18)	28 (13)
Colombia	1999	46 (17)	46 (15)	74 (29)	30 (10)	47 (18)	17 (4)	41 (13)	41 (15)
Costa Rica	1999	62 (23)	54 (12)	80 (17)	39 (12)	69 (22)	40 (7)	60 (16)	48 (11)
El Salvador	1999	60 (54)	54 (44)	76 (65)	46 (40)	58 (51)	36 (27)	55 (47)	55 (48)
Honduras	1999	77 (33)	68 (22)	89 (36)	60 (26)	77 (33)	62 (15)	67 (22)	75 (30)
Guatemala	1998	80 (54)	68 (31)	85 (49)	61 (40)	74 (45)	61 (9)	69 (44)	74 (41)
Mexico	2000	67 (18)	51 (5)	79 (17)	45 (8)	67 (17)	43 (4)	64 (14)	58 (12)
Nicaragua	1998	66 (45)	68 (33)	79 (50)	57 (35)	65 (41)	41 (20)	67 (41)	61 (37)
Panama	1999	51 (9)	36 (6)	77 (15)	27 (4)	61 (16)	30 (3)	41 (10)	40 (6)
Paraguay	1999	60 (24)	45 (10)	71 (27)	43 (13)	61 (23)	34 (5)	58 (18)	53 (18)
Peru	1999	48 (20)	40 (16)	57 (24)	28 (10)	43 (18)	32 (9)	58 (26)	39 (15)
Dominican Republic	1997	19 (18)	33 (28)	47 (42)	21 (18)	26 (24)	12 (9)	30 (25)	20 (18)
Simple average	1999	55 (30)	48 (21)	71 (35)	38 (19)	55 (29)	34 (12)	53 (26)	48 (24)

Source: ECLAC, on the basis of special tabulations of household surveys of the respective countries.
a/ Figures in brackets show early drop-out rate.

the young people live (in this case, a situation of absolute poverty) is a factor which tends to increase the risk of school drop-out, especially at an early stage, very markedly. As a simple average, among urban young people the fact of living in a state of poverty increases the probability of school drop-out by around 60% (23% for non-poor, compared with 37% for the poor), and the difference is even greater in the case of early drop-outs (6% compared with 13%). In rural areas, being poor is less significant as a risk factor, because poverty is more widespread, other factors

such as agricultural work are also more prevalent, and school drop-out is still a massive problem, affecting 55% of poor students and 48% of the non-poor.

However, poverty is not a risk factor in itself, but is rather a result or situation deriving from the presence of other factors which explain it and reflect a number of other phenomena (including school drop-out) which have been described in other issues of the *Social Panorama of Latin America*.²⁴ Another three factors connected with school drop-out stand

24 See ECLAC (1998, chap. IV).

out in particular in this respect: low educational level of the mother, which is associated with a lower value attached to formal education and other situations of a critical nature; an incomplete (single-parent) family, linked with greater economic problems and inability to provide proper support for the educational process; and early entry into the labour market, which has been highlighted as the factor most closely related with scholastic failure and drop-out, because of its relative incompatibility with the requirements for a good academic performance.²⁵

Juvenile labour is the factor which appears to produce the biggest differences in levels of school drop-out: in urban areas, 53% of young people who work have left school without completing their secondary education (18% dropped out early), while among young people who do not work, this proportion only amounts to 19% (6% early drop-outs). In rural areas, for their part, 71% of young people who work did not complete their secondary education, compared with 38% of those who do not work (see tables III.7 and III.8). However, these differences do not provide convincing proof that work is a factor which causes drop-out from the educational system, because the household surveys do not make it possible to determine whether entry into the labour market preceded school drop-out or vice versa (i.e., those who dropped out subsequently started to work).

Low educational level of the mother (5 years' schooling or less), and to a lesser extent the absence of one of the parents, also appear to have an effect on school drop-out. Thus, among urban young people whose mothers had a low level of education, over 40% dropped out (55% in rural areas), whereas among those whose mothers had completed at least the primary cycle, the proportion was close to 15% in urban areas and 34% in rural areas.

While coming from a single-parent family increases the risk of dropping out by almost 40% on average for young people in urban areas, a low level

of education of the mother increases it by over 170% and raises the probability of early school drop-out by a factor of five. Both these factors precede the entry of young people into the educational system and are therefore markedly ascriptive. This is why they are considered to be of key importance in the reproduction of socio-economic inequality, especially in the case of the level of schooling of the mother.²⁶

This way of studying the factors associated with school drop-out – which emphasizes how the “causes” have differential influences on the “effects” – may be complemented by studying the phenomena in the reverse direction to determine the presence or absence of those factors among young people who have dropped out, as compared with those who have not. This approach makes it possible to illustrate the “process” effect that these factors have on the phenomenon of school drop-out. Table III.9, for example, shows that in urban areas, taking the average for the countries, 70% of early school drop-outs are children of mothers with a low level of education; for all dropouts (including early drop-outs) the proportion goes down to 58%; among young people who are still at school but are seriously behind in their studies it goes down still further (to 45%), and among the total number of students and graduates the proportion is no more than 30%. This same “process” is observed in rural areas, but the levels are much higher because a low level of education of the parents is a generalized phenomenon.

This way of analysing the information is most useful, however, in the case of the work factor: among young urban drop-outs, 51% are working (54% in the case of early drop-outs), while 24% of those who have not dropped out but are seriously behind in their studies have jobs, whereas only 15% of the total universe of students are employed. Likewise, in rural areas, while some 60% of drop-outs have jobs, only 27% of those who are still at school are employed, although this figure rises to 36% among those who are still studying but are seriously behind.

25 It should be borne in mind that in spite of the relation which exists between child and juvenile labour and economic problems of the household, this tends to be concealed, because the income brought in by young people often allow the household to move up from a state of poverty to one of non-poverty or, in terms of income distribution, to move up from the bottom to the intermediate strata.

26 For a detailed analysis of risk factors in early stages of the life cycle in the case of Uruguay, see Kaztman and Filgueira (2001).

Table III.9

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES, URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1999): INCIDENCE OF VARIOUS FACTORS AMONG YOUNG PEOPLE AGED BETWEEN 15 AND 19, ACCORDING TO WHETHER OR NOT THEY HAVE DROPPED OUT OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM ^{a/}									
Country	Year	Incidence of poverty		Percentage working ^{b/}		Young people living with their parents			
		Drop-outs	Non-drop-outs	Drop-outs	Non-drop-outs	Percentage whose mothers have a low level of education ^{c/}		Percentage living in a single-parent home	
						Drop-outs	Non-drop-outs	Drop-outs	Non-drop-outs
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1999	39 (72)	20 (43)	41 (73)	7 (7)	24 (32)	10 (16)	37 (79)	17 (23)
Argentina	1999	40 (61)	24 (44)	40 (53)	6 (9)	27 (45)	12 (20)	34 (50)	19 (24)
Bolivia	1997	50 (55)	52 (66)	69 (73)	19 (37)	74 (79)	50 (69)	28 (26)	20 (21)
Brazil	1999	49 (55)	31 (51)	50 (48)	29 (34)	79 (82)	56 (72)	31 (32)	21 (25)
Chile	2000	40 (47)	21 (38)	29 (32)	3 (6)	33 (36)	14 (27)	27 (30)	17 (21)
Colombia	1999	65 (71)	49 (64)	43 (52)	7 (14)	74 (88)	40 (56)	37 (43)	26 (32)
Costa Rica	1999	28 (44)	14 (21)	49 (42)	11 (19)	39 (55)	15 (22)	34 (33)	24 (31)
Ecuador	1999	79 (81)	59 (81)	57 (67)	13 (26)	51 (74)	18 (33)	25 (32)	20 (21)
El Salvador	1999	47 (51)	32 (51)	51 (54)	10 (25)	71 (76)	40 (60)	41 (42)	26 (37)
Honduras	1999	79 (86)	65 (77)	59 (57)	17 (30)	67 (89)	29 (43)	31 (28)	29 (18)
Guatemala	1998	55 (64)	31 (49)	69 (72)	19 (39)	87 (96)	49 (72)	28 (32)	26 (16)
Mexico	2000	40 (58)	25 (45)	61 (70)	16 (28)	52 (64)	20 (28)	27 (45)	18 (19)
Nicaragua	1998	70 (77)	58 (71)	50 (51)	18 (28)	73 (82)	45 (63)	36 (38)	31 (32)
Panama	1999	41 (52)	24 (38)	48 (48)	7 (22)	38 (56)	9 (14)	32 (18)	26 (32)
Paraguay (Asunción and Depto. Central)	1999	55 (82)	33 (66)	42 (48)	22 (36)	56 (56)	27 (72)	50 (54)	18 (29)
Paraguay	1999	62 (80)	43 (68)	52 (57)	23 (35)	69 (79)	29 (57)	35 (32)	19 (25)
Peru	1999	41 (47)	36 (55)	55 (66)	22 (28)	68 (75)	43 (60)	40 (46)	19 (25)
Dominican Republic	1997	33 (39)	38 (41)	46 (45)	19 (24)	65 (70)	43 (58)	38 (37)	31 (25)
Uruguay	1999	21 (48)	6 (11)	46 (34)	12 (22)	27 (61)	7 (10)	26 (41)	19 (19)
Venezuela ^{d/}	1999	58 (60)	46 (59)	39 (47)	13 (9)	50 (52)	23 (34)	29 (29)	25 (25)
Simple average ^{e/}	1999	50 (60)	36 (52)	51 (54)	15 (24)	58 (70)	30 (44)	32 (35)	23 (25)

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

a/ Figures in brackets show incidence of each factor among early drop-outs (under "drop-outs" column) and seriously lagging students (under "non-drop-outs" column).

b/ "Non-drop-outs" category does not include young people who had already completed their secondary education.

c/ Mothers with 5 years' schooling or less.

d/ National total.

e/ Covers the urban areas of Argentina and Paraguay.

This evidence, which complements the foregoing and coincides with the students' own statements of their reasons for dropping out, shows that although it is not possible to determine whether employment

precedes school drop-out or vice versa, there is no doubt that it is associated with scholastic lag,²⁷ which is the direct forerunner of school drop-out.

27 Although it is not possible to decide from these data what the causal factor is, it does not seem reasonable to assume that growing scholastic lag creates favourable conditions for entering the labour market. Although this cannot be ruled out, it seems more reasonable to assume that it is employment which undermines students' school performance.

E. Social and private costs of school drop-out

The high rates of school drop-out registered in Latin America indicate the need to establish new curricula and allocate more resources to the urgent need to keep children and adolescents in the educational system. There are few areas where the resources invested give a higher rate of social and private return. Estimates based on the return to extra years of schooling in urban labour markets indicate that in countries where school drop-out takes place at an early stage, an increase in school retention up to completion of the primary cycle (four more years' schooling) would give between 25% and 60% higher labour income. In countries where school drop-out tends to coincide with completion of the primary cycle, three more years' schooling (up to completion of the first secondary cycle) would lead to wages that were between 30% and 50% higher. Even in countries which have attained a relatively high level of full secondary educational coverage, withdrawal before completion of that cycle entails serious private and social losses: leaving secondary school two years before completing the cycle involves income losses of between 20% and 30%. In a number of countries, the greater return per extra year of secondary education obtained by girls compared with boys indicates that the reduction of school drop-out in these cases helps to reduce the wage gap between the sexes.

School drop-out gives rise to high social and private costs. The former are not easy to estimate, and the literature generally only lists the factors responsible for them, without giving any estimates of their actual size. With regard to private costs, these are normally evaluated by estimating the loss of income in the labour market suffered by those who drop out of formal education before completing a given number of years' schooling.

Among the social costs, the literature mentions those due to the fact of having a labour force which is less qualified and less capable of being upgraded, when the persons in question have not reached certain minimum levels of education needed to derive benefit from training programmes offered by the State or by private enterprises. The most extreme case is the social cost due to very early school drop-out, which results in functional illiteracy. Other social

costs of school drop-out include low labour productivity and its effect in terms of (lower) economic growth. They also include the higher outlays needed to finance the costs of social programmes and transfers to sectors which are incapable of generating their own resources. In another connection, reference has also been made to the cost of school drop-out in terms of the inter-generational reproduction of social inequality and its negative impact on social integration, which hinders the strengthening and deepening of democracy.²⁸

In order to gain an idea of the size of the individual losses due to school drop-out, estimates were made of the returns or labour income obtained for each additional year of schooling in the urban labour markets of the region.²⁹ On this basis, a calculation was then made of the costs (in terms of lower income in the future) incurred by persons who had completed fewer years of education than a given level. Before presenting the main conclusions of the analysis of the individual losses due to school drop-out, it is worth summing up the results of the estimates of the returns on additional years of education, since the size of the losses depends directly on those estimates, quite apart from the importance of having updated figures on the private returns on formal education in the region and the changes which have occurred in this respect over the past decade. This information, which is given in tables III.14 and III.15 at the end of this chapter, is useful because it makes it possible to analyse the income inequalities that will probably prevail in coming years in the Latin American countries as a result of the changes in the level of education of the labour force and the way higher personal qualifications are rewarded in the urban labour markets.³⁰

Table III.10 summarizes the rates of return per educational cycle, around 1990 and 1999, in three

groups of countries. Group A includes countries where the average educational levels of the economically active population are relatively high and the global drop-out rate among young people aged between 15 and 19 is relatively low; groups B and C include countries with intermediate and low levels of schooling and drop-out rates that are likewise intermediate or relatively high by regional standards. In order to estimate the losses associated with school drop-out during the primary and secondary cycles, it is important to note, first of all, the significant differences in the returns per additional year of primary and secondary schooling. Among both males and females, the returns on secondary education are much higher than those on primary schooling: 10.6% compared with 6.1% for males, and 12.1% and 6.0% for females. The higher rate of return on secondary education in the case of women is a general tendency in the countries in groups A and B, but not in group C, where women obtain a higher rate of return from primary education.³¹

A second observation is that, with few exceptions, the rates of return on primary education showed a clear tendency to diminish during the last decade, which is probably due to the expansion of enrolment in that cycle, the reduction in school drop-out, and the consequent increase in the average level of education of wage earners who reach that level. This tendency is observed for both sexes. The changes in the returns on secondary education, however, were less systematic, although they too showed a slight downward trend, especially among males in the first group of countries, where secondary enrolment expanded faster.

A trend which was very clear during the last decade was the increase in the return per extra year of tertiary education (post-secondary or higher education); this return not only continued to be much

28 See, for example, Woods (2002).

29 The estimates of the returns per additional year of education in the primary and secondary cycles were made through regressions based on a Mincer specification scaled by educational cycle. The log of hourly wages in the urban areas of each country was used as an independent variable. The parameters were estimated separately for males and females (see box III.5).

30 The returns in the labour markets for extra years of education in each cycle naturally change as the average number of years of education of those joining the labour force increases: the returns go down as a result of the "devaluation" caused by the trend towards universal coverage, first of primary schooling and then of secondary education (see ECLAC, 2000).

31 It could be argued that in these countries the "premium" obtained by women entering the labour market is given for lower levels of education than in the other countries, precisely because women taking up employment do so with fewer years of schooling.

METHOD USED TO ESTIMATE THE PRIVATE RETURNS TO EDUCATION

The origins of the empirical analysis showing the influence of schooling on income formation go back to the late 1950s and 1960s. The work of Jacob Mincer (1958 and 1962) and Gary Becker (1964), based on the human capital theory, generated evidence on the income differential that exists between persons of different sexes and educational backgrounds. The classic study positing a positive relation between schooling and income was developed by Mincer in 1974; in it, he links the log of income with the number of years of study and experience, through the following equation:

$$\ln y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{sch} + \alpha_2 \text{exp} + \alpha_3 \text{exp}^2 + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

where the parameter α_0 corresponds to the log of the income of an individual without any schooling, while α_1 is the percentage increase in income for each additional year of education completed: i.e., it corresponds to the rate of return. It is expected that $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 > 0$ and that $\alpha_3 < 0$, so that income is a decreasing function of the experience accumulated by individuals during their working life, and it is assumed that the returns remain constant regardless of the number of years of schooling. Various studies have been made on this subject during the last decade, and in the case of Latin America the available results show the positive effect of schooling in determining labour income (Psacharopoulos and Chun Ng, 1992). There is also abundant literature on the problems deriving from selection bias in the estimation of these models, as well as on the problems arising in the interpretation of the results when instrumental variables designed to correct them are incorporated (Kling, 2000).

The results presented in this issue of the *Social Panorama of Latin America* were generated from the adjustment of a function making it possible to estimate the greater income or returns deriving from a larger number of years of schooling. The average rate of return was calculated from equation (2), which was applied in order to estimate the differences generated between each of the educational cycles (basic, secondary and higher):

$$\ln y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{sch} + \alpha_2 * d_b(\text{sch}-b) + \alpha_3 * d_s(\text{sch}-s) + \alpha_4 \text{exp} + \alpha_5 \text{exp}^2 + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

The variable **sch** represents the number of years of schooling of each individual; **b** is the total number of years corresponding to the basic cycle; **s** is the number corresponding to the secondary cycle; d_b is a binary variable which has a value of 1 when an individual has a number of years of schooling equal to or greater than **b**; d_s is equal to 1 when an individual has **s** or more years of schooling, while the potential experience is obtained by subtracting from the declared age the age of entry into the formal educational system and the accumulated years of schooling. Equation (2) corresponds to an additive effects model, so that the rate of return for a given level of education is calculated by adding together the values of the parameters estimated in previous cycles. Thus, α_1 corresponds to the base parameter and is equivalent to the rate of return for the basic level of education, while $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)$ corresponds to the secondary cycle and $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3)$ corresponds to individuals who have completed higher studies.

The data bases used correspond to the microdata of household surveys carried out by the countries around the beginning and end of the 1990s, in order to evaluate the changes observed over the last ten years in the educational profile of the labour force and in the rates of return on the different educational cycles. The model was estimated on information from urban areas and separate results were generated for males and females. The estimation method used was the weighted least squares method (LSM), and the expansion factor associated with each of the observations was incorporated in the calculation algorithm. In order to identify the population of interest, a basic set of variables was selected. Thus, the sample was defined on the basis of the selection of persons aged 15 or more who stated that they were wage-earners and normally worked for more than 19 hours per week, and that during the period covered by the survey they received some income for their work. Women employed in domestic service were excluded from this procedure. The monthly income (per hour worked, assuming a standard 48-hour working week) was expressed in national currency at average prices of the year 2000.

The results obtained indicate that the selected variables make it possible to explain a large part of the observed variations in wages, while the great majority of the parameters estimated in the different models proved to be significant at the 5% level. The estimates are given in tables III.14 and III.15 at the end of this chapter.

Table III.10

LATIN AMERICA (COUNTRY GROUPS): RATES OF RETURN ^{a/} ON EDUCATION FOR MEN AND WOMEN IN EACH EDUCATIONAL CYCLE, URBAN AREAS, 1990–1999 (Percentages)							
Country groups ^{b/}	Year	Primary cycle		Secondary cycle		Higher cycle	
		Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Group A	1990	3.5	4.7	9.8	10.9	15.7	12.9
	1999	4.4	3.4	8.7	11.3	17.8	16.2
Group B	1990	6.2	6.3	9.5	11.6	12.2	9.7
	1999	6.1	5.5	9.5	11.5	14.9	13.2
Group C	1990	9.2	10.2	13.4	16.1	15.4	15.0
	1999	7.6	9.1	13.8	13.5	18.1	17.1
Simple average, 16 countries	1990	6.3	7.0	10.8	12.8	14.3	12.3
	1999	6.1	6.0	10.6	12.1	16.8	15.4

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

a/ Percentage increase in income of wage earners per additional year of education.

b/ The countries making up the groups are: Group A: Countries with relatively high average levels of education of the economically active population (EAP) and relatively low global dropout rates. Includes Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), Bolivia (8 departmental capitals plus El Alto), Chile, Colombia and Panama. Group B: Countries with levels of education of the EAP close to the average for the region and global dropout rates somewhat higher than Group A. Includes Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay (Asunción and Departamento Central), Uruguay and Venezuela (national total). Group C: Countries with relatively low average levels of education of the EAP and relatively high global dropout rates. Includes Brazil, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua. The values of the rates of return per year of education in each cycle are given for each of the countries in tables III.14 and III.15 at the end of this chapter.

higher, but also increased the gap with respect to the returns given by “investment” in extra years of education at the secondary level. This clearly reflects the higher income being obtained on the labour market by the most highly-qualified urban wage earners, and is in line with the increase in the wage gap between workers of higher and lower educational levels registered in the majority of the countries during the past decade.³²

It may be deduced from the big increase in the returns on the different school cycles that early drop-out entails growing costs in terms of the labour income forgone, so that dropping out of school not only means sacrificing years of studies which would give well-defined returns on completion of the cycle in question, but also, and above all, wasting the opportunity to gain access to the higher income that could be obtained after completing subsequent cycles.

1. How much labour income is lost during their working life by young people who drop out early?

From the point of view of the returns in terms of higher income in the labour market, the arguments in favour of improving the retention of children and young persons in school are irrefutable. Table III.11 summarizes the results of estimates based on different hypotheses as regards an increase in the number of years of schooling –and hence a reduction in school drop-out– in the three groups of countries covered by the previous table.³³ The exercise was carried out by setting different targets for the countries in each group in the light of the relative magnitude of school drop-out in the different stages of education.³⁴

In the case of the first group of countries (those with relatively low rates of drop-out, and in which a

32 See ECLAC (2002b, chap. 10, pp. 307–346).

33 The only exception is Peru, which was excluded from group A of table III.10 because data for the early 1990s were not available.

34 In this sense, this is simply an exercise and not an effort to propose equal targets for different subgroups of Latin American countries. Nor is there any suggestion that policies should not be aimed at reducing drop-out at all levels and in all cycles. The aim is to give an idea of the magnitude of the gains that young people can make by staying in school until they have reached certain levels of education, on the basis of hypotheses which seem reasonable in the light of the figures for drop-out in the various stages of school life.

Table III.11

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INCREASES IN URBAN LABOUR INCOME FOR DIFFERENT HYPOTHESES OF INCREASED NUMBERS OF YEARS OF SCHOOLING, AROUND 1999										
Country	Year	Global dropout rate among young people aged between 15 and 19		Return per extra year of primary education ^{a/}		Return per extra year of secondary education ^{a/}		Increase in income due to completion of 2, 3 or 4 extra years of schooling		
		Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	
Argentina	1999	25	21	5.7	2.5	9.1	10.4	20	23	2 years' extra schooling, up to completion of secondary cycle
Bolivia ^{b/}	1999	14	17	4.1	6.1	5.6	11.7	12	26	
Chile	2000	14	14	4.7	4.4	10.5	11.1	23	25	
Colombia	1999	24	23	2.8	4.9	8.8	8.8	19	19	
Panama	1999	28	23	6.0	3.7	9.5	11.8	21	27	
Peru	1999	17	16	2.7	4.9	8.6	8.4	19	18	
Simple average		20	19	4.3	4.4	8.7	10.4	19	23	
Costa Rica	1999	34	27	4.6	4.1	9.0	8.3	31	28	3 years' extra schooling, up to completion of first secondary sub-cycle (9 years' schooling)
Ecuador	1999	29	27	5.7	6.7	9.2	13.0	32	48	
Mexico	2000	35	36	6.0	7.3	9.1	13.5	31	50	
Paraguay ^{c/}	1999	24	30	5.4	2.1	9.7	11.4	34	41	
Uruguay	1999	38	29	7.1	7.4	11.2	10.8	40	38	
Venezuela ^{d/}	1999	39	30	7.9	5.4	8.6	12.3	29	44	
Simple average		33	30	6.1	5.5	9.5	11.5	33	42	
Brazil	1999	24	22	11.2	8.2	17.5	17.5	57	39	4 years' extra schooling, up to completion of primary cycle of each country
El Salvador	1999	29	31	6.9	7.6	13.3	15.3	32	36	
Guatemala	1998	40	41	5.7	8.6	16.3	19.9	26	41	
Honduras	1999	51	44	7.9	9.2	11.7	10.4	37	44	
Nicaragua	1998	35	33	6.4	11.7	10.0	11.7	29	60	
Simple average		36	34	7.6	9.1	13.8	15.0	36	44	
Simple average for 17 countries		31	29	5.9	6.2	10.5	12.1	29	36	

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

a/ Estimates based on the application of the Mincer model scaled by educational cycle (see box III.4).

b/ The information on school drop-out corresponds to 1997.

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

d/ National total.

substantial proportion of adolescent drop-outs are during the secondary level), an estimate was made of the (percentage) increase in income that young people would obtain if they sought urban employment with two extra years of schooling. It is therefore a question of determining the effect of completing secondary education. In four of the six countries in the group³⁵ this means completing 12 years' schooling. It may be seen from the table in question that staying in school until the end of the secondary cycle results

in increases in labour income³⁶ that average around 19% for men and 23% for women.

In the second group of countries –which have somewhat higher drop-out rates, mostly concentrated at the end of the primary cycle, including students who drop out during the first year of the secondary cycle– the increase in income was estimated on the assumption that students successfully complete three more years in school after completing the primary

35 Of the six countries in the group, only Colombia and Peru have a secondary cycle which involves the completion of 11 rather than 12 years' schooling.

36 These refer to increases in the average hourly wages of urban wage-earners habitually working more than 19 hours per week (see box III.5).

cycle, representing a total of nine years' schooling. This generally coincides with the end of the first secondary cycle. In this case, the results show greater increases in income than in the first group, because on average in the countries of this second group there is a greater return per additional year of secondary education; moreover, the hypothesis involves the successful completion of more years of schooling. Thus, the increases in income are around 33% for male adolescents and 42% for women.

In the third group of countries, whose urban drop-out rates are relatively higher (except in Brazil, where those rates were reduced towards the end of the decade) and in which school drop-out most often takes place in the first years of the primary cycle, the exercise was based on the assumption of four additional years of schooling, up to completion of the primary cycle in each country. The estimated average increases in income are of the order of 36% for men and 44% for women. In this group, there is more dispersion of the amounts of increase between countries: outstanding examples in this respect are Brazil, because of the high rate of return per extra year among men (11.2%) and Nicaragua, because of the high rate for women (11.7%). In these two cases, the increase in income gained by those prolonging their schooling up to the end of the primary cycle is close to 60% (see table III.11).

By way of conclusion, it may be said that policies designed to improve the retention of children in school not only have a high rate of return in terms of lower social costs but also have significant effects as regards increasing labour income, as shown above. The greater opportunities for obtaining better-paid jobs are also reflected in less frequent and shorter episodes of unemployment for those who complete the secondary cycle and are able to continue their studies, as well as smaller wage losses when they obtain new jobs.³⁷ The benefits of increasing the internal efficiency of educational systems are also reflected in substantial savings of public resources, since students who repeat grades or drop out are mostly in establishments run or financed by the State.

Equally important is the fact that a drastic reduction in the number of children dropping out of school before or at the end of the basic cycle is a prime means of avoiding child labour and complying with the international agreements in this respect, as exemplified in the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Furthermore, the evidence accumulated on the private returns of more years of schooling suggests that in the case of girls the prolongation of their education generally gives greater returns in urban labour markets than in the case of boys, so that policies designed to keep girls in school would appear to help narrow the wage gap between the sexes.

It is worth repeating that social programmes designed to reduce early school drop-out should occupy a leading place on the agendas of the governments of the region. Efforts to improve the indices of retention of children in the primary cycle, as well as to raise the quality of the education provided, are crucial for the fulfilment of the Millennium Development Targets. They will not only help to attain the educational goals adopted by governments for the year 2015 but are also a necessary condition for reducing inequality and achieving more ambitious objectives in terms of improving the quality of human resources in Latin America.

However, the efforts to avoid school drop-out so that the young people of today can attain better levels of education and higher labour income in the future, so that they will be able to keep their families out of poverty, will not give all the desired fruits unless educational policies –whose potential effects on well-being and equity are of a long-term nature– are accompanied by the vigorous generation of good-quality jobs and suitable social protection, so that the better-qualified labour force can be absorbed in productive employment. An increasingly close match between the structures of labour supply and demand, in a context of growing productivity and higher income, is essential if the increase in the number of years of schooling of young people is to be properly rewarded and not “devalued”.³⁸

³⁷ See ECLAC (2001a, chap. III, p. 110).

³⁸ Devaluation refers to the phenomenon whereby, as the average coverage and level of education of a society rise, more years of schooling are required in order to obtain the same type of job and income level as before.

THE CURRENT STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS OF LATIN AMERICA

Educational systems are designed to develop skills for their future life in students, to prepare them to compete in an increasingly globalized labour market, and thus give them a chance to obtain higher economic rewards: in the final analysis, they are designed to provide them with the tools they need to be integrated and participative citizens of their societies.

The main reason for structuring formal educational systems in cycles is to fulfill a number of fundamental objectives and provide consistent minimum contents which maintain continuity through the different grades. In the Latin American countries, these systems display considerable differences and have undergone changes over the course of time, some of them quite recent. The differences concern both the compulsory age of entry and the duration of the primary and secondary cycles, with the latter cycle being divided in turn into a first sub-cycle, after which most of the educational systems offer the possibility of moving to technical/professional or vocational training or continuing, in a second sub-cycle, with scientific or humanistic studies.

The classification of young people aged between 15 and 19 in each country as students or drop-outs (according to their age and educational level and whether they are attending school or not) depends on the characteristics of the educational system of each country at the time of the survey, although it is also necessary to take account of the possibility that the systems were different when the young people entered the educational system (8 or 9 or even 12 or 13 years before the survey, depending on the official age of entry). The table below shows the basic characteristics of the primary and secondary educational systems of the countries, most of which were in force both at the time of the survey and of the entry of the young people into the system.

Country	Official age of entry into first grade of basic education	Duration of primary cycle (years)	Total duration of primary and secondary cycles (years)	Duration of the primary and secondary cycles, by age of admission to the last period a/															
				5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
Argentina	6	7	12		P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S1	S2	S2		
Bolivia	6	8	12		P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	S	S	S	S		
Brazil	7	8	11			P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	S	S	S		
Chile	6	8	12			P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S2	S2		
Colombia	6	5	11			P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S1	S1	S2	S2			
Costa Rica	6	6	11			P	P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S1	S2	S2			
Ecuador	6	6	12			P	P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S1	S2	S2	S2		
El Salvador	7	9	12				P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	S	S	S	S
Guatemala	7	6	12				P	P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S1	S2	S2	S2	S2
Honduras	7	6	11				P	P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S1	S2	S2		
Mexico	6	6	12			P	P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S1	S2	S2	S2		
Nicaragua	7	6	11				P	P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S1	S2	S2		
Panama	6	6	12			P	P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S1	S2	S2	S2		
Paraguay b/	7	6	12				P	P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S1	S2	S2	S2	S2
Peru	6	6	11			P	P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S2	S2	S2			
Dominican Rep. c/	7	6–8	12				P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	S	S	S	S
Uruguay	6	6	12				P	P	P	P	P	S1	S1	S1	S2	S2	S2		
Venezuela d/	7–6	9	12–11				P	P	P	P	P	P	P	P	S	S			

Source: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), "Education and Literacy database" (<http://www.uis.unesco.org/en/stats/stats0.htm>), various issues; *UNESCO Statistical Yearbook*, Rome, various issues; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), UNESCO Regional Education Office for Latin America and the Caribbean/Government of Chile (UNESCO-OREALC), *Informe Regional "Panorama educativo de las Américas"*, Santiago, Chile, regional project on educational indicators, January 2002, and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), "América Latina y el Caribe. Informe regional países" (<http://www.uis.unesco.org/en/pub/pub0.htm>), 2001.

a/ P: Primary; S: Secondary; S1: Secondary first cycle; S2: Secondary second cycle.

b/ According to the UIS, in 1994 the official age of entry in Paraguay was changed from 7 to 6 years of age (the table shows the old system).

c/ In this country, there was first of all an extension of the length of the primary cycle from 6 years (plus 6 years of secondary education, divided into two sub-cycles of 3 years each) to 8 years (plus 4 years of secondary education), and in 1996 the age of entry was changed from 7 to 6 years of age.

d/ In Venezuela, the age of entry was reduced from 7 to 6 years of age and the secondary cycle was reduced to 2 years.

Note: The UIS data for 1980 and 1985 differ in their characterization of the length of the primary and secondary cycles (9 and 3 years, respectively) as compared with the data published in the UNESCO Statistical Yearbook for the same years (6 and 6 years, respectively). The first-named data were preferred because of their consistency with the changes made in the system in 1986 and their later updating.

It should be borne in mind that the special features of each educational system determine to a considerable extent the magnitude of the different types of school drop-out, because longer cycles increase the likelihood of drop-out during the cycle. It should also be borne in mind that in some countries the application of systems of automatic promotion from one grade to the next –mainly in the primary cycle– tend to reduce drop-out due to scholastic failure (repetition).

Table III.12

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): DROP-OUT RATES ^{a/} AMONG ALL YOUNG PEOPLE AGED BETWEEN 15 AND 19 AND AMONG THOSE BELONGING TO QUARTILE 1 AND 4 OF THE INCOME DISTRIBUTION SCALE IN URBAN AREAS IN THE 1990s													
Country	Year	Global drop-out rate			Early drop-out rate			Drop-out rate at end of primary cycle			Drop-out rate in secondary cycle		
		Total	Per capita income quartile b/		Total	Per capita income quartile b/		Total	Per capita income quartile b/		Total	Per capita income quartile b/	
			Q ¹	Q ⁴		Q ¹	Q ⁴		Q ¹	Q ⁴		Q ¹	Q ⁴
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	36	47	17	2	4	1	20	30	5	17	21	12
	1999	23	33	7	1	3	1	12	19	3	10	14	4
Argentina	1999	23	32	8	2	4	1	12	19	3	10	13	5
Brazil	1990	40	49	19	34	45	12	7	5	5	3	2	3
	1999	23	32	6	17	27	4	5	5	2	2	2	1
Chile	1990	21	29	9	7	11	3	5	8	1	11	13	5
	2000	14	23	4	4	6	1	4	6	2	8	12	1
Colombia	1991	30	33	23	7	9	5	10	11	7	16	17	13
	1999	24	31	13	4	7	2	6	8	4	15	20	7
Costa Rica	1990	33	44	15	5	8	0	19	29	5	14	13	10
	1999	30	42	8	6	13	2	17	25	3	10	12	4
Ecuador	1990	24	24	20	4	3	4	12	13	10	11	10	8
	1999	28	38	14	3	6	1	15	18	8	12	19	5
El Salvador	1995	32	39	22	23	29	15	10	12	6	3	3	2
	1999	30	39	14	21	29	8	9	11	6	3	4	1
Honduras	1990	49	57	31	15	18	7	31	41	18	12	11	10
	1999	47	52	35	11	18	5	32	35	20	13	11	15
Guatemala	1998	40	59	22	16	28	6	16	30	5	15	20	13
Mexico	2000	35	47	9	4	7	0	10	14	2	25	34	6
Nicaragua	1993	32	44	20	12	19	3	12	17	10	12	17	8
	1998	34	43	19	13	20	7	11	14	6	15	17	8
Panama	1991	28	40	15	4	6	3	12	21	8	15	20	5
	1999	25	37	12	3	5	1	9	13	7	16	24	5
Paraguay (Asunción and Depto. Central)	1994	34	44	28	7	11	6	15	18	10	18	23	15
	1999	27	44	16	3	8	1	13	22	8	13	22	7
Paraguay	1994	40	50	30	12	22	6	17	19	13	18	20	15
	1999	32	42	21	6	10	4	16	22	10	14	16	9
Peru	1999	16	18	9	2	3	0	4	5	2	11	12	7
Dominican Republic	1997	19	17	15	12	13	11	4	3	3	4	2	2
Uruguay	1990	37	51	15	2	4	0	13	23	4	25	33	11
	1999	34	48	9	2	5	0	12	21	1	23	31	8
Venezuela	1990	40	40	32	32	34	21	5	4	5	8	6	9
	1999 ^{c/}	35	41	21	30	38	16	5	4	4	2	1	1
Simple average ^{d/}	1990	33	42	20	11	15	5	14	19	8	13	15	9
	1999	29	38	13	8	12	3	12	16	6	12	15	5

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

a/ For the calculation of the respective drop-out rates, see box III.1. Except for the global drop-out rate, the other rates shown here were calculated after excluding young people who dropped out in stages previous to the stage in question, and are therefore not cumulative.

b/ Refers to the 25% poorest and 25% richest households, ordered by per capita income.

c/ National total.

d/ Excludes Guatemala, Mexico, Peru, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela but covers Greater Buenos Aires in Argentina and total urban areas in Paraguay.

Table III.13

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): DROP-OUT RATES ^{a/} AMONG ALL YOUNG PEOPLE AGED BETWEEN 15 AND 19 AND AMONG THOSE BELONGING TO QUANTILES 1 AND 4 OF THE INCOME DISTRIBUTION SCALE IN RURAL AREAS IN THE 1990s													
Country	Year	Global drop-out rate			Early drop-out rate			Drop-out rate at end of primary cycle			Drop-out rate in secondary cycle		
		Total	Per capita income quartile ^{b/}		Total	Per capita income quartile ^{b/}		Total	Per capita income quartile ^{b/}		Total	Per capita income quartile ^{b/}	
			Q ¹	Q ⁴		Q ¹	Q ⁴		Q ¹	Q ⁴		Q ¹	Q ⁴
Brazil	1990	65	61	60	61	60	53	7	3	12	1	1	3
	1999	36	34	29	32	32	23	4	2	7	1	0	1
Chile	1990	56	57	50	30	36	21	24	22	21	19	14	20
	2000	32	35	22	14	17	7	12	13	9	10	10	8
Colombia	1991	59	59	57	26	27	23	32	33	30	19	15	20
	1999	46	47	40	16	18	12	21	21	19	18	18	16
Costa Rica	1990	69	72	59	18	26	8	51	55	42	22	16	23
	1999	55	62	38	14	22	5	39	43	28	15	14	10
El Salvador	1995	63	66	59	56	63	47	14	9	18	2	0	5
	1999	57	60	50	50	55	41	13	9	15	2	1	2
Honduras	1990	81	82	79	38	46	30	65	63	62	14	10	20
	1999	76	82	69	31	40	22	57	63	47	18	18	24
Guatemala	1998	76	75	66	46	51	28	46	44	40	17	9	22
Mexico	2000	60	72	44	12	24	5	24	33	16	39	44	30
Nicaragua	1993	65	66	54	44	46	41	25	22	16	17	19	6
	1998	67	64	70	42	43	33	30	28	34	19	12	32
Panama	1991	53	62	33	11	16	5	36	47	22	19	16	9
	1999	42	48	23	8	8	4	26	32	10	16	17	11
Paraguay	1999	56	66	41	20	27	10	36	46	21	14	14	17
Peru	1999	45	45	37	18	25	15	21	20	11	15	9	17
Dominican Republic	1997	28	18	26	25	18	20	2	0	2	2	0	6
Venezuela	1990	65	61	65	61	58	57	5	3	8	7	4	10
Simple average ^{c/}	1990	64	66	56	35	40	29	32	32	28	14	11	13
	1999	51	54	43	26	29	18	25	26	21	12	11	13

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

^{a/} For the calculation of the respective drop-out rates, see box III.1. Except for the global drop-out rate, the other rates shown here were calculated after excluding young people who dropped out in stages previous to the stage in question, and are therefore not cumulative.

^{b/} Refers to the 25% poorest and 25% richest households, ordered by per capita income.

^{c/} Includes Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama.

Table III.14

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): RESULTS OF REGRESSIONS TO EVALUATE THE EFFECT OF EXTRA YEARS OF SCHOOLING, BY EDUCATIONAL CYCLE, ON URBAN WAGES OF MEN AND WOMEN, AROUND 1990

Country	Year	Men								Women							
		Parameters						Adjusted R ²	Number of observations	Parameters						Adjusted R ²	Number of observations
		α_0	α_1	α_2	α_3	α_4	α_5			α_0	α_1	α_2	α_3	α_4	α_5		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	14.538	0.0289* (1.84)	0.0746 (3.77)	0.0229* (1.20)	0.0312 (7.88)	-0.0004 (-5.03)	0.296	1322	14.078	0.0898 (2.67)	-0.0076* (-0.19)	0.0435* (1.93)	0.0294 (4.66)	-0.0004 (-2.54)	0.288	583
Bolivia (8 departmental capitals plus El Alto)	1989	5.683	0.0501 (4.99)	0.0295* (1.48)	0.0781 (4.05)	0.0442 (11.85)	-0.0006 (-7.87)	0.283	2773	5.426	0.0702 (4.01)	0.0621* (1.82)	-0.0435* (-1.54)	0.0394 (7.01)	-0.0006 (-4.94)	0.289	1086
Brazil	1990	3.962	0.1295 (73.82)	0.0831 (16.73)	0.0099* (1.63)	0.0715 (78.61)	-0.0010 (-55.84)	0.517	40221	4.045	0.1096 (35.73)	0.0757 (10.78)	0.0517 (7.43)	0.0438 (33.34)	-0.0006 (-19.86)	0.502	20525
Chile	1990	10.536	0.0362 (8.49)	0.0747 (10.25)	0.1038 (14.81)	0.0415 (26.45)	-0.0006 (-17.86)	0.366	11695	10.550	0.0285 (3.46)	0.0803 (5.99)	0.0610 (6.27)	0.0285 (12.31)	-0.0004 (-6.73)	0.387	4742
Colombia	1991	11.832	0.0372 (7.43)	0.0443 (7.32)	0.0519 (13.27)	0.0406 (33.39)	-0.0006 (-22.92)	0.407	12880	11.807	0.0216 (2.62)	0.0723 (7.64)	0.0243 (5.48)	0.0336 (19.84)	-0.0004 (-10.29)	0.407	7629
Costa Rica	1990	10.369	0.0671 (6.83)	0.0357 (2.76)	0.0246 (2.11)	0.0428 (13.86)	-0.0006 (-8.99)	0.420	2123	10.545	0.0268* (1.54)	0.1038 (4.98)	-0.0182* (-1.35)	0.0266 (6.52)	-0.0003 (-3.59)	0.468	1064
Ecuador	1990	14.150	0.0318 (4.37)	0.0429 (4.74)	0.0231 (2.82)	0.0395 (18.61)	-0.0005 (-12.71)	0.263	4992	13.613	0.0536 (3.31)	0.0687 (3.63)	-0.0508 (-4.77)	0.0386 (11.25)	-0.0005 (-5.81)	0.309	2018
El Salvador	1995	6.509	0.0655 (14.98)	0.0464 (3.70)	0.0352 (2.45)	0.0396 (16.48)	-0.0006 (-12.25)	0.426	2803	6.152	0.0721 (9.10)	0.1137 (5.79)	-0.0357* (-1.88)	0.0388 (9.93)	-0.0006 (-6.06)	0.512	1446
Guatemala	1989	6.040	0.0907 (14.06)	0.0481 (4.68)	-0.0365 (-2.89)	0.0411 (14.68)	-0.0005 (-9.69)	0.430	2700	5.453	0.1501 (13.40)	0.0221* (1.33)	-0.0677 (-4.05)	0.0534 (11.36)	-0.0007 (-7.36)	0.580	1118
Honduras	1990	6.651	0.0965 (14.65)	0.0246 (2.28)	0.0412 (3.12)	0.0522 (18.51)	-0.0007 (-12.91)	0.459	2977	6.242	0.1394 (10.91)	0.0279* (1.55)	-0.0208* (-1.29)	0.0382 (8.98)	-0.0003 (-3.32)	0.577	1345
Mexico a/	1989	6.686	0.0667 (9.48)	0.0401 (3.99)	0.0462 (3.66)	0.0640 (28.04)	-0.0009 (-21.42)	0.324	5569	6.429	0.0924 (6.47)	0.0527 (2.91)	-0.0475 (-2.60)	0.0537 (13.97)	-0.0008 (-8.87)	0.293	2407
Nicaragua	1993	6.319	0.0785 (6.65)	0.0088* (0.45)	0.0496 (2.08)	0.0493 (9.70)	-0.0007 (-7.25)	0.266	1298	6.769	0.0381 (2.05)	0.0574 (2.06)	0.0155* (0.63)	0.0151 (2.08)	-0.0002* (-1.07)	0.225	660
Panama	1991	4.468	0.0211 (2.31)	0.0916 (7.61)	0.0423 (3.92)	0.0613 (19.33)	-0.0008 (-12.02)	0.427	2667	4.362	0.0256* (1.23)	0.1028 (4.22)	0.0141* (1.14)	0.0540 (12.80)	-0.0007 (-7.01)	0.434	1554
Paraguay (Asunción and Depto. Central)	1994	12.414	0.0531 (2.73)	0.0576 (2.46)	0.0622 (3.84)	0.0434 (9.72)	-0.0006 (-6.80)	0.491	989	12.570	0.0287* (0.61)	0.0809* (1.55)	0.0220* (1.06)	0.0319 (5.09)	-0.0004 (-2.64)	0.392	494
Paraguay	1994	12.211	0.0757 (5.85)	0.0403 (2.46)	0.0563 (4.01)	0.0485 (14.05)	-0.0007 (-10.26)	0.462	1794	12.380	0.0603 (2.16)	0.0509* (1.58)	0.0260* (1.43)	0.0300 (5.78)	-0.0004 (-3.03)	0.421	758
Uruguay	1990	7.211	0.0662 (7.98)	0.0391 (3.87)	-0.0169* (-1.76)	0.0484 (23.95)	-0.0005 (-14.52)	0.322	4824	6.956	0.1097 (6.12)	-0.0115* (-0.58)	-0.0039* (-0.34)	0.0381 (13.08)	-0.0005 (-8.51)	0.292	2620
Venezuela	1990	12.278	0.0660 (46.87)	0.0126 (2.94)	0.0134 (2.67)	0.0367 (56.82)	-0.0005 (-38.76)	0.337	35080	12.281	0.0611 (26.34)	0.0252 (4.77)	-0.0136 (-2.58)	0.0240 (25.51)	-0.0003 (-15.80)	0.310	17719
Venezuela (National total)	1990	12.091	0.0861 (69.41)	-0.0137 (-3.29)	0.0211 (4.15)	0.0372 (59.38)	-0.0005 (-39.51)	0.362	39482	12.250	0.0643 (29.38)	0.0248 (4.86)	-0.0171 (-3.29)	0.0235 (25.71)	-0.0003 (-15.58)	0.313	18586

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

a/ The questions in the survey did not allow proper construction of the "number of years of schooling", so the variable "class marks" was used, which represents half (in number of years) of each cycle and its completion.

Note:

α_0 : Constant term.

α_1 : Regression coefficient associated with number of years of schooling. Corresponds to the private rate of return on each additional year of schooling in the primary cycle.

α_2 : Regression coefficient associated with number of additional years of schooling after completion of the primary cycle. The expression $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2$ corresponds to the private rate of return on each additional year of schooling in the secondary cycle.

α_3 : Regression coefficient associated with number of additional years of schooling after completion of the secondary cycle. The expression $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3$ corresponds to the private rate of return on each additional year of education in the higher cycle.

α_4 : Regression coefficient associated with the potential experience of the individual in question.

α_5 : Regression coefficient associated with the potential experience of the individual in question, squared.

The t statistics are shown in brackets. The values which are not statistically significant at the 5% level are marked with an (*).

For a complete explanation of the characteristics of the model applied, see box III.5.

R²: Correlation coefficient, squared.

Table III.15

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): RESULTS OF REGRESSIONS TO EVALUATE THE EFFECT OF EXTRA YEARS OF SCHOOLING, BY EDUCATIONAL CYCLE ON URBAN WAGES OF MEN AND WOMEN, AROUND 1999																	
Country	Year	Men								Women							
		Parameters						Adjusted R ²	Number of observations	Parameters						Adjusted R ²	Number of observations
		α_0	α_1	α_2	α_3	α_4	α_5			α_0	α_1	α_2	α_3	α_4	α_5		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1999	5.531	0.0477 (3.53)	0.0397 (2.44)	0.0687 (5.14)	0.0319 (9.41)	-0.0004 (-6.19)	0.355	1797	5.741	-0.0056* (-0.21)	0.1370 (4.43)	-0.0100* (-0.61)	0.0240 (5.44)	-0.0003 (-2.82)	0.379	994
Argentina	1999	5.148	0.0572 (11.25)	0.0338 (5.35)	0.0327 (5.75)	0.0458 (31.49)	-0.0006 (-20.93)	0.299	12047	5.403	0.0255 (2.33)	0.0787 (6.28)	0.0093* (1.39)	0.0341 (18.27)	-0.0004 (-10.20)	0.321	6343
Bolivia (8 departmental capitals plus El Alto)	1999	5.928	0.0396* (1.60)	0.0214* (0.51)	0.1309 (3.82)	0.0359 (4.86)	-0.0004 (-2.71)	0.358	605	5.527	0.0478* (1.07)	0.0709* (0.87)	0.0769* (1.27)	0.0314 (2.57)	-0.0006 (-2.05)	0.374	290
Bolivia	1999	5.957	0.0408 (2.03)	0.0150* (0.43)	0.1414 (4.75)	0.0358 (6.00)	-0.0005 (-3.61)	0.367	795	5.444	0.0610* (1.67)	0.0563* (0.84)	0.0756* (1.46)	0.0329 (3.14)	-0.0006 (-2.28)	0.403	370
Brazil	1999	4.290	0.1125 (69.60)	0.0630 (15.25)	0.0668 (13.68)	0.0605 (76.56)	-0.0008 (-49.90)	0.516	42779	4.464	0.0816 (29.11)	0.0934 (15.99)	0.0588 (11.00)	0.0388 (37.17)	-0.0005 (-19.46)	0.512	24233
Chile	2000	10.801	0.0473 (15.82)	0.0575 (11.97)	0.1109 (25.80)	0.0291 (29.20)	-0.0003 (-17.55)	0.401	22315	10.748	0.0444 (7.26)	0.0668 (7.25)	0.0862 (13.82)	0.0189 (12.74)	-0.0001 (-3.84)	0.442	10150
Colombia	1999	11.875	0.0278 (4.05)	0.0598 (7.40)	0.0895 (19.11)	0.0363 (24.53)	-0.0005 (-15.65)	0.442	10680	11.823	0.0487 (4.19)	0.0390 (2.99)	0.0788 (15.11)	0.0242 (13.28)	-0.0002 (-5.06)	0.455	7146
Costa Rica	1999	10.660	0.0462 (4.57)	0.0438 (3.40)	0.0641 (5.99)	0.0289 (10.51)	-0.0004 (-6.87)	0.425	2521	10.702	0.0413 (2.08)	0.0418* (1.80)	0.0595 (4.34)	0.0176 (4.41)	-0.0002 (-1.68)	0.405	1363
Ecuador	1999	13.462	0.0574 (6.66)	0.0350 (3.41)	0.0321 (4.25)	0.0356 (16.51)	-0.0004 (-9.62)	0.357	5391	13.165	0.0668 (3.56)	0.0635 (2.87)	-0.0393 (-3.47)	0.0354 (9.83)	-0.0004 (-5.03)	0.316	2508
El Salvador	1999	6.479	0.0688 (21.17)	0.0647 (7.02)	0.0530 (4.68)	0.0383 (20.90)	-0.0005 (-14.48)	0.460	5598	6.224	0.0762 (13.87)	0.0766 (5.75)	0.0185* (1.40)	0.0512 (12.49)	-0.0008 (-14.09)	0.527	3007
Guatemala	1998	5.858	0.0572 (7.07)	0.1061 (8.69)	-0.0213* (-1.64)	0.0587 (19.45)	-0.0009 (-14.90)	0.473	3036	5.489	0.0863 (5.79)	0.1123 (5.39)	-0.0654 (-4.13)	0.0490 (11.26)	-0.0007 (-6.75)	0.499	1649
Honduras	1999	6.678	0.0788 (9.32)	0.0378 (2.98)	0.0318 (2.22)	0.0338 (11.11)	-0.0004 (-7.30)	0.448	2312	6.546	0.0919 (7.36)	0.0124* (0.75)	0.0547 (3.61)	0.0307 (7.75)	-0.0004 (-4.18)	0.460	1493
Mexico	2000	6.752	0.0601 (6.41)	0.0305 (2.46)	0.0992 (8.78)	0.0521 (19.05)	-0.0007 (-13.91)	0.394	3907	6.346	0.0729 (3.73)	0.0620 (2.65)	0.0280* (1.91)	0.0547 (12.49)	-0.0008 (-7.51)	0.401	1906
Nicaragua	1998	6.269	0.0643 (5.48)	0.0362* (1.71)	0.0837 (3.17)	0.0384 (7.46)	-0.0005 (-4.98)	0.314	1284	6.075	0.1169 (5.13)	-0.0723* (-2.05)	0.1135 (3.51)	0.0252 (3.11)	-0.0004 (-1.98)	0.260	639
Panama	1999	4.672	0.0599 (6.15)	0.0347 (2.99)	0.0556 (7.34)	0.0381 (16.08)	-0.0004 (-8.08)	0.460	3734	4.620	0.0369* (1.33)	0.0812 (2.70)	0.0131* (1.31)	0.0330 (9.94)	-0.0003 (-4.02)	0.445	2056
Paraguay (Asunción and Depto. Central)	1999	12.590	0.0538 (2.05)	0.0431* (1.40)	0.0692 (3.84)	0.0341 (6.85)	-0.0004 (-3.55)	0.417	815	12.798	0.0212* (0.39)	0.0924* (1.55)	0.0266* (1.16)	0.0231 (3.38)	-0.0001 (-0.93)	0.375	476
Paraguay	1999	12.171	0.0905 (5.47)	0.0243* (1.20)	0.0614 (3.89)	0.0415 (10.31)	-0.0005 (-5.89)	0.441	1418	12.742	0.0020* (0.05)	0.1255 (2.83)	0.0282* (1.42)	0.0317 (5.76)	-0.0004 (-2.87)	0.424	689
Peru	1999	5.281	0.0269* (0.96)	0.0594* (1.62)	0.0565 (2.77)	0.0408 (8.19)	-0.0005 (-4.81)	0.291	1190	5.063	0.0488* (0.82)	0.0349* (0.45)	0.0920 (2.69)	0.0317 (3.80)	-0.0004 (-1.91)	0.325	586
Uruguay	1999	7.237	0.0711 (7.89)	0.0414 (4.05)	0.0312 (4.37)	0.0540 (31.55)	-0.0007 (-20.15)	0.362	9040	7.289	0.0742 (4.13)	0.0340* (1.78)	0.0250 (3.30)	0.0381 (18.31)	-0.0005 (-11.19)	0.330	5865
Venezuela (national total)	1999	11.534	0.0791 (23.20)	0.0065* (0.54)	0.0316 (2.45)	0.0307 (17.97)	-0.0004 (-11.21)	0.259	9467	11.656	0.0535 (9.03)	0.0691 (4.41)	0.0008* (0.06)	0.0205 (9.58)	-0.0002 (-4.53)	0.343	5251

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

Note:

α_0 : Constant term.

α_1 : Regression coefficient associated with number of years of schooling. Corresponds to the private rate of return on each additional year of schooling in the primary cycle.

α_2 : Regression coefficient associated with number of additional years of schooling after completion of the primary cycle. The expression $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2$ corresponds to the private rate of return on each additional year of schooling in the secondary cycle.

α_3 : Regression coefficient associated with number of additional years of schooling after completion of the secondary cycle. The expression $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3$ corresponds to the private rate of return on each additional year of education in the higher cycle.

α_4 : Regression coefficient associated with the potential experience of the individual in question.

α_5 : Regression coefficient associated with the potential experience of the individual in question, squared.

The **t** statistics are shown in brackets. The values which are not statistically significant at the 5% level are marked with an (*).

For a complete explanation of the characteristics of the model applied, see box III.5.

R²: Correlation coefficient, squared.



The social agenda

**Social capital:
its potential and limitations
for the implementation
of social policies
and programmes**

Introduction

The purpose of the social agenda is to provide a diagnosis of emerging social issues. In view of the importance that the question of social capital and its possible contribution to social policies has assumed in recent years, it has been selected for study here in order to try to answer a number of questions: What do we understand by social capital? What are the main approaches and positions on this question? What is the potential of social capital, and what are the limitations of the approach based on the idea of strengthening the capabilities of the most vulnerable groups in order to reduce poverty? What interesting examples of this approach are to be found in the region?¹

As is customary in the *Social Panorama*, the section on the international social agenda enumerates the main international meetings and agreements on social matters, briefly describing the results of the Eleventh Iberoamerican Summit of Heads of State and Government and the Sixteenth Presidential Summit of the Rio Group. By way of contrast and comparison, it also summarizes the agreements adopted by the World Social Forum, which has twice brought together in Porto Alegre a varied group of non-governmental social and political actors who are opposed to what they call the “single development model”.

1 The information used in the preparation of this chapter came to a large extent from the Conference “In search of a new paradigm: social capital and poverty reduction in Latin America and the Caribbean”, jointly organized by ECLAC and Michigan State University and held at Santiago, Chile, from 24 to 26 September 2001.

A. Social capital: the origins of this concept

The concept of social capital is not new. Right from the start, the social sciences have analysed some of its constituent elements, such as reciprocity and types of exchanges and solidarity, and have studied its contribution to such functions as social control and support from inside and outside the family.

The concept of social capital and related issues have been addressed from the very beginning by the social sciences, especially sociology and anthropology. In both of these disciplines there are classic studies on the normative and value-related component of societies which guides social relations towards the expression of different types of solidarity, mutual exchanges or reciprocity. Behavioural models have also been analysed which inclu-

de the rational element as a constituent factor of social phenomena. The sociological literature has seen social capital as a source of social control, family support and generation of benefits transmitted through networks outside the family (Portes, 1999). Important elements of the concept, just as it appears now, may be found in the works of the founders of sociology and anthropology (see table IV.1).

Table IV.1

ORIGINS OF THE CONCEPT OF SOCIAL CAPITAL	
Authors	Elements used in the concept of social capital
Sociologists	
Emilio Durkheim	Mechanical solidarity, i.e., that practiced in pre-modern societies, and organic solidarity, which makes possible social integration in modern societies
Carlos Marx	Class consciousness and solidarity restricted to the area within the limits of the community
Max Weber	Social action and the subjective nature of action: end-related rational action, value-related rational action, affective action, and traditional action
Anthropologists	
Raymond Firth	Social organization as regular relations which generate social institutions and structures
Marcel Mauss	Reciprocity of exchanges in pre-mercantile systems: giving, receiving and repaying
George Foster	Dyadic contracts as the basis for relations between peers and reciprocity networks

Source: Miguel Bahamondes, "Evaluación y fortalecimiento del capital social en comunidades campesinas", final consultancy report, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)/Instituto de Desarrollo Agropecuario (INDAP)/Instituto Interamericano de Cooperación para la Agricultura (IICA) for the project "The contribution of peasant social capital to the efforts to overcome rural poverty", 2001; John Durston, *¿Qué es el capital social comunitario?*, Políticas sociales series, No. 38 (LC/L.1400-P), Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), 2000. United Nations publication, Sales No. S.00.II.G.38; Fernando Franulic, "Documento de discusión interna sobre capital social. Distinciones conceptuales básicas", Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), unpublished, 2001; Alejandro Portes, "Capital social: sus orígenes y aplicaciones en la sociología moderna", *De igual a igual. El desafío del Estado ante los nuevos problemas sociales*, Jorge Carpio and Irene Novacovsky (eds.), Buenos Aires, Sistema de Información, Monitoreo y Evaluación de Programas Sociales (SIEMPRO)/Latin American Social Sciences Faculty (FLACSO), Fondo de Cultura Económica, 1999; Max Weber, *Economía y sociedad*, Mexico City, Fondo de Cultura Económica, 1974.

B. Main approaches and positions

There is a wide variety of approaches and positions regarding social capital which lay stress on the capacity to mobilize resources; membership of networks; the sources originating social capital; the individual or collective actions that the social capital infrastructure makes possible; and finally, the positive and negative consequences and results that it can generate.

There is therefore a wide range of definitions and shades of meaning both of the concept of social capital and of its applications.²

There are two main dimensions or guiding lines underlying the different ways of addressing this concept. The first sees it as a specific capacity for

Table IV.2

AUTHORS AND DEFINITIONS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL	
Authors	Definitions
The founders a/	
Pierre Bourdieu, 1985	The set of real or potential resources available to the members of a lasting network of more or less institutionalized relations
James Coleman, 1990	The socio-structural resources which constitute a capital asset for the individual and facilitate certain common actions by those making up that structure
Robert Putnam, 1993	Aspects of social organizations, such as networks, norms and confidence, which facilitate action and cooperation for mutual benefit. Social capital increases the benefits of investment in physical and human capital
International institutions	
World Bank, 1998 (Woolcock, Dasgupta)	Institutions, relations, attitudes and values which govern interpersonal interaction and facilitate economic development and democracy (see box IV.1)
IDB, 1998 (Kliksberg)	Norms and networks which facilitate collective action and further the common good (see box IV.2)
UNDP, 2000 (Lechner)	Informal relations of confidence and cooperation (family, neighbourhood, colleagues); formal associativity in various types of organizations, and the normative and value-related institutional framework of a society which promotes or inhibits relations of confidence and civic commitment (see box IV.5)

Source: Pierre Bourdieu, "The forms of capital", *Handbook of Theory and Research for the Sociology of Education*, J. Richardson (ed.), Greenwood, New York, 1985; James Coleman, *Foundations of Social Theory*, Cambridge, Massachusetts, Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 1990; Partha Dasgupta and Ismail Serageldin (eds.), *Social Capital: A Multiperspective Approach*, Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1998; Bernardo Kliksberg, "El rol del capital social y de la cultura en el proceso de desarrollo", *Capital social y cultura: claves estratégicas para el desarrollo*, Bernardo Kliksberg and Luciano Tomassini (eds.), Washington, D.C., Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), 2000; Norbert Lechner, "Desafíos de un desarrollo humano: individualización y capital social", *Instituciones y desarrollo*, No. 7, Instituto Internacional de Gobernabilidad (<http://www.iigov.org>), 2000; United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), *Desarrollo humano en Chile: Más sociedad para gobernar el futuro*, Santiago, Chile, March 2000; Robert Putnam, "The prosperous community: social capital and public life", *American Prospects*, No. 13, 1993; Michael Woolcock, "Social capital and economic development: toward a theoretical synthesis and policy framework", *Theory and Society*, No. 27, 1998.

a/ Both North (1990), who considers institutions as sets of norms and values which facilitate the establishment of relations of confidence between actors, and Granovetter (1985), who asserts that the economic actors are not isolated individuals but are dovetailed in social relations, networks and structures, have contributed important elements for the conceptualization of social capital.

2 Both theoretical and empirical studies have been made of social capital from the standpoints of anthropology, economics, history, sociology and psychology. We are therefore dealing with a truly interdisciplinary paradigm (Robinson, Siles and Schmid, 2001).

mobilization of resources by a group, while the second focuses on the availability of networks of social relations (Atria, 2002). The capacity for mobilization involves two specially important notions: leadership, and its counterpart, empowerment (see table IV.3).

The capacity for mobilizing resources comprises the notion of associativity³ and the horizontality or verticality of social networks. These characteristics have given rise to a distinction between networks of relations within a group or community (bonding), networks of relations between similar groups or communities (bridging) and networks of external relations (linking) (see box IV.1).

The social capital of a group could be understood as its effective capacity to mobilize in a productive

manner, for the benefit of the community, the associative resources located in the various social networks to which its members have access.

The associative resources taken into account in order to estimate the social capital available to a group or community are the relations of confidence, reciprocity and cooperation. Confidence is the result of the repetition of interactions with other persons who, in line with experience, will respond with an act of generosity, thus strengthening a link which combines acceptance of risk with a sense of affection or enhanced identity. Reciprocity has been conceived as the guiding principle of a logic of interaction quite foreign to the logic of the market, which assumes exchanges based on gifts. Cooperation, for its part, is a complementary action designed to achieve shared objectives of a common activity (Durstun, 2001).

Table IV.3

THE MAIN LINES OF SOCIAL CAPITAL		
Associative resources	Mobilization capacity	
	within the group (leadership of the group)	outside the group (leadership by the group)
Predominance of inward-looking social networks (cohesion networks)	A. Restricted social capital	B. Developing social capital
Predominance of outward-looking social networks (networks of alliances)	B. Developing social capital	C. Expanded social capital

Source: Raúl Atria, "Capital social: concepto, dimensiones y estrategias para su desarrollo", Santiago, Chile, Social Development Division, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), unpublished, 2002.

Box IV.1

THE WORLD BANK APPROACH

The World Bank makes a distinction between **natural capital**, which consists of the natural resource endowment of a country; **constructed capital**, which is generated by human beings and includes infrastructure, capital goods, and financial, trade and other forms of such capital, and **social capital**, which refers to the institutions, relations and norms formed by the social interactions of a society.

It would be of crucial importance to invest in the organizational capacity of the poor, which involves making investments at the micro level in order to promote the creation of organizations and acting at the macro level by changing rules and laws in order to support and sustain associative activity. It is also important to promote inter-group ties. Some World Bank publications make a clear distinction between different types of social capital: one which creates ties among members of the same community (bonding), another which gives rise to synergies between dissimilar groups (bridging), and a third which links local communities with outside agents such as the State and NGOs (linking). The first of these is limited to furthering the well-being of its members, the second opens up economic opportunities for poorer and excluded groups, and the third links social capital with broader dimensions of social and economic policy.

Source: Michael Woolcock, "Social capital and economic development: toward a theoretical synthesis and policy framework", *Theory and Society*, No. 27, 1998; Norman Uphoff, "Understanding social capital: learning from the analysis and experience of participation", *Social Capital: A Multiperspective Approach*, Portha Dasgupta and Ismail Serageldin (eds.), Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1999.

3 Associativity is understood as the voluntary unremunerated organization of individuals or groups which establish an explicit link in order to attain a common objective (UNDP, 2000, p. 114).

Two strategies have been identified for developing group social capital. The first is the strategy of empowerment, which consists of actions designed to increase the mobilization capacity of the group by transforming the existing leadership within the group into leadership by the group.

The second course of action is a strategy of associativity, that is to say, actions designed to expand or strengthen the ambit or scope of the networks in which the group members participate and thus strengthen cooperation with other groups, through new linkages with their networks.

Taking as his starting point individual, social and community social capital, Durston (2001) distinguishes three approaches to social capital: (i) individual maximization by rational choice, in which social capital is conceived as a set of rules of coexistence and cooperation activities deriving from the individual exercise of a rationale of maximization of gains; (ii) a class relation which determines ideological superstructures and the distribution of goods; and (iii) complex social systems made up of multiple agents, in which society is seen as an ecological-type system with feedback mechanisms and various degrees of intelligent management. In this model, it is considered that social capital is a set of intangible assets mobilized by individual and collective agents

through their strategies and undertakings. Its causality is not of a unidirectional nature.

Flores and Rello (2001), for their part, classify the definitions according to the sources and infrastructure originating the social capital, the collective action that the infrastructure makes possible, and the results of that action. According to these authors, the essential feature of social capital is that it is a capacity: the capacity to obtain benefits by making use of social networks.

The considerable variety of definitions of social capital is due to the fact that it is a concept used by various different disciplines, each of which focuses on different aspects. The international development institutions find it useful because it attaches importance to knowledge of the relations between economic actors and between their (formal or informal) types of organization and helps to increase the efficiency of economic and social activities. These types of social and institutional relations are considered to be desirable because they share positive externalities for development and there would thus be a form of complementation between public policies and associativity and the social capital paradigm based on confidence, reciprocity and cooperation. Social capital would reduce transaction costs, produce public goods and facilitate the activities of effective grass-roots organizations (Durston, 2000).

Box IV.2

THE IDB'S INTER-AMERICAN INITIATIVE FOR SOCIAL CAPITAL, ETHICS AND DEVELOPMENT

This initiative aims to promote the strengthening of ethical values and social capital in the countries of the region. Its central objectives are as follows:

1. To stimulate the analysis and discussion of the ethical challenges and dilemmas arising in the development of the region and the assumption of responsibilities in connection with them by the main decision-makers.
2. To further cooperation for the development of the social capital latent in the region by strengthening voluntary organizations, expanding the social responsibility of private enterprise, and promoting the adoption of codes of ethics by the key social actors.
3. Fostering the inclusion of goals and criteria which involve ethical dimensions and the mobilization of social capital in the preparation and implementation of development projects by international organizations and government agencies.
4. Promoting the integration into school curriculums of systematic programmes for the teaching of development ethics which will also favour the growth of social capital.
5. Forming a network of academic and research centres which will further systematic long-term action in the field of ethics and development in the areas of research, publications and contributions to the public debate.
6. Fostering greater knowledge and diffusion of the subjects of ethics and development and social capital among the mass media.

Source: Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) (2001), "Inter-American Initiative of Social Capital, Ethics and Development" (<http://www.iadb.org/etica/ingles/index-i.htm>), August.

C. Analytical shortcomings in approaches to social capital

Among the conceptual shortcomings displayed by approaches to social capital, special mention may be made of their insufficient analysis of its links with other concepts such as power- and especially gender- related inequalities, clientage and the existence of negative social capital, which can delay or inhibit the positive effects of social programmes and projects. Furthermore, because of its wide conceptual diversity, the definition and measurement of common indicators continues to be a pending task.

1. Social and power-related inequalities

There are two approaches to social capital. The first centres on the element of conflict, by stressing the existence of inequalities in the endowments of social capital and the use made of it to maintain positions of power in such cases as political conflict and internal conflicts within communities;⁴ the second, in contrast, stresses consensus, cooperation and coordination, which are aspects that are more related with confidence and the possibility of providing the less well-endowed with tools and capabilities. The international institutions and much of the literature on this subject usually stress this second approach.

Thus, the raw material for building social capital may be found in all societies, subject to the special features typical of each culture. Everyone uses social capital in their strategies and in the satisfaction of

their economic, social and affective needs. All societies possess the ability to work together and practice mutual aid on the basis of a shared identity, as well as the ability to form organizations to attain certain goals shared by the communities and social groups involved. In that same social environment, however, there are also informal cultural norms whose logic may run counter to the urge to associate. This is particularly evident in nations which are highly segmented in economic and social terms, like the Latin American countries (Ocampo, 2001).

As already noted by various authors (Bourdieu, 1985; Fukuyama, 1999), social capital is not equally distributed in society, due to social gaps (educational and socio-economic level) or assigned (gender or race) or geographical (urban, rural) differences. This concept therefore serves both to analyse assets or resources of poor sectors which are not being fully used and to examine the situation as regards inequality, although fewer studies have been made from the

⁴ Bourdieu (1997) defines the social space as a field of opposing forces and struggles between agents. This power field is the space for struggles between the different types of capital or between agents possessing one of the different types of capital to dominate the field in question, and the tension between positions is a constituent aspect of the structure of the field. Nevertheless, however great the autonomy of the field may be, the result of these struggles is never completely independent of external factors. The relations of strength therefore depend on the state of the external struggles and the reinforcements that may be found in the exterior.

latter perspective. As already noted, if the State limits itself to using the existing institutional channels, the resources it assigns may be obtained and distributed through informal relations, which are sometimes corrupt and may be subject to the unwritten rules of clientage. As an alternative, however, the social capital of excluded sectors should be promoted in order to help them to become valid social actors, to which end the State must play a more proactive role, allowing the sectors to define their own needs and the ways to satisfy them in an autonomous manner (Durstun, 2001).

In this respect, some authors have warned that there are socio-political dynamics in the development of social capital that operate both inside and outside groups and communities which lead to the establishment of power relations that can result in the emergence of local groups or factions and clientage-based alliances which divert State support. This means that the State and its agents are part of a scenario which can create conditions that are either favourable or unfavourable to the development of social capital, at the local level and in society at large (Durstun and Miranda, 2001). Cases of clientage and nepotism are much more frequent at the local level, through expanded family networks and bossism, over which there is less capacity for control. A crucial point is how to link up the pro-

duction and circulation of this social capital with the broader political scene (Feijoó, 2001).

2. Gender inequality

The development, strengthening and reproduction of social networks are often based on resources deriving from the work of women in the family and the community. This is the “caring economy”, which corresponds to the goods and services produced free of charge by women for their households and communities and is reflected in their caring for old people, the sick and children (Elson, 1998). This voluntary domestic work, which is carried out especially by poorer women, produces major resource flows for the economy (UNIFEM, 2000).

A striking point which is noted when using the concept of social capital is that most authors ignore gender relations and concentrate exclusively on male networks, without making any separate analysis of the major differences produced between male and female networks because of their unequal endowments of social capital (Molyneux 2002). Generally speaking, the increase in female associativity is not subsequently expressed in an increase in their political empowerment (see box IV.3).

Box IV.3

WHAT IS “EMPOWERMENT”?

- It is the process of acquisition of power, both for controlling outside resources and for enhancing self-confidence and internal capabilities.
- Although outside agents of change can spark off the process or create a supportive environment for it, in the final analysis it is persons who “empower” themselves.
- True empowerment may not be a neutral process, so that those who are committed to it must be ready to face social upsets.
- Empowerment is not a zero-sum game, although there may be winners and losers in certain senses.
- Group processes are often crucial for the attainment of empowerment, but personal change in individuals is also essential.
- Empowerment is not a synonym for decentralization or participation, nor for participation from the bottom up: it is a much more powerful concept than this.

Source: Gita Sen, “El empoderamiento como un enfoque a la pobreza”, *Género y pobreza: nuevas dimensiones*, I. Arriagada and C. Torres (eds.), Ediciones de las mujeres, No. 26, Santiago, Chile, Isis Internacional, 1998, p. 127.

A word of warning is also called for regarding the possible “naturalization” of women’s supposed “disposition” to help to maintain social capital, which means that it is all too easy to make them responsible for the proper development of some projects, such as those regarding family health, protection of the environment or community development (Molyneux, 2002). Thus, many development agendas and projects for self-help and strengthening of voluntary organizations depend heavily on unpaid work by women, without taking into account the opportunity cost of women’s time.

3. Negative social capital

The literature on social capital generally stresses its positive dimensions, although mention is made of the existence of four possible negative consequences, namely the exclusion of outsiders, excessive demands on the members of the group, restrictions on individual liberties, and norms that level down towards a lowest common denominator.⁵

“At the individual level, the processes involved in the concept of social capital are of a two-edged nature. The social ties can give greater control over undesirable forms of conduct and provide privileged access to resources, but they can also restrict individual liberties and prohibit outsiders from having access to those same resources, through particularist preferences. For this reason, it seems preferable to view these multiple processes as social facts that should be studied in all their complexity, rather than as examples of a value. As a label for the positive effects of sociability, I consider that social capital does have a place in theory and research, provided that its different sources and effects are recognized and that its bad aspects are examined just as closely as its good ones” (Portes, 1999, p. 262).

Some texts give examples of areas of conflict that can arise in the interaction of social and economic institutions and between agents and communities. In the case of the rural sector, a distinction is made between

the reason for the conflict (land, water, animals, infrastructure, etc.) and the environment in which it occurs (the household, relatives, groups, neighbours, etc.). Reference is also made to conflicts among small farmers originating in the generation change associated with the objective reduction of new production units and in the cultural changes among the new generations, together with the processes of “masculinization” taking place in rural areas (Dirven, 2001).⁶

4. Clientage

Clientage is one of the oldest and most basic problems in the relations between community and grassroots organizations and State and non-governmental agents in Latin America. Different types of clientage may be distinguished within a continuum that extends from authoritarian to paternalistic varieties. These types of relations may be enhanced with others which are more likely to strengthen collective social capital, such as the training of members of organizations until the latter become autonomous and public and private officials have to render accounts to them (see box IV.4).

It has been noted that “many of the failures in traditional anti-poverty programmes are due to the technocratic and paternalistic relations that exist between development agencies and the population they serve. In a hierarchical State system in which carrying out orders is the main requirement for obtaining a positive rating, a view of the poor as people who lack various strengths is functional to this system of being accountable to those at a higher level. Part of this perception is due to a persistent blindness to the social and human capital present in poor communities” (Ocampo, 2001).


5. Measurements

There are serious difficulties in the measurement of social capital, and it has been said that although it is indeed possible to measure it, those measurements will only comply with the basic requirements of strict scientific validity in random cases (Fine, 2001).

5 Among the negative forms assumed by social capital, mention is usually made of mafia-type “families”, environments of prostitution and gambling, and juvenile gangs.

6 This is the counterpart to the greater outflow of women from these areas, which is 12% greater than the outflow of men between 15 and 29 years of age in the region.

A TYPOLOGY OF THE RELATIONS BETWEEN THE STATE AND COLLECTIVE SOCIAL CAPITAL

Social capital 	–	1. Authoritarian, repressive and kleptocratic clientage	• Violently represses popular social capital and permits the pillaging of public funds as electoral booty.
		2. Passive clientage: paternalistic, technocratic, bureaucratic and party-oriented	• Turns social capital into the passive receipt of products and creates dependence.
		3. Semi-clientage: “incubating” and training	• Fosters autonomous organization and training in management skills and the capacity to propose projects. Protects organization in the social, economic and local and regional political fields.
		4. Agencies that empower and provide support	• Continues to develop the system of self-management of already established organizations that operate with some degree of autonomy. Expands the local level of action and strengthens weak social actors.
	+	5. Synergic co-production between the State and civil society	• The grassroots and second-level organizations establish and manage their own strategies, sign contracts with the State and other outside agencies, manage their financial resources and contract services to improve the quality of life of their members. The public officials and technicians hired are accountable to the organized users.

Source: John Durston, “Capital social: parte del problema, parte de la solución. Su papel en la persistencia y en la superación de la pobreza en América Latina y el Caribe”, paper presented at the conference “En busca de un nuevo paradigma: capital social y reducción de la pobreza en América Latina y el Caribe”, Santiago, Chile, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)/University of Michigan, 24–26 September 2001.

Social capital has a major qualitative dimension. It calls for measurement of the nature of collective action, the difficulties inherent in that action and the group concerned, and the performance and adaptability and resistance of the group in the face of difficulties. All these variables are hard to quantify. One possibility would be to use social surveys on the values and confidence of citizens, although the answers to these questions will vary according to the way they are posed and the person asking them; generally speaking, the answers will lack continuity and information will not be available for many countries. Another possibility would be to measure the

absence of social capital, through traditional measurements of social conflictivity such as the crime rate, the incidence of use of drugs, the number of suicides, the level of tax evasion, etc. (Fukuyama, 1999).

In general, there are not many measurements of social capital for the region. Some indicators have been defined for the analysis of personal networks and degrees of associativity (Espinoza, 2001). Some efforts have also been made to measure the degree of associativity as a referent of the social capital existing, although this type of measurements runs into some obstacles which are listed in box IV.5 below.

THE DIFFICULTY OF MEASURING SOCIAL CAPITAL

Few studies have been made in Latin America with a view to measuring social capital. One attempt made in Chile in 1999 indicates that associativity could represent the social base needed for the proper functioning of economic and political institutions. In this sense, the expression “social capital” is used to sum up the degree of associativity, social confidence, reciprocity and civic commitment existing in the societies in question. The study distinguishes between formal (i.e., in social, political and economic institutions) and informal associativity, and says that in Chile it seems reasonable to assume that many persons (especially the younger ones) are seeking new forms of association. They have links of association, confidence and cooperation, but these are perhaps more tenuous and flexible than before, shifting from formal to informal associativity. The study does, however, confirm the difficulties presented by the measurement of associativity, understood as the voluntary unpaid organization of individuals or groups which establish an explicit link in order to attain a common objective. Among the main limitations indicated by the report are the absence of records of forms of association, the lack of processing and systematization of the existing information, the scant updating of sources, incomplete records, and problems in the computerized handling of the data.

Source: United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), *Desarrollo humano en Chile. Más sociedad para gobernar el futuro*, Santiago, Chile, March 2000.

D. Some ways in which social capital Helps to overcome poverty

The concept of social capital can represent a contribution to anti-poverty programmes. Special mention should be made in this respect of efforts to increase participation through the active incorporation of the persons concerned, which makes possible proper accountability and gives due importance to the environment of the programmes in question.

The participative approach is positively linked with social capital. It calls for various changes in the outside agent: the latter must change its relationship with the groups served; it must be accountable to the population served; it must see itself as just another member of a community; and it must promote the co-production of goods by the State agent and the communities served.

What is known as community social capital complements public services in various ways (Durston, 2000). Firstly, it links them with the household: something which is specially important in programmes designed to overcome poverty. Secondly, the mobilization of community social capital helps to make programmes to promote urban micro-enterprises and peasant production more effective. In both cases, the new approach contributes its capacity to integrate the inter-personal networks that permeate the relations between the State and society, in the place of the more traditional approach whereby these two levels are distinct and isolated from each other.

It has been maintained that it is only possible to create and strengthen social capital and foster synergic relations between the public agent and poor communities by acting at the local and regional level in which they are located. There are any number of examples of the efficacy of associative micro-enterprise programmes, community contributions to the construction and management of social infrastructure, and of the role that can be played by civic associations acting as pressure groups at the political level to ensure that the benefits of programmes effectively reach the groups they are intended for (Ocampo, 2001). In this respect, concrete measures are suggested for supporting the formation of the social capital of poor actors, such as promoting favourable conditions for the emergence of social capital, counteracting political and economic clientage, developing the strategic negotiation capacity of leaders, and facilitating the access of marginal communities to networks offering information and services (Durston, 2001).

E. Suggestions for increasing or strengthening social capital⁷

Among the suggested ways of increasing or strengthening the existing social capital there are four possible types of policies: promotional, cultural, participative and coordination and synergy-oriented policies.

The social capital approach offers four types of policies for removing the mechanisms for the intergenerational transmission of unequal opportunities for achieving well-being. Firstly, it is necessary to establish policies to promote the social capital approach itself, so that social researchers, agents and promoters can be trained in both the theory and practical methods of social capital.

Second, it is important to establish a platform of cultural policies and, on that basis, promote pioneering social capital experiences. Kliksberg (1999) considers a linkage between culture and social policies to be vital, because the cultural background of peoples is a positive way of generating social integration and also strengthening common values. A conscious policy of promoting popular and peasant culture in Latin America would foster the local identity and make possible the emergence of social capital.

Third, State action should be focused on policies for the creation and strengthening of social capital, as a form of direct intervention in the community. It has been noted that community institutions can be induced by outside agents through suitable means, thus seeking the co-production of individual and family social capital

which will link up with the community institutions to achieve their “empowerment”.

It has been suggested that in the new social policy model, and above all in the social capital approach, the personal commitment of officials or researchers is needed. It is considered that all social capital analysts should carry out two main tasks: first, to promote the search for social capital precursors,⁸ and to study the social capital deposited and stored in the historical memory of groups, which existed in the past but has been weakened by internal rivalries or repressed by outside forces (Durston, 2000). It has also been argued that social scientists are in an ambiguous situation between the scientific and political fields, and that their personal commitment to a community is therefore both normal and favourable for overcoming poverty (Bourdieu, 1995, cited in Franulic, 2001).

Fourth, it is necessary to promote policies for the coordination of social capital, since many of the areas of concern to governments, such as poverty, the family, gender or ethnic issues, are related with transverse dimensions of other policies which call for a high degree of coordination and integration in order to be effective.

⁷ This section is based on Franulic (2001).

⁸ The following precursors of social capital have been identified: social memory, identity (including ethnic identity), religion, neighbourhood, friendship, kinship, principles of horizontal and vertical reciprocity, and elements of socio-emotional satisfaction (Durston, 2001).

F. Good practices in the fight against poverty

Some practices followed in Brazil, Chile and Guatemala offer lessons on the usefulness of applying the different dimensions of social capital to anti-poverty programmes. Among them are: the use of non-traditional forms of social capital, the adoption of novel forms of organization, and, most importantly, the existence of a real political will to share the economic resources and, ultimately, power of the State institutions.

1. The participative municipal budget of Porto Alegre, Brazil. An example of the use of existing social capital⁹

The example of participative municipal budgeting put into practice in the city of Porto Alegre has aroused interest even at the international level, and nearly 70 municipalities in Brazil are now applying similar procedures.

In view of the social problems which existed and the limited access of broad sectors of the population to basic services, it was decided to invite the population to participate in the management of the investments section of the municipal budget. For this purpose, the city was divided into 16 areas in which the budget execution figures and future estimates were analysed and priorities were identified at the neighbourhood level, to be subsequently harmonized at the area and global level. Another analysis and decision-making mechanism operates with respect to major items of concern: urban development, transport, health attention, leisure, education and culture.

The results have been highly effective. It is estimated that in 1995 some 100 000 persons participated in the process. In this way, the population redirected resources to solve the most keenly felt problems: the coverage of drinking water supply increased to 98%, the coverage of the sewerage system rose to 80.4%, and the degree of paving of streets increased to 30%, while the coverage of the educational system was also expanded and an adult literacy programme was set up. At the same time, the resource allocation process was made more transparent and there was effective social control of its execution. The broad base of social support for the profound budgetary changes involved made it possible to increase tax collection and enhance fiscal equity, while the opportunities for corruption and clientage were sharply reduced.

In all this, full use was made of the existing social capital, reflected in a tradition of community associations. These were actively mobilized and played a fundamental role in the various levels of decision-making set up. A vital element in this was the political will to share power and create genuine participation mechanisms which generated a climate of confidence and an incentive for constructive civic behaviour.

⁹ Based on information given in Kliksberg (2000).

2. Chile: an example of the reconstruction of intercultural social capital¹⁰

The Universidad de La Frontera, in Temuco, Chile, is carrying out the Participative Management of Education Project–Kelluwün (“solidarity” in the Mapuche language), which involves the development of social participation in education, and especially an intercultural dialogue, in the Municipality of Ercilla, Malleco.

This project provides for an intercultural dialogue, through work with predominantly Mapuche communities. Through participative research and action, the promotion of social organization, cultural reconstruction, the upgrading of teachers, new designs of curricula, and communication for the development and articulation of institutions (mediation), it is aimed to put into effect such concepts as social capital, empowerment and cultural capital, grassroots organization and education (in the broad sense), all linked together around the reconstruction of the local educational system, new teaching methods and bilingual intercultural curricula, and local power and government.

The programme was begun at the end of 1999 and is due to end in 2002,¹¹ and its interest lies in the fact that its evaluation and systematization are centered not so much on successes or failures (there have been both of these) as on conceptual, methodological and politico–social learning processes which will help to secure a better design of future intercultural projects.

a) The main learning processes

Methodologically, the project has shown its potential for mobilizing local communities, especially in terms of social reflection on a problem of collective interest (in this case, the education of the community). Practical experience has shown the need to adapt the original design to the four contexts in which it was applied (one urban and three rural), so that in no place was the same pattern followed strictly.

The persons involved in the project gained in their self-esteem because they were consulted and identified themselves with the project. The educational issue was raised in all the various organizations and institutions making up the civil society and local government of the commune concerned. The project also succeeded in sensitizing the local authorities to new ways of building and exercising democracy, both at the level of the mayor and of the councillors and heads of local services.

Popular participation and the reactivation of community organizations was also facilitated through free reflection on education, contextualized according to the various different realities and needs and local interests and social movements.

The organizations can express their views not only on specific matters (drinking water supply, health, housing) but also on other matters related with them in line with the logic of community development, and moreover they can submit their views in writing and thus make them public.

b) The role of conflicts in the development of the process

The existence within rural communities of conflicts and internal divisions which are to some extent a reflection of the long history of conflicts between the State and indigenous communities in Chile gave rise to difficulties and made it necessary to readapt the design of the project and extend the period of time before its initiation. In addition, the conflicts between some communities and forestry companies gave rise to outbreaks of violence. These situations show how complex the execution of the project has been, and have represented obstacles which have been very difficult to overcome. Even in these circumstances, however, the communities used the possibilities offered by the project to open up real spaces for the expression of their desires and aspirations in educational matters.

Real progress has been made in securing greater community participation in these matters, and this

¹⁰ Based on Williamson (2002).

¹¹ It is financed by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation (US\$ 400 000 for three years).

has helped to improve relations between the schools and the community. In some cases, closer relations between teachers and the community have been facilitated through the exchange of opinions –often divergent and critical– on educational matters. Each of the sectors involved has made an analysis of its responsibility for what has been done or what has failed to be done to improve the educational process of the community, as manifested in the school.

In so far as this is a university project designed to make a contribution to knowledge, every effort was made to avoid the instrumentalization of communities and persons, and the aim at all times was to work with them in their efforts, challenges, conflicts over land, their struggle for bilingual intercultural education and other matters, with an emphasis on learning processes in the various fields of action.

In short, the concept and methodology of participative research and action is an excellent means of generating social mobilization to build up the social and cultural demand for education and frame proposals. It strengthens local capabilities, puts ideas and ideals in order, generates leadership capacity –though not always in the case of formal education– and can result in the construction of autonomous means of local participation and decision-making vis-à-vis the formal system. At the same time, however, in so far as spaces are opened up for horizontal exchanges, some individuals or groups of individuals begin to establish informal territorial community links and to generate mechanisms of participation and association at the secondary-community level. This is a challenge and a social process which is in the course of development.

3. Guatemala: an example of the recovery of lost social capital¹²

In the 1990s, the Zacapa–Chiquimula Smallholders' Rural Development Project was applied during seven years in eight municipalities in eastern Guate-

mala, with the aim of significantly increasing the incomes of poor peasants. This project centered on facilitating peasants' access to bank credit and provided support in such areas as technical assistance for agriculture, road construction, organization and management, environmental conservation, improvement of housing, participation of peasant women in development, marketing, etc.

When the Project began its activities in 1991, its target group –5 000 peasant families– lacked grassroots organizations; there were some citizens' committees, but they were merely small factions of passive beneficiaries of non-governmental charitable organizations. A system of participative planning was designed which linked together the kinship groups and networks of the community into a system of core groups –made up of between 7 and 12 households with ties of close neighbourhood– which took part in the determination of the needs and priorities with regard to the services and benefits of the Project. Some 40 rural development promoters publicized the benefits of participation from house to house.

As a result of these activities, by 1998 over 400 core groups had been created, together with over 100 community councils and 8 municipal coordination committees. Almost 56% of these community organizations were evaluated as being moderately or highly autonomous in their form of operation, and during 1998 they were grouped together into a regional association of representatives which began to play a part in the establishment of rural development priorities for the region.

Among the factors explaining the success of the process of recovery of lost social capital in Guatemala are:

- i) the existence of small networks of relatives and neighbours sharing the value of common ancestry, as well as multiple ties based on cooperation, reciprocity and both horizontal and vertical confidence. These were the precursors of the core groups;

¹² Based on Durston (1999).

- ii) the shared identity of being Mayan peasants;
- iii) the historical memory of agricultural cooperatives which had existed in the 1960s;
- iv) with the withdrawal of the Army from the area, the easing of the repression which had prevailed during the 1960s;
- v) the empowerment of peasant women: their active incorporation made it possible to train human resources which had previously been excluded and to strengthen self-analysis and the democratization of leadership;
- vi) the sustained interaction over time between peasants and the rural development promoters, which strengthened the relations of reciprocity and solidarity both among peasants and between peasants and promoters.

In short, emphasis must be placed on the importance of good practices with regard to social capital, although this is still a concept whose heuristic potential is in full process of development. As Portes (1999) notes, however, the popularity of the social capital concept will keep on growing, even though it may be somewhat exaggerated, for two reasons: firstly, the set of processes covered by this concept are not new, and were already studied in the past under different names, so that using the term social ca-

pital is largely just a way of presenting the concept in a more attractive form, and secondly, there is little reason to believe that social capital will offer an easy solution for great social problems, as its boldest advocates claim. Recent assertions in this sense have merely reformulated the original problems, and so far they have not been accompanied by any convincing description of how to generate the necessary stores of public civic qualities.

From a methodological perspective, it would seem that taking account of the forms of social capital which existed or exist in a community helps the development of participative methodologies and the empowerment of weak social actors. It should be stressed, however, that it is a process which can be very slow and in some cases very costly, although it does give interesting results when it has strong support in terms of resources and training, together with the political will to change the state of poverty of specific population groups. It should be emphasized that in no case can this process take the place of social policies designed to achieve a more integrated society on the basis of a sound economy which redistributes resources more equitably. However, it can aid in the success of projects and programmes designed to reduce poverty in the region.

G. The international social agenda: presidential summits and world social forums

Two important meetings of presidents have been held in Latin America: the Eleventh Ibero–American Summit of Heads of State and Government, and the Sixteenth Presidential Summit of the Rio Group. At both these meetings the Heads of State and Government of the region reaffirmed their commitment to work for the strengthening of peace, development, protection of the environment and human rights. More specifically, the Ibero–American Summit focused on the rights of the child, while the Rio Summit concentrated more on policies aimed at the family.

The non–governmental organizations, for their part, have met at two world social forums held in Porto Alegre, Brazil, where they analysed the new characteristics of globalization, with special emphasis on its social impact. Under the slogan “Another world is possible”, they formulated various proposed agendas for combating and offering alternatives to what has been called the single development model.

1. The presidential summits

Eleventh Ibero–American Summit of Heads of State and Government

The Eleventh Summit of Heads of State and Government opened on 15 November 2001 in Lima, Peru. It centered on the progress made by 21 of the Ibero–American countries in the fulfillment of goals for improving the living conditions

of children and adolescents, and proposed key areas of action for fulfilling their rights.¹³

The slogan of the Lima Summit was “United to build tomorrow”, which sums up the idea of consolidating the area of Ibero–American cooperation and projects it into the future as a community which promotes peace, democracy and integration within the framework of a global–level dialogue among communities (see box IV.6).

¹³ This section is based on the book “Building Equity from the Beginning: the Children and Adolescents of Ibero–America”, prepared by the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), with the collaboration of the Ibero–American Cooperation Secretariat (SECIB) (ECLAC, 2001).

ELEVENTH IBERO–AMERICAN SUMMIT OF HEADS OF STATE AND GOVERNMENT

Place and date: Lima, Peru, 23–24 November 2001
Participants: Representatives of 21 Governments and Heads of State of Latin America, Spain and Portugal
Organizers: Government of Peru, Secretariat pro tempore

Preparatory activities:
 Tenth Ibero–American Summit of Heads of State and Government, Panama, 17–18 November 2000

Main agreements on social issues:

Declaration of Lima “United to build tomorrow”

Throughout a decade, and through dialogue, cooperation and solidarity, we have strengthened the Ibero–American community as a forum for political coordination and economic and social cooperation and for the full sway and consolidation of democracy in Ibero–America. In this context, the member countries agree on the following points:

- We reiterate our unwavering commitment to protect, promote and guarantee the full application of human rights. This requires the prevalence of the rule of law as well as the creation and improvement of the conditions leading to its effective and full implementation.
- We acknowledge the value and importance of Ibero–American women in the promotion of our societies' economic, social and cultural development. Therefore, we reaffirm our commitment to insure women's rights and to eliminate the obstacles that hamper their access to productive resources and their full and equitable participation in society. Within this context, we shall grant particular importance to women's participation in programs aimed at eradicating poverty by creating opportunities for their professional training, social security and access to credit, among others.
- We reaffirm the fundamental importance of children and adolescents, their rights in our societies, and the guiding role of the State in the design and implementation of social policies targeted at them and as guarantor of their rights, as well as the importance of the collaboration and initiatives provided by civil society.
- Education represents a fundamental right and, as such, is a key factor for sustainable development and an indispensable means for participation in the social and economic systems of the XXI century. Our Ibero–American community's competitiveness requires a better educational level for its population and the ability to generate knowledge. To this end, we reassert our commitment to make every effort to insure that by no later than the year 2015 all the children of Ibero–America have access to early initial education and free and obligatory primary education based, among other things, on the values of peace, liberty and democracy and the principles of non–discrimination, equity, belongingness, quality and efficiency.
- The right to development, as an essential aspect of the comprehensive, reciprocal and complementary nature of all human rights, must be implemented through incentives and the creation of favourable conditions at both the national and the international level, particularly in those countries with a higher poverty index.
- We renew our commitment to fight poverty and social exclusion by promoting suitable levels of productive and fairly remunerated employment, as well as access to free education and public health and housing services for the poorest sectors of the population, in order to help strengthen the full enjoyment of human rights, democratic institutions and social justice. Within this context, we reiterate the need to increase the flows of financial resources and international cooperation in the struggle against poverty.
- We stress the important role played by the entrepreneurial sector in the creation of employment. In this regard, and in order to promote investment in the Ibero–American countries, we have agreed to hold a Forum on Ibero–American Investments to promote productive investment in the region, stimulate small, medium–sized and micro–enterprises and insure better access to the developed countries' markets for their products.
- We acknowledge that the globalization process presents both opportunities and challenges for the development and well–being of our peoples. Nevertheless, we observe with concern that some countries are mired in economic stagnation and marginalization and that the economic, technological and productive gap between rich and poor countries has widened.
- Finally, we agree to celebrate the Twelfth Ibero–American Summit of Heads of State and Government in the Dominican Republic, in the year 2002.

Sixteenth Presidential Summit of the Rio Group

This Summit was held in April 2002 in San José, Costa Rica. During its 14 years of existence, the Rio Group has analysed the situation of the countries of the region from various perspectives, studying such issues as democracy, unilateral measures, finances, the strengthening of multilateralism, sustainable development, and prevention and attention to natural disasters.

The Final Declaration of San José renewed the commitment to the strengthening of the Rio Group as the main mechanism for dialogue and coordination, to the principles and aims of the Charters of the United Nations and the Organization of American States (OAS), to the consolidation, preservation and promotion of democracy, and to the recognition of the universal validity of human rights. It also confirmed the interest in furthering reforms to strengthen the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, the commitment to combat corruption, the rejection of terrorism, the fight against drugs, the commitment to disarmament

and the non-proliferation of weapons of mass destruction, the limitation of defence spending, and the repression of the illicit trade in small arms.

With regard to questions of development finance, it was declared that there was an urgent need for a new global form of treatment which was fair, equitable and democratic and which included such measures as the opening of markets for the exports of goods (especially agricultural goods) and services of the countries of the region, the elimination of tariff and non-tariff barriers, the suppression of unjustified subsidies and defence measures which distorted trade, special treatment for small economies, and an increase in development aid to ensure good government and development.

On this occasion, the central theme proposed by Costa Rica, the host country, was the strengthening of the family and the struggle against poverty, since the family group was the natural fundamental element of society, the medium for the transmission of values, the meeting-point between generations and the essential framework for the development of the person (see box IV.7).

SIXTEENTH PRESIDENTIAL SUMMIT OF THE RIO GROUP

Place and date: San José, Costa Rica, 11–12 April 2002
Participants: Representatives of the governments of Latin America
Organizers: Government of Costa Rica, Secretariat pro tempore

Preparatory activities:

Agreements:

- Declaration of Santiago (2001)

Main agreements on social issues:**Declaration of San José. “Strengthening the family and the struggle against poverty”**

The members of the Rio Group:

- Reaffirm the consensus embodied in the Act of Veracruz, which states that poverty is a social injustice and a potential threat to their countries' stability and that its eradication is a global responsibility requiring urgent attention. In this regard, they stress the need to take into account poverty's many different forms and causes, in order to develop public policies and strengthen the family unit. They acknowledge that the conditions and economic, social, technological and cultural transformations in society have an effect on the family unit, within a pluralistic approach based on the different State policies and international agreements on this issue.
- Highlight the importance of the family unit as the natural and fundamental element of society, a medium for the transmission of values, a meeting point between generations and the essential framework for the integral development of the person.
- Recognize that poverty threatens mankind's fundamental rights and degrades human dignity. In view of this, they will continue to foster public policies aimed at strengthening the individual capacities of family members and to implement strategies to fight poverty and its social exclusion effects, since furthering individuals' achievements and their full enjoyment of human rights within the family unit contribute to human development.
- Will continue to strengthen investment and make efforts aimed at substantially improving access to and the quality of education, in the belief that this is the only way to produce better citizens and ensure greater equality of opportunities, as well as being an effective way to compensate for social inequalities and a basic determinant of the competitiveness and development of nations, lessening international gaps.
- Express their commitment to the promotion and protection of their peoples' economic, social and cultural rights, as recognized in international legal instruments and at the United Nations Social Conferences.
- Reaffirm the State's duty to protect and support families and to this end will promote public policies having a comprehensive approach based on the needs of family members and ensuring their rights. These strategies must take into account our societies' urban–rural dimension and their multi–cultural and multi–ethnic character.
- Likewise reaffirm the need to include the issue of gender in policy design and implementation, in economic and social development tasks, as well as in measures aimed at overcoming poverty. They reiterate the need to strengthen the exchange of experience, information and programmes in this field, highlighting the role of women in all areas of activity.
- Acknowledge that migrations are a cause of family disintegration and of changes in intra–family patterns, so that this factor should be analysed in an integral manner, together with the psycho–social, economic and cultural effects caused by migrations, so that they may be taken into account when defining national policies and international actions aimed at aiding and strengthening the family unit in this respect.
- Concerned with the situation existing as a result of the increasing migration of Latin American and Caribbean nationals to other regions, agree to hold conversations with the European Community and the United States of America to analyse this problem and seek solutions aimed at regularizing migrants' official situation and to support measures to create employment in their countries of origin, in order to avoid irregular migrations.
- Reaffirm that free trade is an essential condition for the generation of true resources capable of effectively reducing poverty, and reiterate the importance for our countries to coordinate their positions in the relevant international fora.
- Acknowledge the importance of the issue of responsible parenthood and comprehensive and responsible sexual education, while respecting parents' rights and duties in the education of their children.
- As a way to improve their individual and social development possibilities, as well as those of their children, will promote support programs for adolescent mothers so that they can enter and remain in the educational system.
- Within this framework, have decided to exchange information on successful measures that are being applied in order to fight poverty and hence also strengthen the family. They agree, moreover, on the importance of putting into practice the cooperation mechanisms needed to make possible this exchange of information and technical support, with a view to reducing poverty and ensuring families' well–being.
- Agree that the next Summit shall be held in Lima, Peru, in the year 2003.

2. The world social forums held in Porto Alegre

In January 2001 and 2002, two World Social Forums were held in Porto Alegre. These brought together a broad range of social movements, political parties, labour unions and social organizations, and are the continuation of various “anti-Davos” meetings and of the activities of the organizations which had been joining together in mass protests at various international meetings of governments. The aim was to seek answers that would help to build “another world”.

At the closure of the World Social Forum 2001, when discussing the organization of a similar forum in 2002, the Organizing Committee proposed that such forums should be held every year at the same time as the Davos World Economic Forum and that an International Council of the World Social Forum should be formed. The 2001 Forum also adopted a Charter of Principles of the World Social Forum which lays down that it is a world-wide body of a non-deliberative nature embracing a broad variety of views and that its essential characteristics are plurality, reflection, and the coordination and exchange of experiences among movements of civil society.

The 2002 World Social Forum in Porto Alegre was organized around four main themes, each of which had seven sub-themes:

- **Production of wealth and social reproduction:** this covered world trade, multinational corporations, control of financial capital, the external debt, labour, the economy of solidarity and the earth, and agrarian reform.
- **Access to wealth and sustainability:** this included the analysis of knowledge and intellectual property, health and medicines, preservation of the environment, water as a common good, indigenous peoples, cities and urban populations, and food sovereignty.
- **Civil society and public spaces:** this covered the fight against discrimination, the democratization of communications, cultural output, the outlook for the global movement, the culture of violence, migrations and refugees, and education.
- **Political power and ethics in the new society:** global power, participative democracy, sovereignty, nation and State, the struggle for peace, principles, values and human rights.

The Forum attracted great interest, and a great variety of organizations were represented at it. Among the most noteworthy declarations was that of the social movements (see box IV.8).

WORLD SOCIAL FORUM, PORTO ALEGRE, 2002

Place and date:	Porto Alegre, Brazil, 31 January–5 February 2002
Participants:	Representatives of social movements, political parties, non-governmental organizations, trade unions, student organizations and ethnic groups
Organizers:	International Support Committee for the Forum, Brazilian Association of Non-Governmental Organizations, Association for the Taxation of Financial Transactions for the Aid of Citizens, Brazilian Commission for Justice and Peace of the National Council of Bishops, Brazilian Business Association for Citizenship, Amalgamated Workers' Union, Brazilian Institute for Social and Economic Studies, Centre for Global Justice, Landless Rural Workers' Movement

Preparatory activities:	World Social Forum, Porto Alegre, 25–30 January 2001
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Main features of the declaration of social movements:**Resistance to neoliberalism, militarism and war:
for peace and social justice**

In view of the continual deterioration in the living conditions of the people, the social movements of the whole world, representing tens of thousands of persons, have met at the second World Social Forum in Porto Alegre.

The global movement for social justice and solidarity faces enormous challenges: the struggle for peace and social rights means that poverty, discrimination and domination must be overcome and mankind must work to secure a sustainable society. It therefore calls for the strengthening of our alliance by promoting mobilizations and common action in favour of social justice, respect for rights and freedoms, the quality of life, equity and peace. To this end, the struggle must concentrate on the following objectives:

- The right to know and criticize the decisions taken by governments, especially regarding international institutions, and for their assumption of their responsibility to render accounts to their peoples. Along with the strengthening of electoral and participative democracy throughout the world, there is a special need to democratize the State and society and to combat dictatorship.
- The abolition of the external debt and the granting to debtors of appropriate reparations.
- The rejection of speculative activities, through the establishment of specific taxes such as the Tobin Tax on speculative capital, and the elimination of tax havens.
- The human right to communication.
- The right of women to be protected against violence, poverty and exploitation.
- The rejection of war and militarism, foreign military bases and interventions, and the systematic increase in violence. Priority must be given to dialogue, negotiation and the non-violent settlement of conflicts. All peoples must have the right to international mediation, through the participation of independent civil bodies.
- The right of young people to be socially independent and to receive free public education, while compulsory military service must be abolished.
- The self-determination of all peoples, especially the indigenous peoples.

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Table 1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990–2001										
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 1995 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1995 dollars) a/	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Mean monthly variation in consumer price index (percentage)	Percentage variation over the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income a/	Real mean remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Argentina	1990	5 545	5 403	7.4	24.92	1990–1999	34.1	32.9	1.1	250.7
	1999	7 435	7 183	14.3	-0.15	1999–2000	-2.0	-1.2	1.5	0.9
	2000	7 283	7 096	15.1	-0.06	2000–2001	-5.6	-6.4	0.0	1.1
	2001	6 872	6 642	17.4	-0.13	1990–2001	23.9	22.9	2.6	257.7
Bolivia	1989	816	834	10.2	1.29	1989–1999	16.6	16.6	31.0	104.0
	1999	952	972	8.0	0.26	1999–2000	0.1	-1.1	0.9	2.9
	2000	953	961	7.5	0.28	2000–2001	-0.9	-0.7	...	10.8
	2001	944	955	...	0.08	1989–2001	15.6	14.5	...	132.6
Brazil	1990	3 859	3 733	4.3	26.53	1990–1999	9.5	9.7	42.7	27.8
	1999	4 225	4 093	7.6	0.68	1999–2000	2.8	3.4	-1.0	3.5
	2000	4 345	4 232	7.1	0.43	2000–2001	0.2	-0.7	-5.0	9.0
	2001	4 354	4 202	6.2	0.75	1990–2001	12.8	12.6	34.2	44.2
Chile	1990	3 778	3 510	7.8 b/	2.03	1990–1999	48.7	49.9	38.5	61.8
	1999	5 618	5 263	9.8 b/	0.19	1999–2000	3.1	3.3	1.4	7.1
	2000	5 793	5 437	9.2 b/	0.37	2000–2001	1.6	-1.7	1.6	3.8
	2001	5 884	5 344	9.1 b/	0.22	1990–2001	55.8	52.2	42.7	79.8
Colombia	1991	2 158	2 142	10.5	2.00	1991–1999	5.3	4.9	11.7	-0.9
	1999	2 272	2 247	19.4	0.74	1999–2000	0.4	-0.6	3.9	0.5
	2000	2 282	2 233	17.2	0.70	2000–2001	-0.2	-0.4	0.2	1.2
	2001	2 277	2 224	18.2	0.62	1991–2001	5.5	3.8	16.2	0.8
Costa Rica	1990	2 985	2 895	5.4	2.03	1990–1999	24.0	13.9	21.6	10.4
	1999	3 701	3 298	6.2	0.81	1999–2000	0.0	-0.1	0.8	-0.5
	2000	3 699	3 294	5.3	0.82	2000–2001	-1.2	0.9	...	0.2
	2001	3 654	3 325	5.8	0.87	1990–2001	22.4	14.8	...	10.0
Ecuador	1990	1 472	1 390	6.1	3.41	1990–1999	-3.7	-3.3	...	20.5
	1999	1 417	1 345	14.4	4.04	1999–2000	0.7	5.8	...	-3.5
	2000	1 427	1 423	14.1	5.53	2000–2001	5.1	1.8	...	11.5
	2001	1 499	1 449	10.4	1.70	1990–2001	1.9	4.2	...	29.5
El Salvador	1990	1 406	1 462	10.0	1.48	1990–1999	24.8	28.7	...	0.5
	1999	1 755	1 881	6.9	-0.09	1999–2000	0.1	-1.1	...	-2.2
	2000	1 757	1 861	6.5	0.35	2000–2001	0.0	-0.3
	2001	1 757	1 856	...	0.12	1990–2001	25.0	27.0
Guatemala	1989	1 347	1 304	6.0 b/	1.54	1989–1998	13.9	21.2	31.6	-65.8
	1998	1 534	1 579	3.8 b/	0.60	1998–2000	1.9	-0.5	...	8.8
	2000	1 562	1 571	...	0.41	2000–2001	-0.8	-0.4	...	16.9
	2001	1 549	1 565	...	0.78	1989–2001	15.0	20.1	...	-56.5
Honduras	1990	686	614	7.8	2.62	1990–1999	1.2	20.1	...	-5.2
	1999	694	738	5.3	0.87	1999–2000	2.1	1.1	...	8.4
	2000	709	746	...	0.81	2000–2001	0.0	-0.8
	2001	709	740	6.3	0.71	1990–2001	3.4	20.5

Table 1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): TRENDS IN SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1990-2001										
Country	Year	Per capita GDP (in 1995 dollars)	Per capita income (in 1995 dollars) ^{a/}	Urban unemployment (percentage)	Mean monthly variation in consumer price index (percentage)	Percentage variation over the period				
						Period	Per capita GDP	Per capita income ^{a/}	Real mean remuneration	Urban minimum wage
Mexico	1989	3 925	3 853	2.7	1.51	1989-1998	14.2	15.0	8.5	-36.0
	1998	4 484	4 430	3.2	1.43	1998-2000	7.3	10.2	7.1	-2.9
	2000	4 813	4 882	2.2	0.72	2000-2001	-1.9	-2.4	5.5	0.5
	2001	4 723	4 763	2.5	0.36	1989-2001	20.3	23.6	22.6	-37.6
Nicaragua	1990	454	362	7.6 b/	50.58	1990-1998	-0.3	23.9	28.2	...
	1998	453	448	13.2 b/	1.42	1998-2000	7.9	4.9	6.1	...
	2000	489	470	9.8 b/	0.79	2000-2001	0.3	-2.8	2.9	...
	2001	491	457	10.7 b/	0.38	1990-2001	8.0	26.3	39.9	...
Panama	1991	2 700	2 463	19.3	0.13	1991-1999	21.2	27.5	...	18.1
	1999	3 274	3 140	14.0	0.13	1999-2000	1.0	-0.2	...	3.7
	2000	3 308	3 135	15.2	0.06	2000-2001	-1.1	7.7
	2001	3 272	...	16.2	0.00	1991-2001	21.2	32.0
Paraguay	1990	1 697	1 705	6.6	3.09	1990-1999	-5.5	-4.0	12.4	-11.4
	1999	1 603	1 638	9.4	0.44	1999-2000	-3.1	-2.9	1.3	4.2
	2000	1 553	1 590	10.0	0.69	2000-2001	-0.1	-0.7	...	3.5
	2001	1 550	1 579	10.8	0.67	1990-2001	-8.6	-7.4	...	-4.4
Peru	1990	1 879	1 795	8.3	43.69	1990-1999	22.9	23.6	5.8	22.9
	1999	2 310	2 218	9.2	0.30	1999-2000	1.4	0.9	1.2	11.0
	2000	2 342	2 237	8.5	0.31	2000-2001	-1.4	-1.9	-2.0	1.2
	2001	2 309	2 195	9.3	-0.01	1990-2001	22.9	22.3	5.0	38.1
Dominican Republic	1990	1 378	1 416	...	5.02	1990-1998	32.8	48.6	...	33.7
	1998	1 831	2 105	14.3 b/	0.63	1998-2000	12.5	5.2	...	-0.1
	2000	2 059	2 213	13.9 b/	0.72	2000-2001	1.1	2.5	...	5.5
	2001	2 081	2 270	15.6 b/	0.36	1990-2001	50.9	60.3	...	40.9
Uruguay	1990	4 706	4 576	8.5	7.15	1990-1999	27.8	30.6	13.7	-38.9
	1999	6 016	5 976	11.3	0.34	1999-2000	-2.5	-4.4	-1.3	-1.6
	2000	5 866	5 713	13.6	0.41	2000-2001	-3.6	-3.7	-0.2	-1.3
	2001	5 657	5 501	15.3	0.29	1990-2001	20.2	20.2	12.0	-40.7
Venezuela	1990	3 030	3 294	10.4 b/	2.63	1990-1999	0.2	-8.4	-29.9	-6.8
	1999	3 037	3 017	14.9 b/	1.53	1999-2000	1.8	17.0	-6.5	4.6
	2000	3 091	3 530	14.0 b/	1.06	2000-2001	1.4	-6.6	...	0.3
	2001	3 135	3 296	13.4 b/	0.97	1990-2001	3.5	0.0	...	-2.2

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

a/ Refers to real per capita gross national income.

b/ National total.

Table 2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000											
Country	Year	Males					Females				
		Total	Ages				Total	Ages			
			15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 49	50 and over		15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 49	50 and over
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	76	62	97	97	55	38	41	53	52	19
	1994	76	65	98	97	54	41	43	59	56	21
	1997	76	61	97	97	59	45	44	61	60	27
	1999	76	58	96	97	62	47	42	66	63	29
	2000	76	57	96	97	62	46	43	63	62	29
(Urban areas)	1999	74	53	94	97	59	44	36	62	61	27
	2000	74	52	94	96	60	45	36	62	62	28
Bolivia	1989	73	47	90	97	64	47	35	57	61	34
	1994	75	50	92	98	65	51	37	62	68	37
	1997	75	48	92	98	73	51	35	61	68	42
	1999	75	49	93	98	72	54	40	64	71	46
	2000	77	51	92	98	74	54	36	68	74	42
Brazil	1990	82	78	96	95	59	45	48	56	53	21
	1993	83	77	96	95	60	50	51	60	60	27
	1996	80	72	94	94	59	50	50	63	61	26
	1999	80	72	95	93	59	53	51	67	64	28
Chile	1990	72	47	94	95	56	35	29	47	46	20
	1994	75	49	94	96	62	38	32	50	50	23
	1996	74	44	94	96	62	39	29	53	51	23
	1998	74	44	93	97	64	41	30	57	54	26
	2000	73	39	92	96	64	42	28	57	56	26
Colombia a/	1991	81	62	97	97	69	48	44	63	56	22
	1994	79	58	96	97	65	48	43	65	59	21
	1997	78	55	96	97	65	50	42	68	63	24
	1999	79	59	96	96	64	55	48	73	69	27
Costa Rica	1990	78	62	96	95	61	39	39	53	49	14
	1994	76	59	94	96	57	40	35	54	52	17
	1997	77	60	96	96	58	42	33	61	54	21
	1999	79	61	95	96	65	45	40	58	58	23
	2000	77	59	96	96	60	43	38	59	54	49
Ecuador	1990	80	56	95	98	78	43	33	54	56	31
	1994	81	59	96	98	76	47	39	58	58	34
	1997	81	58	97	98	75	49	38	61	62	35
	1999	82	64	97	98	76	54	45	65	67	36
	2000	80	59	95	97	74	51	41	63	63	36
El Salvador	1990	80	64	95	96	72	51	41	66	66	36
	1995	78	61	95	96	68	49	36	65	69	34
	1997	75	54	95	97	66	48	33	65	68	34
	1999	75	58	93	94	63	52	38	68	69	37
	2000	75	56	93	96	66	51	35	68	70	37
Guatemala	1989	84	69	97	97	78	43	42	50	49	29
	1998	82	66	95	97	77	54	47	60	68	44
Honduras	1990	81	66	95	97	73	43	35	54	57	30
	1994	80	64	93	96	74	43	35	54	51	31
	1997	83	70	96	98	74	51	43	63	63	35
	1999	82	67	97	96	78	54	45	64	69	37

Table 2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES BY AGE GROUP, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2000											
Country	Year	Males					Females				
		Total	Ages				Total	Ages			
			15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 49	50 and over		15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 49	50 and over
Mexico	1989	77	58	96	97	68	33	31	45	39	18
	1994	81	63	97	97	69	38	34	49	46	21
	1996	80	60	97	97	68	41	36	50	50	24
	1998	81	61	96	98	71	43	39	51	51	28
	2000	82	62	97	97	71	42	36	52	53	26
Nicaragua	1993	71	50	86	89	66	44	26	57	62	32
	1998	81	66	95	95	74	51	36	66	67	38
Panama	1991	74	58	95	96	52	43	37	59	59	18
	1994	79	62	97	97	56	47	39	61	61	20
	1997	78	60	96	97	59	50	40	66	69	26
	1999	78	62	97	97	60	48	41	61	65	25
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	84	69	97	99	75	50	51	63	58	27
	1994	82	69	99	98	66	58	58	74	76	31
	1996	86	76	97	97	75	59	54	69	71	40
	1999	83	68	97	95	73	54	46	65	66	39
(Urban areas)	1994	86	75	98	98	71	53	53	62	62	32
	1996	86	78	98	97	73	58	54	65	69	40
	1999	83	64	97	95	76	55	47	66	67	42
Peru	1997	83	66	96	98	77	62	54	74	76	45
	1999	73	53	87	91	68	55	49	66	66	39
Dominican Republic	1992	86	77	96	98	76	53	57	66	57	25
	1995	78	62	95	98	68	44	40	64	57	20
	1997	83	70	96	97	71	49	44	65	61	22
	2000	78	61	93	95	68	51	41	66	70	26
Uruguay	1990	75	68	98	97	54	44	47	69	64	21
	1994	75	72	97	97	52	47	52	74	70	23
	1997	73	71	96	97	49	47	51	74	71	23
	1999	73	67	96	97	50	50	50	75	74	26
	2000	74	68	96	98	50	50	52	75	75	26
Venezuela b/	1990	78	55	93	96	71	38	25	51	52	21
	1994	79	58	94	97	68	38	26	52	53	20
	1997	83	66	96	97	73	46	34	59	61	28
	1999	84	67	97	97	75	48	36	61	64	30
	2000	82	64	96	97	72	47	34	60	63	32

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

a/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

b/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 3

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000													
Country	Year	Males						Females					
		Total	Years of schooling					Total	Years of schooling				
			0 – 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10 – 12	13 and over		0 – 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10 – 12	13 and over
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	76	74	86	84	38	31	50	66
	1994	76	74	85	83	41	33	53	70
	1997	76	63	68	73	77	88	45	27	29	35	48	74
	1999	76	60	73	73	79	86	47	28	32	35	50	76
	2000	76	56	63	74	79	87	46	27	32	36	51	72
(Urban areas)	1999	74	58	71	72	76	80	44	25	30	34	47	70
	2000	70	57	71	70	72	74	42	24	31	34	44	63
Bolivia	1989	73	78	87	68	71	68	47	50	51	41	40	53
	1994	75	80	87	69	71	75	51	54	56	43	45	57
	1997	75	83	88	67	72	72	51	55	57	41	45	58
	1999	75	78	86	76	71	73	54	57	57	53	47	61
	2000	77	79	92	75	73	74	54	53	63	52	47	58
Brazil	1990	82	76	84	83	88	91	45	33	41	45	61	77
	1993	83	77	84	83	88	90	50	38	47	50	65	79
	1996	80	73	80	80	86	89	50	36	46	50	64	80
	1999	80	72	80	79	86	88	53	37	47	52	67	79
Chile	1990	72	59	74	66	74	80	35	20	28	26	35	62
	1994	75	59	74	67	79	80	38	21	28	29	40	58
	1996	74	61	74	67	78	79	39	20	26	31	41	62
	1998	74	60	72	66	78	81	41	23	29	31	43	64
	2000	73	57	70	65	76	80	42	20	28	32	44	64
Colombia b/	1991	81	80	85	76	81	83	48	37	42	42	56	70
	1994	79	75	84	71	80	86	48	35	43	39	56	76
	1997	78	73	82	69	79	84	50	34	43	42	57	76
	1999	79	74	83	70	79	85	55	38	49	48	61	78
Costa Rica	1990	78	66	84	73	77	82	39	21	33	35	47	62
	1994	76	62	83	70	77	81	40	22	33	34	46	64
	1997	77	59	82	72	77	83	42	19	37	35	44	68
	1999	79	61	84	75	80	84	45	28	39	38	49	67
	2000	77	58	83	73	76	85	43	20	37	36	49	68
Ecuador	1990	80	82	90	69	73	81	43	39	39	34	44	65
	1994	81	79	90	70	76	84	47	41	45	37	47	66
	1997	81	81	88	71	76	86	49	43	45	37	46	70
	1999	82	81	89	74	78	86	54	45	50	44	53	72
	2000	80	74	87	75	73	84	51	43	46	43	49	70
El Salvador	1990	80	80	86	75	78	80	51	45	56	45	56	68
	1995	78	77	84	71	77	79	49	43	52	43	53	67
	1997	75	76	80	71	74	76	48	44	49	40	53	65
	1999	75	72	80	73	75	78	52	43	53	46	57	69
	2000	75	72	78	71	77	78	51	46	52	44	55	65
Guatemala	1989	84	90	89	65	81	87	43	38	41	37	57	77
	1998	82	85	88	68	81	82	54	53	54	45	58	74
Honduras	1990	81	84	88	61	80	76	43	39	43	31	59	53
	1994	80	81	88	59	82	79	43	37	45	29	50	63
	1997	83	83	90	72	80	82	51	43	53	38	59	67
	1999	82	85	87	64	81	84	54	48	56	41	61	65

Table 3 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE AND FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2000													
Country	Year	Males						Females					
		Total	Years of schooling					Total	Years of schooling				
			0 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over		0 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 and over
Mexico	1989	77	79	87	74	65	80	33	21	33	37	42	55
	1994	81	80	88	81	69	83	38	29	32	41	40	58
	1996	80	75	87	81	71	82	41	32	36	42	41	62
	1998	81	71	83	85	79	81	43	33	39	38	43	63
	2000	82	72	85	87	80	83	42	32	35	36	45	55
Nicaragua	1993	71	70	74	66	70	83	44	39	43	40	51	67
	1998	81	83	87	79	75	90	51	46	49	46	54	76
Panama	1991	74	67	78	69	73	81	43	21	31	37	49	71
	1994	79	70	81	74	78	88	47	18	34	41	52	73
	1997	78	64	76	72	80	85	50	23	39	41	52	73
	1999	78	66	80	75	77	85	48	19	36	40	50	73
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	84	75	88	82	83	87	50	29	53	45	50	71
	1994	82	64	83	78	82	89	58	39	57	51	57	74
	1996	86	76	91	82	86	91	59	43	57	53	63	81
	1999	83	73	88	79	81	91	54	40	51	49	57	79
(Urban areas)	1994	86	76	92	83	84	91	53	38	53	47	58	78
	1996	86	77	92	82	87	92	58	44	57	53	63	81
	1999	83	70	87	80	81	91	55	43	49	50	57	78
Peru	1997	83	77	82	71	85	92	62	58	61	51	62	77
	1999	73	70	71	65	78	83	55	54	58	51	53	70
Dominican Republic	1992	86	87	91	85	85	88	53	38	43	48	61	80
	1995	78	74	81	76	74	86	44	28	37	39	47	72
	1997	83	77	84	84	82	90	49	34	41	42	56	80
	2000	78	70	81	77	77	90	51	30	44	46	55	78
Uruguay	1990	75	50	74	79	84	83	44	18	36	48	57	72
	1994	75	41	74	84	82	83	47	17	36	56	61	74
	1997	73	40	70	82	80	84	47	16	35	57	59	71
	1999	73	39	69	83	78	83	50	17	38	57	59	74
	2000	74	39	71	82	77	80	50	18	37	58	59	73
Venezuela c/	1990	78	73	84	74	77	76	38	23	34	34	47	58
	1994	79	73	86	78	76	76	38	22	34	36	45	58
	1997	83	80	87	81	82	82	46	28	40	43	53	69
	1999	84	80	88	81	82	83	48	28	41	46	55	70
	2000	82	79	87	81	80	81	47	28	43	44	53	69

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

a/ For 1990 and 1994, the categories of schooling considered were: completed primary but incomplete secondary; completed secondary; and higher education.

b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 4

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	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	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	5.4	69.0	...	69.0	6.9	44.8	11.6	5.7	25.5	22.9
	1994	4.8	70.2	...	70.2	17.1	34.9	13.4	4.8	25.0	19.7
	1997	5.3	73.2	...	73.2	17.8	35.8	14.5	5.1	21.5	16.7
	1999	4.6	73.2	11.6	61.6	10.7	32.1	13.6	5.2	21.8	17.3
	2000	4.7	73.4	11.8	61.6	10.5	31.3	14.6	5.2	22.0	17.0
	(Urban areas)	1999	4.4	72.7	15.6	57.1	9.1	28.5	13.7	5.8	23.0
	2000	4.6	72.0	15.9	56.1	8.9	27.3	14.1	5.8	23.4	19.0
Bolivia	1989	2.2	53.9	17.9	36.0	4.3	16.3	9.6	5.8	43.8	41.0
	1994	7.6	54.1	12.8	41.3	6.8	15.5	13.8	5.2	38.4	36.8
	1997	7.0	46.1	10.5	35.6	6.7	14.3	11.0	3.6	46.8	44.9
	1999	4.2	47.6	10.3	37.3	7.3	15.1	11.8	3.1	48.2	45.9
	2000	3.0	48.2	10.7	37.5	5.9	17.2	10.2	4.2	48.8	46.4
Brazil d/	1990	5.2	72.0	...	72.0	14.3	34.2	17.3	6.2	22.8	21.5
	1993	4.1	67.2	14.4	52.8	4.6	31.5 e/	8.5	8.2	27.8	26.4
	1996	4.2	68.5	13.7	54.8	4.8	31.7 e/	9.9	8.4	27.3	25.7
	1999	4.7	66.6	13.0	53.6	11.0	25.7	8.4	8.5	28.6	26.5
Chile f/	1990	2.5	75.0	...	75.0	12.9	45.7	9.4	7.0	22.5	20.6
	1994	3.3	75.0	...	75.0	15.4	44.9	8.6	6.1	21.8	17.4
	1996	3.9	76.4	10.9	65.5	11.6	38.7	9.1	6.1	19.7	16.1
	1998	4.2	76.0	...	76.0	17.0	43.4	9.7	5.9	19.8	15.2
	2000	4.4	75.7	13.1	62.6	11.2	37.5	7.7	6.2	19.9	14.8
Colombia g/	1991	4.2	66.2	11.6	54.6	4.9	44.1	...	5.6	29.6	27.3
	1994	4.8	68.2	8.6	59.6	6.0	48.3	...	5.3	27.1	25.0
	1997	4.4	62.2	9.9	52.3	6.4	41.4	...	4.5	33.4	30.7
	1999	4.3	57.4	8.7	48.7	5.7	37.8	...	5.2	38.3	35.7
Costa Rica	1990	5.5	74.8	25.0	49.7	6.1	29.5	9.7	4.4	19.7	17.6
	1994	6.6	75.3	21.8	53.5	7.5	31.0	11.2	3.8	18.2	16.5
	1997	7.7	72.4	20.5	51.9	7.3	29.9	11.2	3.5	19.8	17.7
	1999	8.0	72.7	17.2	55.5	8.9	29.7	11.8	5.1	19.2	17.2
	2000	5.7	74.6	18.7	55.9	8.4	31.2	11.8	4.5	19.8	17.5
Ecuador	1990	5.0	58.9	17.5	41.4	4.5	21.1	11.3	4.5	36.1	34.5
	1994	7.9	58.0	13.7	44.3	5.6	21.8	12.2	4.7	34.1	32.1
	1997	7.8	59.1	13.8	45.3	6.3	23.0	11.0	5.0	33.1	31.1
	1999	8.8	59.0	10.7	48.3	7.0	22.5	13.4	5.4	32.1	31.5
	2000	4.6	59.4	11.0	48.4	6.0	23.9	13.8	5.4	35.9	33.8
El Salvador h/	1990	3.4	62.9	13.8	49.1	3.4	26.3	13.3	6.1	33.7	33.3
	1995	6.2	61.8	12.5	49.3	7.2	27.2	10.5	4.4	32.1	31.1
	1997	5.7	61.7	13.3	48.4	7.8	25.0	11.2	4.4	32.6	31.5
	1999	4.6	65.2	12.3	52.9	9.1	25.7	13.8	4.3	30.3	29.2
Guatemala	1989	2.8	64.2	14.4	49.8	6.2	22.8	13.8	7.0	33.0	30.9
	1998	4.7	60.0	8.2	51.8	9.2	18.3	17.6	6.7	35.4	24.3
Honduras	1990	1.5	65.5	14.4	51.1	4.9	26.3	13.2	6.7	33.0	31.7
	1994	4.2	65.0	11.3	53.7	6.8	30.5	11.0	5.4	30.8	29.5
	1997	6.3	60.4	10.1	50.3	6.5	27.7	11.0	5.1	33.4	32.3
	1999	6.2	60.2	9.7	50.5	7.5	27.0	11.2	4.8	33.6	33.1

Table 4 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	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	Domestic employment		
Mexico i/	1989	3.3	76.4	...	76.4	9.0	64.7	...	2.7	20.3	18.9
	1994	3.7	74.5	16.1	58.4	6.6	48.1	...	3.7	21.7	20.4
	1996	4.5	73.5	15.1	58.4	7.1	33.1	14.6	3.6	22.1	20.5
	1998	4.8	72.9	14.2	58.7	6.6	33.1	14.9	4.1	22.4	20.5
	2000	4.5	74.2	13.6	60.6	8.1	34.6	14.9	3.0	21.3	19.6
Nicaragua	1993	0.7	60.8	20.3	40.5	6.6	16.0	11.7	6.2	38.5	29.3
	1998	3.8	59.8	...	59.8	13.5	25.4	14.5	6.4	36.5	35.1
Panama	1991	3.4	73.2	26.6	46.6	7.4	27.0	5.2	7.0	23.4	22.4
	1994	2.5	76.3	24.8	51.5	7.2	31.3	5.7	7.3	21.2	20.5
	1997	3.0	73.9	22.4	51.5	10.1	29.4	5.6	6.4	23.0	21.8
	1999	2.8	74.2	19.4	54.8	10.8	31.4	6.5	6.1	23.0	21.9
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	8.9	68.4	11.9	56.5	5.5	24.9	15.6	10.5	22.7	21.2
	1994	9.4	67.0	11.6	55.4	6.3	24.3	13.3	11.5	23.6	23.1
	1996	7.0	62.3	11.3	51.0	5.0	22.9	13.8	9.3	30.7	28.6
	1999	6.4	67.7	12.7	55.0	6.9	25.4	13.6	9.1	25.8	23.2
(Urban areas)	1994	9.2	62.0	10.5	51.5	4.5	21.5	15.0	10.5	28.9	28.6
	1996	6.8	57.9	10.0	47.9	3.8	20.4	14.4	9.3	35.3	33.7
	1999	6.6	62.1	11.8	50.3	5.1	21.1	14.9	9.2	31.2	29.1
Peru	1997	5.8	53.7	11.3	42.4	7.4	18.7	11.9	4.4	40.5	38.2
	1999	5.6	52.9	11.0	41.9	7.0	16.1	13.0	5.8	41.5	38.1
Dominican Republic	1992	2.8	61.9	14.3	47.6	8.7	35.7	...	3.2	35.3	32.8
	1995	4.2	62.8	13.1	49.7	9.0	36.9	...	3.8	33.2	30.6
	1997	3.7	62.5	11.9	50.6	6.7	31.1	8.4	4.4	33.9	31.4
	2000	2.9	64.2	13.8	50.4	7.5	31.0	7.8	4.1	32.9	30.7
Uruguay	1990	4.6	74.2	21.8	52.4	5.1	30.1	10.3	6.9	21.3	19.0
	1994	4.8	72.3	18.7	53.6	5.4	31.8	9.4	7.0	22.9	20.1
	1997	4.3	72.2	17.7	54.5	5.9	30.5	11.0	7.1	23.6	20.8
	1999	4.0	72.4	16.2	56.2	6.5	31.8	10.4	7.5	23.6	20.6
	2000	3.7	73.3	17.2	56.1	6.3	29.6	11.1	9.1	23.2	19.4
Venezuela j/	1990	7.5	70.0	21.4	48.6	5.8	30.0	6.5	6.3	22.5	21.4
	1994	6.1	64.5	18.1	46.4	6.1	27.1	9.2	4.0	29.3	27.4
	1997	5.0	62.8	16.8	46.0	5.5	25.4	10.8	4.3	32.3	30.3
	1999	5.1	57.9	14.9	43.0	4.9	24.0	12.1	2.0	36.9	35.3
	2000	5.0	56.3	14.6	41.7	4.6	23.8	11.2	2.1	38.6	37.1

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

- a/ For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (1990), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners.
- b/ For Colombia, Mexico (1989 and 1994) and Dominican Republic (1992 and 1995), 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. For Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, establishments employing up to 4 workers are taken into account.
- c/ Includes professional and technical workers.
- d/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments in 1990. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers shows the percentage of wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.
- e/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.
- f/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).
- g/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.
- h/ The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with the others, owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.
- i/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH).
- j/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 4.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector						
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6.9	68.3	...	68.3	6.3	47.8	12.4	1.8	24.7	23.1
	1994	6.2	69.0	...	69.0	14.6	39.5	14.5	0.4	24.7	20.8
	1997	6.4	72.5	...	72.5	14.3	40.3	17.5	0.4	21.1	16.2
	1999	6.0	71.3	8.7	62.6	9.4	37.1	15.9	0.2	22.5	18.1
	2000	5.8	71.1	8.7	62.4	10.4	35.5	16.4	0.1	23.1	18.6
	(Urban areas)	1999	5.8	70.1	12.3	57.8	8.2	33.6	15.8	0.2	24.1
	2000	5.8	69.1	12.5	56.6	8.6	31.7	16.1	0.2	25.1	20.6
Bolivia	1989	3.2	60.4	20.0	40.4	4.8	22.1	12.9	0.6	36.4	32.8
	1994	10.7	62.0	13.9	48.1	7.8	21.5	18.3	0.5	27.4	25.4
	1997	10.1	52.0	10.0	42.0	7.8	19.6	14.1	0.5	37.9	35.5
	1999	5.8	55.5	10.3	45.2	9.1	20.2	15.6	0.3	38.7	35.5
	2000	4.1	54.2	11.2	43.0	6.7	21.8	14.3	0.2	41.7	38.7
Brazil d/	1990	6.9	71.0	...	71.0	10.4	39.1	21.1	0.4	22.1	20.9
	1993	5.6	66.5	11.8	54.7	4.5	39.3 e/	10.1	0.8	27.9	26.7
	1996	5.4	65.8	10.9	54.9	4.4	38.3 e/	11.4	0.8	28.7	27.2
	1999	6.2	63.4	10.2	53.2	9.1	32.8	10.5	0.8	30.4	28.5
Chile f/	1990	3.1	73.0	...	73.0	9.9	52.9	10.0	0.2	23.9	22.0
	1994	3.9	73.7	...	73.7	13.4	51.1	9.1	0.1	22.5	18.3
	1996	4.5	75.0	9.6	65.4	11.4	44.1	9.7	0.2	20.5	17.0
	1998	5.0	74.2	...	74.2	14.9	49.5	9.7	0.1	20.7	16.4
	2000	5.5	74.1	11.8	62.3	11.0	43.3	7.9	0.1	20.5	15.8
Colombia g/	1991	5.6	63.1	10.8	52.3	4.4	47.6	...	0.3	31.3	28.5
	1994	6.3	65.3	8.0	57.3	5.2	51.9	...	0.2	28.4	26.1
	1997	5.6	58.8	8.7	50.1	5.9	44.0	...	0.2	35.6	32.5
	1999	5.4	54.4	7.9	46.5	5.1	40.9	...	0.5	40.2	37.4
Costa Rica	1990	7.2	72.1	23.0	49.1	7.0	31.6	10.3	0.2	20.6	18.1
	1994	8.1	73.2	20.1	53.1	7.7	33.5	11.6	0.3	18.7	16.7
	1997	9.9	70.7	16.5	54.2	7.7	33.9	12.4	0.2	19.4	17.1
	1999	10.2	71.2	14.6	56.6	9.6	33.3	13.3	0.4	18.5	16.7
	2000	7.1	71.8	15.7	56.1	8.7	34.7	12.4	0.3	21.0	18.5
Ecuador	1990	6.3	60.3	17.4	42.9	4.0	24.5	13.8	0.6	33.5	31.7
	1994	9.7	59.6	13.0	46.6	5.3	26.0	15.0	0.3	30.7	28.5
	1997	9.8	59.6	12.8	46.8	5.7	27.3	13.1	0.7	30.6	28.3
	1999	10.2	60.7	10.4	50.3	5.8	27.3	16.6	0.6	28.2	27.7
	2000	5.9	60.5	9.8	50.7	5.4	27.8	16.8	0.7	33.5	31.1
El Salvador h/	1990	4.8	71.4	15.5	55.9	4.2	33.1	18.2	0.4	23.8	23.2
	1995	8.6	68.7	13.0	55.7	8.3	32.6	14.3	0.5	22.7	21.3
	1997	7.6	68.1	14.1	54.0	8.8	30.3	14.6	0.3	24.4	22.9
	1999	6.2	72.4	12.9	59.5	10.3	30.0	18.6	0.6	21.5	20.0
	2000	8.0	68.4	12.9	55.5	10.0	28.3	16.8	0.4	23.6	22.0
Guatemala	1989	3.6	66.1	15.0	51.1	6.2	27.3	17.4	0.2	30.3	28.6
	1998	6.2	64.8	8.4	56.4	9.7	22.4	22.8	1.5	28.9	21.0
Honduras	1990	1.9	69.8	13.6	56.2	5.4	33.0	17.4	0.4	28.3	26.8
	1994	5.7	65.9	10.3	55.6	6.9	34.5	14.2	0.0	28.4	26.9
	1997	8.8	62.5	8.3	54.2	6.1	31.5	15.8	0.8	28.9	27.8
	1999	8.4	63.3	8.0	55.3	6.6	31.9	16.2	0.6	28.4	28.0

Table 4.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	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	Domestic employment		
Mexico i/	1989	4.3	76.4	...	76.4	9.3	66.5	...	0.6	19.2	17.4
	1994	4.9	75.5	13.9	61.6	6.9	54.1	...	0.6	19.6	18.0
	1996	5.8	75.2	13.7	61.5	7.2	36.1	17.3	0.9	19.0	17.4
	1998	6.3	75.0	12.9	62.1	6.8	36.7	17.4	1.2	18.9	16.6
	2000	6.0	76.9	11.3	65.6	8.9	37.4	18.4	0.9	17.3	15.3
Nicaragua	1993	0.9	64.3	18.8	45.5	6.6	22.4	16.2	0.3	34.9	27.5
	1998	5.6	63.1	...	63.1	11.7	31.5	18.7	1.2	31.3	30.0
Panama	1991	4.4	65.5	23.2	42.3	7.7	28.1	5.9	0.6	30.0	28.8
	1994	3.0	70.6	21.7	48.9	7.4	33.6	6.7	1.2	26.4	25.4
	1997	4.0	68.3	19.3	49.0	10.4	31.6	6.0	1.0	27.8	26.2
	1999	3.6	70.1	17.0	53.1	11.1	33.6	7.4	1.0	26.4	25.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	13.5	69.2	12.3	56.9	4.9	31.4	20.6	0.0	17.4	16.4
	1994	12.3	68.1	11.7	56.4	6.5	30.2	18.1	1.6	19.5	19.1
	1996	9.3	64.3	10.3	54.0	5.1	29.5	18.4	1.0	26.3	24.6
	1999	8.5	69.4	13.4	56.0	7.4	33.3	14.5	0.8	22.1	19.5
(Urban areas)	1994	11.9	63.4	10.2	53.2	4.6	27.0	20.2	1.4	24.7	24.5
	1996	9.1	60.3	9.0	51.3	4.0	27.1	19.3	0.9	30.6	29.2
	1999	9.0	64.0	11.9	52.1	5.3	28.0	17.9	0.9	27.0	25.1
Peru	1997	8.5	58.8	11.6	47.2	7.3	23.8	15.9	0.2	32.6	29.5
	1999	8.0	55.8	11.4	44.4	7.6	20.3	16.1	0.4	36.1	32.0
Dominican Republic	1992	3.9	57.1	13.8	43.3	6.9	36.2	...	0.2	39.0	36.1
	1995	5.3	56.7	11.0	45.7	8.0	37.5	...	0.2	37.9	35.2
	1997	4.9	58.1	11.4	46.7	5.6	31.3	9.4	0.4	37.0	34.5
	2000	3.5	58.6	11.4	47.2	6.3	32.6	7.7	0.6	38.0	35.6
Uruguay	1990	6.4	73.0	22.8	50.2	4.4	33.9	11.8	0.1	20.5	18.9
	1994	6.3	70.8	18.6	52.2	4.8	36.7	10.6	0.1	23.0	20.7
	1997	5.8	69.2	17.3	51.9	4.9	34.8	12.0	0.2	24.9	22.6
	1999	5.2	69.1	15.6	53.5	5.4	36.2	11.7	0.2	25.6	23.2
	2000	4.9	69.7	16.5	53.2	5.3	35.2	11.4	1.3	25.2	21.9
Venezuela j/	1990	10.2	66.1	16.8	49.3	5.5	33.9	8.0	1.9	23.6	22.5
	1994	8.4	60.6	13.0	47.6	5.2	30.0	10.9	1.5	31.1	29.2
	1997	6.7	61.2	12.1	49.1	5.0	29.2	13.4	1.5	32.0	30.3
	1999	6.9	57.5	10.6	46.9	4.0	27.9	14.9	0.1	35.6	34.1
	2000	6.8	55.6	10.4	45.2	3.7	27.7	13.7	0.1	37.6	36.3

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

a/ For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (1990), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners.

b/ For Colombia, Mexico (1989 and 1994) and Dominican Republic (1992 and 1995), 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. For Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, establishments employing up to 4 workers are taken into account.

c/ Includes professional and technical workers.

d/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments in 1990. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers shows the percentage of wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.

e/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

f/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

g/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

h/ The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with the others, owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

i/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH).

j/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 4.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector						
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	2.8	70.3	...	70.3	8.0	39.6	10.2	12.5	27.1	22.7
	1994	2.4	72.2	...	72.2	21.4	27.0	11.5	12.3	25.4	18.7
	1997	3.5	74.2	...	74.2	23.6	28.3	9.6	12.7	22.2	17.5
	1999	2.6	76.3	15.9	60.4	12.6	24.8	10.3	12.7	20.7	15.3
	2000	3.0	76.8	16.4	60.4	10.7	24.8	12.0	12.9	20.1	15.7
	(Urban areas)	1999	2.5	76.2	20.4	55.8	10.4	20.7	10.5	14.2	21.3
	2000	2.8	76.5	21.1	55.4	9.4	20.7	11.1	14.2	20.7	16.5
Bolivia	1989	0.8	45.3	15.0	30.3	3.6	8.6	5.2	12.9	54.0	52.2
	1994	3.5	43.7	11.4	32.3	5.4	7.8	7.9	11.2	52.9	51.7
	1997	2.8	38.5	11.1	27.4	5.4	7.3	7.0	7.7	58.7	57.4
	1999	2.2	37.4	10.2	27.2	5.0	8.6	6.9	6.7	60.6	59.3
	2000	1.6	40.7	10.0	30.7	4.9	11.5	4.9	9.4	57.8	56.3
Brazil d/	1990	2.5	73.6	...	73.6	20.7	26.1	11.2	15.6	24.0	22.4
	1993	1.8	70.7	18.3	52.4	4.7	21.9 e/	6.0	19.8	27.4	25.8
	1996	2.5	72.3	17.9	54.4	5.4	21.7 e/	7.6	19.7	25.2	23.4
	1999	2.7	71.2	16.9	54.3	13.8	15.5	5.3	19.7	26.1	23.6
Chile f/	1990	1.4	78.6	...	78.6	18.4	32.6	8.2	19.4	20.1	18.2
	1994	2.2	77.4	...	77.4	19.1	33.8	7.7	16.8	20.6	15.8
	1996	2.8	78.9	13.2	65.7	12.0	29.2	8.2	16.3	18.4	14.5
	1998	3.0	78.8	...	78.8	20.6	33.3	9.7	15.2	18.1	13.2
	2000	2.5	78.4	15.3	63.1	11.5	28.2	7.4	16.0	19.1	13.3
Colombia g/	1991	2.2	70.7	12.8	57.9	5.5	38.8	...	13.6	27.1	25.5
	1994	2.7	72.3	9.4	62.9	7.2	43.0	...	12.7	25.2	23.4
	1997	2.8	66.9	11.6	55.3	6.9	38.0	...	10.4	30.3	28.2
	1999	2.7	61.7	9.9	51.8	6.6	33.7	...	11.5	35.6	33.4
Costa Rica	1990	2.3	79.6	28.7	50.9	4.5	25.8	8.6	12.0	18.1	16.6
	1994	4.0	78.6	24.7	53.9	7.1	26.4	10.3	10.1	17.3	16.1
	1997	4.0	75.7	27.5	48.2	6.6	23.2	9.2	9.2	20.4	18.7
	1999	4.4	75.0	21.5	53.5	7.5	24.0	9.4	12.6	20.4	18.1
	2000	3.2	79.1	23.6	55.5	7.8	25.4	10.9	11.4	17.5	15.7
Ecuador	1990	2.7	56.4	17.7	38.7	5.5	14.9	6.7	11.6	40.8	39.5
	1994	5.0	55.5	14.8	40.7	6.2	15.0	7.7	11.8	39.5	37.8
	1997	4.5	57.5	15.5	42.0	7.3	15.8	8.0	10.9	37.1	35.7
	1999	5.0	56.7	11.3	45.4	8.9	15.0	8.4	13.1	38.3	37.4
	2000	2.5	57.7	12.8	44.9	7.0	17.8	9.0	11.1	39.8	38.1
El Salvador h/	1990	1.6	52.5	11.7	40.8	2.5	18.0	7.2	13.1	45.9	45.8
	1995	3.3	53.4	11.8	41.6	5.9	20.8	5.8	9.1	43.3	42.8
	1997	3.3	53.9	12.2	41.7	6.5	18.7	7.1	9.4	42.8	42.0
	1999	2.7	57.0	11.5	45.5	7.6	20.9	8.4	8.6	40.2	39.6
	2000	3.4	54.5	12.0	42.5	6.6	20.0	7.7	8.2	42.1	41.5
Guatemala	1989	1.5	61.2	13.4	47.8	6.1	15.7	7.9	18.1	37.3	34.6
	1998	2.7	53.6	7.8	45.8	8.5	13.0	11.0	13.3	43.6	28.4
Honduras	1990	0.9	59.0	15.5	43.5	4.1	16.5	6.9	16.0	40.0	39.0
	1994	1.8	63.6	12.9	50.7	6.7	24.3	6.0	13.7	34.6	33.6
	1997	3.1	57.4	12.4	45.0	7.0	22.6	4.7	10.7	39.4	38.3
	1999	3.6	56.6	11.8	44.8	8.6	21.2	5.1	9.9	39.8	39.2

Table 4.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
			Total	Public sector	Private sector						
					Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical			Total c/	Non-professional, non-technical
							Establishments employing more than 5 persons b/	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico i/	1989	1.3	76.3	...	76.3	8.4	60.8	...	7.1		
	1994	1.5	72.8	20.3	52.5	6.1	36.8	...	9.6	25.8	25.0
	1996	2.1	70.4	17.5	52.9	7.0	27.7	9.9	8.3	27.5	25.9
	1998	2.2	69.5	16.5	53.0	6.5	26.8	10.7	9.0	28.4	27.1
	2000	1.9	70.2	17.5	52.7	6.6	30.0	9.6	6.5	27.9	26.8
Nicaragua	1993	0.5	56.2	22.4	33.8	6.6	7.5	5.6	14.1	43.4	31.7
	1998	1.3	55.4	...	55.4	15.8	17.2	8.9	13.5	43.3	41.9
Panama	1991	1.7	86.1	32.5	53.6	6.9	24.9	4.0	17.8	12.2	11.5
	1994	1.5	86.6	30.3	56.3	6.9	27.3	4.0	18.1	12.0	11.7
	1997	1.4	83.3	27.4	55.9	9.7	25.9	5.0	15.3	15.4	14.8
	1999	1.6	81.1	23.5	57.6	10.3	27.7	5.2	14.4	17.3	16.7
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	2.4	67.5	11.3	56.2	6.5	15.5	8.6	25.6	30.2	28.1
	1994	5.7	65.5	11.5	54.0	6.1	16.6	7.0	24.3	28.8	28.2
	1996	4.0	59.5	12.5	47.0	4.9	14.3	7.8	20.0	36.5	33.9
	1999	3.7	65.4	11.7	53.7	6.3	14.9	12.4	20.1	30.8	28.2
(Urban areas)	1994	5.3	59.7	10.9	48.8	4.3	13.7	7.5	23.3	34.9	34.5
	1996	3.5	54.7	11.4	43.3	3.5	11.3	7.7	20.8	41.8	39.9
	1999	3.4	59.7	11.6	48.1	5.0	11.6	10.8	20.7	36.9	34.6
Peru	1997	2.3	47.3	10.9	36.4	7.6	12.1	6.9	9.8	50.5	49.1
	1999	2.5	49.3	10.5	38.8	6.3	11.0	9.1	12.4	48.2	45.7
Dominican Republic	1992	0.9	70.9	15.1	55.8	12.1	35.0	...	8.7	28.3	26.7
	1995	2.0	73.7	16.9	56.8	10.7	35.6	...	10.5	24.3	21.9
	1997	1.5	70.1	12.6	57.5	8.6	30.6	6.7	11.6	28.4	25.8
	2000	2.0	73.3	17.7	55.6	9.4	28.4	8.1	9.7	24.8	22.8
Uruguay	1990	1.9	75.9	20.2	55.7	6.1	24.4	8.1	17.1	22.3	19.1
	1994	2.8	74.4	18.9	55.5	6.2	24.9	7.6	16.8	22.8	19.2
	1997	2.3	75.9	18.1	57.8	7.2	24.4	9.5	16.7	21.8	18.3
	1999	2.3	76.7	17.0	59.7	7.9	25.8	8.6	17.4	21.1	17.1
	2000	2.2	77.7	18.0	59.7	7.6	22.0	10.6	19.5	20.3	15.9
Venezuela j/	1990	2.3	77.5	30.4	47.1	6.4	22.3	3.4	15.0	20.2	19.1
	1994	1.7	72.3	28.1	44.2	8.0	21.3	5.9	9.0	26.0	23.9
	1997	1.9	65.7	25.7	40.0	6.4	18.1	5.8	9.7	32.5	30.1
	1999	1.9	58.9	22.7	36.2	6.5	17.1	7.0	5.6	39.2	37.4
	2000	1.9	57.6	22.1	35.5	6.3	16.7	6.9	5.6	40.4	38.4

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

a/ For Argentina (except 1999 and 2000), Brazil (1990), Chile (except 1996 and 2000), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners.

b/ For Colombia, Mexico (1989 and 1994) and Dominican Republic (1992 and 1995), 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. For Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, establishments employing up to 4 workers are taken into account.

c/ Includes professional and technical workers.

d/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments in 1990. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers shows the percentage of wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers shows the percentage of workers who do not have such contracts.

e/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

f/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

g/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

h/ The figures for 1990 are not strictly comparable with the others, owing to changes made in the classification of professional and technical workers.

i/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH).

j/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 5

LATIN AMERICA (16 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)								
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners			Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector ^{a/}	Total	Agriculture
Bolivia	1997	100.0	3.3	8.9	2.4	6.5	87.8	79.9
	1999	100.0	1.2	9.2	2.3	6.9	89.6	82.1
	2000	100.0	0.5	8.6	2.8	5.8	90.9	83.0
Brazil	1990	100.0	3.0	44.3	...	44.3	52.7	44.3
	1993	100.0	1.9	33.6	5.1	28.5	64.5	58.4
	1996	100.0	1.8	34.3	4.4	29.9	63.8	57.2
	1999	100.0	2.0	34.3	5.2	29.1	63.7	56.4
Chile ^{b/}	1990	100.0	2.8	64.9	...	64.9	32.3	25.0
	1994	100.0	2.6	66.6	...	66.6	30.8	21.5
	1996	100.0	2.4	64.2	3.6	60.6	33.3	26.6
	1998	100.0	2.8	64.5	...	64.5	32.7	24.4
	2000	100.0	2.5	65.1	4.9	60.2	32.5	24.3
Colombia	1991	100.0	6.3	48.6	...	48.6	45.0	25.5
	1994	100.0	4.5	54.2	...	54.2	41.3	22.4
	1997	100.0	4.2	50.6	...	50.6	45.1	25.0
	1999	100.0	3.7	47.2	3.7	43.5	49.2	27.9
Costa Rica	1990	100.0	5.1	66.2	10.5	55.7	28.7	16.8
	1994	100.0	6.8	69.0	9.6	59.4	24.2	11.1
	1997	100.0	7.1	67.8	9.0	58.8	25.2	11.3
	1999	100.0	8.2	69.2	8.9	60.3	22.7	9.5
	2000	99.9	5.8	66.9	9.6	57.3	27.3	12.3
Ecuador	2000	100.0	3.2	42.4	3.9	38.5	54.3	40.7
El Salvador	1995	100.0	6.0	49.6	3.2	46.4	44.3	26.8
	1997	100.0	4.0	50.9	3.1	47.8	45.1	28.1
	1999	100.0	4.1	50.8	3.9	46.9	45.2	26.3
	2000	100.0	4.6	47.2	3.9	43.3	48.1	26.7
Guatemala	1989	100.0	0.6	38.7	2.9	35.8	60.7	47.5
	1998	100.0	2.0	42.9	1.7	41.2	55.1	34.8
Honduras	1990	100.0	0.6	34.9	4.0	30.9	64.6	47.6
	1994	100.0	1.7	37.0	4.8	32.2	61.4	43.5
	1997	100.0	2.6	34.8	3.4	31.4	62.6	41.6
	1999	100.0	3.1	33.4	3.7	29.7	63.5	41.3
Mexico ^{c/}	1989	100.0	2.5	50.2	...	50.2	47.3	34.6
	1994	100.0	4.0	48.6	5.5	43.1	47.4	30.8
	1996	100.0	5.1	48.1	6.4	41.7	46.7	28.6
	1998	100.0	4.5	45.6	6.0	39.6	49.9	29.2
	2000	100.0	5.0	51.0	6.6	44.4	44.0	25.1
Nicaragua	1993	100.0	0.2	38.4	6.6	31.8	61.3	45.8
	1998	100.0	3.3	43.7	...	43.7	53.0	39.7
Panama	1991	100.0	2.9	39.1	12.5	26.6	58.0	45.5
	1994	100.0	3.3	47.0	11.8	35.2	49.7	34.4
	1997	100.0	2.2	46.1	10.1	36.0	51.6	33.4
	1999	100.0	3.2	44.9	10.1	34.8	51.9	31.6
Paraguay	1997	100.0	2.3	24.8	3.2	21.6	72.8	57.3
	1999	100.0	3.4	27.0	3.4	23.6	69.7	54.0
Peru	1997	100.0	5.3	19.8	3.6	16.2	74.8	61.0
	1999	100.0	6.3	19.9	2.3	17.6	73.9	61.9
Dominican Republic	1992	100.0	4.0	52.4	13.2	39.2	43.7	21.6
	1995	100.0	2.1	56.1	11.5	44.6	41.9	15.7
	1997	100.0	3.4	45.6	10.3	35.3	51.0	28.5
	2000	100.0	1.8	40.3	8.1	32.2	57.8	32.6
Venezuela	1990	100.0	6.9	46.6	8.3	38.3	46.5	33.3
	1994	100.0	7.6	47.6	7.4	40.2	44.8	29.7
	1997	100.0	5.4	49.6	5.4	44.2	44.9	33.1

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

^{a/} Includes domestic employees. For Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Colombia (1991, 1994 and 1997), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), public sector wage earners are included.

^{b/} Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

^{c/} Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH).

Table 6

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6.4	20.6	4.7	...	4.7	9.4	4.5	3.6	2.5	7.9	7.2
	1994	8.6	28.3	6.4	...	6.4	10.2	5.7	4.7	3.3	10.8	9.1
	1997	7.2	24.2	5.6	...	5.6	9.4	4.8	3.7	2.6	8.6	6.5
	1999	6.4	22.0	5.1	6.2	4.8	8.5	4.9	3.5	2.4	7.3	8.1
Bolivia	1989	4.2	16.2	3.9	4.1	3.5	7.7	3.5	2.6	1.6	4.1	3.8
	1994	3.5	10.3	3.2	3.9	3.0	7.3	2.7	2.0	1.0	2.5	2.2
	1997	3.6	10.1	3.9	4.6	3.6	8.8	3.2	2.2	1.1	2.5	2.3
	1999	3.4	8.2	4.1	4.7	3.7	7.4	3.8	2.4	1.8	2.3	2.2
Brazil c/	1990	4.7	16.1	4.1	...	4.1	8.2	3.8	2.6	1.0	3.8	3.4
	1993	4.3	15.6	4.2	6.4	3.6	10.9	3.5 d/	2.0	1.1	3.1	2.7
	1996	5.0	19.1	4.5	7.0	3.9	10.7	3.9 d/	2.5	1.5	4.2	3.7
	1999	4.4	14.7	4.1	6.6	3.5	6.9	3.2 d/	2.1	1.4	3.2	2.8
Chile e/	1990	4.7	24.8	3.8	...	3.8	7.4	3.5	2.4	1.4	5.4	5.0
	1994	6.2	34.2	4.9	...	4.9	9.6	4.0	2.9	2.0	6.3	4.9
	1996	6.8	33.7	5.1	6.5	4.8	11.2	3.8	2.9	2.0	8.3	6.4
	1998	7.4	33.8	5.6	...	5.6	11.7	4.3	3.0	2.2	8.6	6.5
	2000	7.2	32.7	5.8	7.4	5.5	13.3	4.1	3.0	2.4	7.1	5.2
Colombia f/	1991	2.9	7.4	2.7	3.9	2.5	5.3	2.4	...	1.3	2.4	2.2
	1994	3.8	13.1	3.4	5.5	3.1	7.9	2.6	...	1.7	3.4	3.0
	1997	3.8	10.9	3.6	5.7	3.2	6.9	2.7	...	1.6	3.2	2.9
	1999	3.3	9.5	3.7	6.3	3.2	6.8	2.8	...	2.1	2.2	1.9
Costa Rica	1990	5.2	6.8	5.4	7.3	4.4	9.0	4.3	3.2	1.5	3.7	3.4
	1994	5.7	10.8	5.5	7.8	4.6	8.4	4.4	3.6	1.6	4.4	4.0
	1997	5.6	8.4	5.8	8.2	4.8	9.0	4.8	3.2	1.8	3.8	3.6
	1999	6.0	10.4	5.9	8.8	5.1	9.7	4.8	3.6	1.7	4.4	4.0
Ecuador	1990	2.8	4.8	3.2	4.1	2.8	6.0	2.9	2.3	0.8	1.9	1.9
	1994	2.9	6.6	2.8	3.5	2.5	5.2	2.6	1.9	0.9	2.2	2.0
	1997	3.0	6.0	3.0	3.9	2.7	5.7	2.9	1.8	0.9	2.2	2.1
	1999	2.9	7.6	2.8	3.8	2.6	4.5	2.9	1.7	0.9	1.8	1.8
El Salvador	1995	3.4	8.6	3.5	5.3	3.0	6.9	2.8	2.0	1.0	2.1	2.0
	1997	3.8	9.9	4.5	5.9	3.8	7.8	3.2	2.3	1.9	2.2	2.1
	1999	4.2	9.9	4.6	6.9	4.0	8.2	3.7	2.4	2.1	2.5	2.3
Guatemala	1989	3.5	17.7	3.0	4.8	2.5	5.2	2.6	1.7	1.4	3.2	2.9
	1998	3.0	12.1	3.0	4.4	2.8	6.2	2.7	1.9	0.7	1.7	1.3
Honduras	1990	2.8	16.4	3.1	4.9	2.5	6.5	2.7	1.6	0.8	1.6	1.5
	1994	2.3	7.3	2.2	3.4	2.0	4.5	1.9	1.3	0.5	1.7	1.6
	1997	2.0	6.5	2.1	2.9	1.9	4.2	1.8	1.1	0.5	1.3	1.2
	1999	2.0	5.1	2.1	2.9	1.9	3.0	2.1	1.1	0.5	1.2	1.2

Table 6 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico g/	1989	4.4	21.7	3.5	...	3.5	6.9	3.1	...	1.4	4.8	4.4
	1994	4.4	18.3	3.9	5.0	3.6	9.5	3.0	...	1.2	3.7	3.3
	1996	3.7	15.2	3.3	4.9	2.9	6.4	2.8	1.7	1.2	2.5	2.3
	1998	4.1	18.2	3.5	5.3	3.1	6.9	3.1	1.9	1.3	3.0	2.6
	2000	4.3	16.5	3.9	5.2	3.6	7.7	3.4	2.1	1.3	3.4	3.0
Nicaragua	1993	3.5	8.5	3.3	3.4	3.2	6.1	3.1	2.3	2.1	3.6	2.9
	1998	3.1	11.1	3.2	...	3.2	6.3	2.6	1.9	1.7	2.1	2.0
Panama	1991	5.0	11.8	5.5	7.4	4.4	9.4	4.1	2.6	1.3	2.5	2.3
	1994	5.1	17.7	5.1	7.3	4.1	9.4	3.8	2.4	1.3	3.5	3.4
	1997	5.6	15.4	5.6	8.0	4.6	10.0	4.1	2.6	1.4	3.7	3.4
	1999	5.8	11.4	6.3	8.7	5.5	11.1	4.8	2.7	2.2	3.3	3.0
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	3.4	10.3	2.5	3.4	2.2	4.7	2.6	1.8	0.8	3.8	3.6
	1994	3.6	10.0	3.0	4.4	2.7	6.7	2.7	2.0	1.3	2.9	2.9
	1996	3.6	10.6	3.3	5.1	2.9	6.5	3.1	2.3	1.2	2.8	2.5
	1999	3.6	8.9	3.5	4.6	3.2	6.5	3.4	2.3	1.7	2.7	2.3
(Urban areas)	1994	3.3	9.6	2.8	4.3	2.5	6.6	2.6	1.9	1.2	2.5	2.5
	1996	3.3	9.7	3.1	5.1	2.6	6.3	3.0	2.1	1.1	2.5	2.3
	1999	3.3	8.8	3.3	4.8	2.9	6.7	3.1	2.1	1.6	2.2	1.9
Peru	1997	3.3	7.9	3.8	4.1	3.7	6.1	3.9	2.3	2.3	1.9	1.7
	1999	3.2	7.0	3.9	4.6	3.8	6.9	4.2	2.0	2.9	1.8	1.6
Dominican Republic	1997	4.4	13.5	3.9	4.7	3.7	7.5	3.5	2.4	1.4	4.3	4.0
Uruguay	1990	4.3	12.0	3.7	4.0	3.6	7.6	3.7	2.5	1.5	5.1	5.1
	1994	4.8	12.3	4.6	5.3	4.2	9.6	4.5	2.9	1.7	3.9	3.5
	1997	4.9	11.5	4.8	5.9	4.5	9.8	4.6	3.0	1.8	4.0	3.5
	1999	5.4	14.1	5.3	6.7	4.9	11.2	4.9	3.2	2.1	4.1	3.6
Venezuela h/	1990	4.5	11.9	3.7	4.0	3.6	6.6	3.6	2.5	2.1	4.5	4.3
	1994	3.8	8.9	3.2	2.7	3.4	6.7	3.4	2.0	1.9	4.1	3.8
	1997	3.6	11.2	2.6	2.9	2.5	5.8	2.4	1.7	1.4	4.2	3.9
	1999	3.5	9.2	3.2	3.7	2.9	6.4	2.9	2.0	1.4	3.2	3.0

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

a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners. In addition, for Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this includes non-professional, non-technical wage earners in establishments employing up to four workers. Where no information was available about the size of the establishments, no data are provided for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.

b/ Includes own account professional and technical workers.

c/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, in 1990. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers refers to wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers refers to workers who do not have such contracts.

d/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH).

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 6.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	7.3	22.2	5.1	...	5.1	11.4	4.7	3.7	4.4	9.4	8.8
	1994	9.7	28.0	7.1	...	7.1	12.3	6.0	4.9	4.5	12.3	10.6
	1997	8.2	25.7	6.0	...	6.0	11.5	5.1	3.8	2.7	10.2	7.6
	1999	7.4	24.0	5.7	7.1	5.3	9.9	5.1	3.8	2.6	8.5	7.1
Bolivia	1989	5.1	17.1	4.3	4.8	4.0	9.6	3.6	2.7	4.0	5.4	4.9
	1994	4.4	10.8	4.4	4.7	3.5	8.3	2.8	2.2	1.7	3.6	3.2
	1997	4.5	10.5	4.4	5.4	4.2	9.8	3.3	2.4	1.8	3.1	2.9
	1999	4.1	7.9	4.5	5.2	4.4	8.0	4.1	2.6	1.9	3.0	2.8
Brazil c/	1990	5.7	17.2	4.8	...	4.8	11.3	4.2	2.8	1.3	4.9	4.4
	1993	5.3	16.6	4.9	7.9	4.2	14.5	3.7 d/	2.0	1.5	4.0	3.6
	1996	6.0	20.1	5.2	8.4	4.6	13.8	4.2 d/	2.6	2.0	5.2	4.7
	1999	5.2	15.5	4.7	7.9	4.1	8.9	3.4 d/	2.2	2.1	4.1	3.6
Chile e/	1990	5.4	27.4	4.4	...	4.4	10.4	3.6	2.5	1.9	5.8	5.3
	1994	7.0	37.6	5.4	...	5.4	12.0	4.1	3.1	2.2	6.7	5.4
	1996	7.7	36.3	5.7	7.2	5.5	13.3	4.0	3.0	2.4	9.2	7.2
	1998	8.4	37.0	6.3	...	6.3	14.1	4.5	3.2	3.3	9.5	7.1
	2000	8.5	36.9	6.6	8.3	6.2	15.8	4.3	3.1	3.0	7.9	5.8
Colombia f/	1991	3.3	7.8	3.1	4.2	2.8	6.5	2.5	...	1.5	3.0	2.7
	1994	4.4	14.5	3.6	6.1	3.3	9.8	2.6	...	1.7	4.0	3.5
	1997	4.4	11.8	4.0	6.4	3.5	8.4	2.9	...	1.6	3.9	3.4
	1999	3.8	10.2	4.0	7.1	3.4	7.9	2.9	...	2.7	2.6	2.3
Costa Rica	1990	5.8	7.0	6.0	7.9	5.1	9.9	4.6	3.3	1.5	4.8	4.3
	1994	6.4	11.9	6.0	8.2	5.2	9.6	4.7	3.9	2.1	5.3	4.9
	1997	6.1	8.9	6.1	8.7	5.3	9.7	5.0	3.5	2.3	5.0	4.6
	1999	6.8	11.1	6.5	9.5	5.7	10.7	5.1	3.8	2.3	5.6	5.2
Ecuador	1990	3.3	4.9	3.6	4.6	3.2	8.0	3.0	2.4	1.1	2.4	2.3
	1994	3.4	7.2	3.1	3.8	2.9	6.7	2.6	2.0	1.1	2.9	2.6
	1997	3.4	6.3	3.3	4.1	3.1	6.9	2.9	1.8	1.3	2.7	2.6
	1999	3.4	8.2	3.0	4.2	2.7	4.9	2.9	1.7	1.4	2.3	2.3
El Salvador	1995	4.1	9.4	3.9	5.5	3.5	7.6	3.0	2.2	1.7	2.1	2.8
	1997	4.4	10.5	4.3	5.9	3.9	8.5	3.3	2.4	2.8	2.9	2.7
	1999	4.8	10.3	4.8	6.9	4.4	9.1	3.9	2.5	2.9	3.2	2.9
Guatemala	1989	4.0	18.6	3.3	4.8	2.8	6.2	2.7	1.8	2.6	3.9	3.6
	1998	3.8	13.3	3.5	4.8	3.3	7.6	3.0	2.0	1.0	2.4	1.8
Honduras	1990	3.4	20.3	3.3	5.1	2.9	7.3	2.8	1.7	1.6	2.4	2.2
	1994	2.7	7.8	2.5	3.8	2.2	5.2	2.0	1.3	1.6	2.1	2.0
	1997	2.5	7.1	2.2	3.3	2.0	5.3	1.9	1.1	0.8	1.8	1.7
	1999	2.4	6.7	2.3	3.1	2.1	3.8	2.3	1.2	0.8	1.7	1.6

Table 6.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector						
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico g/	1989	5.1	23.4	3.8	...	3.8	7.8	3.3	...	2.1	6.1	5.6
	1994	5.2	19.4	4.4	5.6	4.1	11.5	3.2	...	2.0	5.0	4.4
	1996	4.3	16.0	3.6	5.3	3.3	7.7	3.1	1.8	1.9	3.4	3.1
	1998	4.9	19.2	3.9	5.9	3.5	8.2	3.4	2.1	1.9	4.3	3.6
	2000	5.2	17.1	4.3	5.6	4.1	9.3	3.7	2.3	2.1	5.2	4.7
Nicaragua	1993	3.8	9.4	3.6	3.9	3.5	7.4	3.1	2.4	1.3	4.1	3.2
	1998	3.7	12.0	3.5	...	3.5	7.9	2.8	2.0	3.3	2.5	2.4
Panama	1991	5.3	11.9	6.1	7.9	5.0	10.2	4.2	2.7	1.4	2.7	2.5
	1994	5.6	19.2	5.7	8.2	4.6	10.6	3.8	2.3	2.0	3.9	3.7
	1997	6.2	16.6	6.4	9.0	5.3	11.0	4.1	2.6	2.0	4.3	3.8
	1999	6.2	12.1	6.8	9.7	5.9	11.7	4.8	2.7	2.3	3.8	3.5
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	4.2	10.4	2.9	4.0	2.6	5.8	2.6	1.9	...	4.8	4.6
	1994	4.4	10.6	3.5	5.1	3.2	8.5	2.7	2.1	2.1	3.5	3.5
	1996	4.3	11.7	3.6	5.5	3.3	7.3	3.2	2.4	2.0	3.5	3.2
	1999	4.1	8.9	3.8	4.7	3.6	7.0	3.4	2.3	1.9	3.1	2.6
(Urban areas)	1994	4.0	10.0	3.2	5.0	2.9	8.2	2.7	2.0	1.9	3.0	3.0
	1996	3.9	10.3	3.4	5.5	3.0	6.9	3.1	2.2	1.7	3.1	2.9
	1999	3.8	8.7	3.6	5.2	3.2	7.5	3.2	2.0	1.7	2.6	2.3
Peru	1997	4.0	8.5	4.2	4.6	4.1	7.0	4.3	2.5	2.7	2.5	2.3
	1999	3.9	7.9	4.3	5.4	4.1	7.0	4.5	2.1	1.8	2.3	2.1
Dominican Republic	1997	4.8	14.5	4.0	4.6	3.9	8.0	3.6	2.6	2.2	4.8	4.5
Uruguay	1990	5.5	13.0	4.3	4.4	4.2	10.1	4.0	2.7	1.5	7.3	7.3
	1994	5.8	13.1	5.5	6.0	5.3	12.5	5.0	3.1	3.0	4.9	4.4
	1997	5.8	12.3	5.6	6.6	5.3	12.9	5.0	3.2	2.0	4.8	4.2
	1999	6.3	14.9	6.2	7.5	5.8	14.6	5.3	3.4	2.7	4.8	4.2
Venezuela h/	1990	5.1	12.0	4.0	4.4	3.9	7.6	3.7	2.5	3.4	5.1	4.9
	1994	4.3	9.1	3.4	3.1	3.5	7.6	3.4	2.0	2.9	4.6	4.3
	1997	4.0	11.4	2.8	3.2	2.7	6.7	2.5	1.7	2.2	4.6	4.3
	1999	3.8	9.4	3.3	4.1	3.2	7.4	3.0	2.0	2.0	3.7	3.5

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

a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners. In addition, for Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this includes non-professional, non-technical wage earners in establishments employing up to four workers. Where no information was available about the size of the establishments, no data are provided for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.

b/ Includes own account professional and technical workers.

c/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, in 1990. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers refers to wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers refers to workers who do not have such contracts.

d/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH).

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 6.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total b/	Non professional, non-technical
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	4.7	13.6	3.9	...	3.9	6.6	4.0	3.4	2.0	5.8	4.5
	1994	6.7	29.4	5.4	...	5.4	7.8	6.2	4.2	3.2	8.3	6.4
	1997	5.6	19.6	4.8	...	4.8	7.3	5.8	3.4	2.5	6.2	4.7
	1999	4.8	15.0	4.4	5.5	4.0	6.8	4.3	3.0	2.1	5.3	4.3
Bolivia	1989	2.9	10.7	3.6	2.9	3.4	4.1	3.1	2.2	1.6	4.1	2.9
	1994	2.2	8.4	2.3	2.7	2.1	5.3	2.2	1.5	0.9	2.5	1.6
	1997	2.5	8.1	3.0	3.5	2.8	6.8	2.6	1.8	1.0	1.8	1.7
	1999	2.4	9.0	3.2	4.1	2.9	5.8	2.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7
Brazil c/	1990	3.1	11.1	3.1	...	3.1	5.6	2.9	2.0	0.9	2.2	1.9
	1993	2.8	11.1	3.0	4.9	2.3	5.7	2.8 d/	1.8	1.1	1.7	1.4
	1996	3.6	15.4	3.6	5.7	3.1	7.0	3.2 d/	2.3	1.5	2.5	2.0
	1999	3.2	12.4	3.3	5.4	2.6	5.0	2.4 d/	1.8	1.4	2.0	1.6
Chile e/	1990	3.4	14.3	3.0	...	3.0	4.5	3.2	2.2	1.4	4.4	4.2
	1994	4.7	26.4	3.8	...	3.8	6.5	3.5	2.6	2.0	5.8	3.8
	1996	5.1	26.4	4.1	5.5	3.9	7.8	3.6	2.8	2.0	6.4	4.4
	1998	5.6	24.9	4.7	...	4.7	8.8	3.8	2.7	2.2	6.8	5.0
	2000	5.2	18.1	4.7	6.3	4.3	9.4	3.6	2.8	2.4	5.6	3.9
Colombia f/	1991	2.2	5.9	2.3	3.5	2.1	3.9	2.1	...	1.2	1.6	1.4
	1994	3.0	8.4	3.0	4.8	2.7	5.9	2.5	...	1.7	2.3	2.0
	1997	2.9	8.4	3.0	5.0	2.6	5.2	2.4	...	1.6	2.3	2.0
	1999	2.8	7.7	3.4	5.5	2.9	5.7	2.7	...	2.1	1.5	1.3
Costa Rica	1990	4.0	5.4	4.4	6.5	3.3	6.5	3.7	2.9	1.5	1.9	1.7
	1994	4.4	6.9	4.6	7.1	3.5	6.1	3.7	2.9	1.6	2.7	2.5
	1997	4.7	6.2	5.3	7.7	3.9	7.6	4.2	2.8	1.8	2.2	2.1
	1999	4.7	7.9	5.1	8.0	3.9	7.7	4.1	3.3	1.7	2.5	2.1
Ecuador	1990	2.0	4.5	2.5	3.4	2.0	3.5	2.6	1.9	0.7	1.2	1.2
	1994	2.1	4.8	2.3	3.1	2.1	3.2	2.7	1.7	0.9	1.5	1.4
	1997	2.4	5.2	2.7	3.6	2.4	4.2	3.1	1.7	0.9	1.5	1.4
	1999	2.1	5.3	2.5	3.2	2.3	4.1	2.9	1.4	0.9	1.2	1.2
El Salvador	1995	2.5	5.8	3.0	4.9	2.5	5.7	2.5	1.5	0.9	1.6	1.6
	1997	3.1	8.1	4.0	6.0	3.6	6.6	3.1	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.7
	1999	3.5	8.8	4.2	6.9	3.5	6.8	3.5	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0
Guatemala	1989	2.6	14.4	2.7	5.0	2.0	3.5	2.4	1.5	1.4	2.1	1.9
	1998	2.0	8.6	2.2	3.8	1.9	4.2	2.2	1.5	0.6	1.2	0.9
Honduras	1990	2.0	4.3	2.2	4.7	1.9	4.8	2.5	1.2	0.8	1.0	0.9
	1994	1.6	5.1	1.8	2.9	1.5	3.3	1.7	1.1	0.5	1.2	1.1
	1997	1.4	4.6	1.7	2.5	1.5	2.9	1.6	0.9	0.5	1.3	0.8
	1999	1.5	3.8	1.8	2.7	1.5	2.4	1.8	1.0	0.5	0.8	0.8

Table 6.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)												
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners							Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector					Total b/	Non professional, non-technical
						Total a/	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
								Establishments employing more than 5 persons	Establishments employing up to 5 persons	Domestic employment		
Mexico g/	1989	2.8	9.4	2.9	...	2.9	4.8	2.8	...	1.3	2.3	2.3
	1994	2.9	11.6	3.0	4.2	2.6	5.3	2.5	...	1.1	2.0	1.8
	1996	2.5	11.8	2.7	4.2	2.2	4.1	2.3	1.4	1.1	1.4	1.3
	1998	2.7	13.2	2.8	4.4	2.3	4.5	2.5	1.5	1.1	1.7	1.6
	2000	2.8	13.4	3.0	4.8	2.5	4.0	2.7	1.6	1.1	1.6	1.5
Nicaragua	1993	2.9	6.6	2.8	2.9	2.7	4.4	2.8	2.3	2.1	3.0	2.6
	1998	2.3	6.0	2.7	...	2.7	4.7	2.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.6
Panama	1991	4.6	11.2	4.8	6.9	3.3	7.9	4.0	2.6	1.3	2.0	1.6
	1994	4.1	12.0	4.2	6.1	3.2	7.1	3.7	2.5	1.2	2.4	2.3
	1997	4.6	10.1	4.8	6.8	3.9	8.3	4.0	2.7	1.4	2.5	2.3
	1999	5.1	8.7	5.7	7.6	4.9	9.9	4.8	2.9	2.2	2.1	1.9
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	2.3	9.0	1.8	2.4	1.6	3.4	2.4	1.5	0.8	3.0	2.9
	1994	2.6	8.6	2.3	3.4	2.0	4.3	2.5	1.8	1.2	2.3	2.3
	1996	2.7	7.2	2.8	4.7	2.3	5.5	2.8	2.0	1.2	2.2	1.9
	1999	3.0	8.9	3.0	4.4	2.7	5.5	3.1	2.4	1.7	2.2	1.9
(Urban areas)	1994	2.4	8.5	2.2	3.4	1.9	4.2	2.4	1.7	1.2	2.0	2.0
	1996	2.4	7.5	2.6	4.6	2.0	5.3	2.7	2.0	1.1	1.9	1.7
	1999	2.7	9.3	2.8	4.3	2.5	5.6	3.0	2.2	1.6	1.8	1.6
Peru	1997	2.3	5.1	3.0	3.5	2.9	5.0	2.8	1.6	2.3	1.4	1.3
	1999	2.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.3	6.7	3.3	1.7	2.9	1.3	1.2
Dominican Republic	1997	3.6	7.7	3.7	4.7	3.4	7.0	3.5	2.0	1.4	3.3	2.9
Uruguay	1990	2.7	6.9	2.7	3.4	2.5	4.8	2.8	1.9	1.5	2.1	1.8
	1994	3.4	9.9	3.4	4.4	3.1	6.4	3.4	2.5	1.7	2.7	2.2
	1997	3.7	8.3	3.8	5.0	3.4	6.7	3.8	2.6	1.8	2.9	2.3
	1999	4.1	11.5	4.2	5.6	3.8	8.0	4.0	2.8	2.1	3.1	2.4
Venezuela h/	1990	3.3	10.8	3.2	3.6	2.9	4.9	3.3	2.4	1.7	2.9	2.7
	1994	3.0	7.5	2.8	2.3	3.2	5.6	3.3	2.0	1.5	3.1	2.6
	1997	2.8	9.4	2.4	2.6	2.2	4.5	2.2	1.6	1.2	3.4	3.0
	1999	2.9	7.9	3.0	3.3	2.8	5.4	2.6	1.9	1.3	2.5	2.3

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

- a/ For Argentina (except 1999), Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), this includes public-sector wage earners. In addition, for Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this includes non-professional, non-technical wage earners in establishments employing up to four workers. Where no information was available about the size of the establishments, no data are provided for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.
- b/ Includes own account professional and technical workers.
- c/ Brazil's national household survey (PNAD) does not provide information on the size of business establishments, in 1990. Therefore, the figure given for Brazil in the column for establishments employing over 5 workers refers to wage earners who have an employment contract ("carteira"), while the column for establishments employing up to 5 workers refers to workers who do not have such contracts.
- d/ Includes private sector employees in non-professional, non-technical occupations in business establishments of undeclared size.
- e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).
- f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.
- g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH).
- h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 7

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE EMPLOYED ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)								
Country	Year	Total	Employers	Wage earners			Own account and unpaid family workers	
				Total	Public sector	Private sector a/	Total b/	Agriculture
Bolivia	1997	1.3	10.5	3.5	3.7	3.4	0.8	0.6
	1999	0.8	3.9	3.4	4.2	3.1	0.6	0.4
Brazil	1990	2.0	9.3	2.2	...	2.2	1.5	1.3
	1993	1.8	11.6	2.2	2.9	2.1	1.3	1.2
	1996	2.0	13.5	2.8	4.0	2.6	1.3	1.1
	1999	1.8	12.4	2.6	3.8	2.4	1.0	0.8
Chile c/	1990	4.9	39.3	3.2	...	3.2	5.2	5.2
	1994	4.6	28.9	3.8	...	3.8	4.2	3.7
	1996	4.2	24.0	3.5	5.3	3.4	4.0	3.5
	1998	5.3	32.8	3.9	...	3.9	6.3	5.3
	2000	5.3	36.8	4.2	7.0	3.9	5.6	4.8
Colombia	1991	3.1	10.7	2.9	...	2.9	2.3	1.7
	1994	2.5	5.8	2.8	...	2.8	1.9	2.3
	1997	2.7	7.0	3.1	5.0	3.0	1.8	1.8
	1999	2.9	5.6	3.9	6.4	3.7	1.8	1.9
Costa Rica	1990	5.1	9.9	5.2	8.4	4.6	4.0	3.9
	1994	5.8	11.7	5.4	8.4	4.9	5.4	6.3
	1997	5.6	9.3	5.5	9.4	4.9	4.7	4.9
	1999	6.3	11.3	6.0	10.2	5.4	5.3	5.5
El Salvador	1995	2.4	5.5	2.7	5.4	2.6	1.7	1.4
	1997	2.4	4.3	3.1	5.7	2.9	1.5	1.1
	1999	3.4	10.2	3.3	6.8	3.0	2.8	3.1
Guatemala	1989	2.5	21.1	2.3	4.9	2.1	2.4	2.1
	1998	2.2	19.5	2.2	3.7	2.1	1.7	1.7
Honduras	1990	1.7	14.7	2.2	4.9	1.8	1.3	1.3
	1994	2.0	8.6	2.1	4.1	1.8	1.8	1.8
	1997	1.7	9.0	1.6	3.4	1.4	1.4	1.5
	1999	1.8	6.1	2.0	4.4	1.7	1.4	1.4
Mexico d/	1989	3.0	9.3	2.7	...	2.7	3.0	2.6
	1994	2.7	9.7	2.6	5.1	2.3	2.2	1.8
	1996	2.3	7.1	2.4	4.9	2.0	1.6	1.3
	1998	2.6	8.7	2.9	5.2	2.5	1.8	1.6
	2000	3.2	14.9	2.9	5.8	2.5	2.3	1.5
Nicaragua	1993	2.2	4.8	2.7	3.0	2.6	1.9	1.4
	1998	2.1	8.8	2.8	...	2.8	1.1	0.8
Panama	1991	3.4	10.8	5.2	7.7	4.0	1.9	1.9
	1994	3.5	13.8	4.1	6.7	3.2	2.2	1.6
	1997	4.0	16.4	4.5	8.1	3.3	3.1	2.3
	1999	4.2	15.4	5.1	9.7	3.8	3.8	2.3
Paraguay	1999	2.2	17.2	2.9	5.3	2.5	1.3	1.1
Peru	1997	1.6	4.3	2.8	4.2	2.5	1.0	0.9
	1999	1.4	3.3	2.7	4.7	2.4	0.9	0.8
Dominican Republic	1997	4.3	6.6	4.3	6.2	3.8	4.2	3.4
Venezuela	1990	3.8	9.5	3.3	4.3	3.1	3.5	2.9
	1994	3.4	7.2	2.9	4.3	2.6	3.4	3.2

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

a/ Includes domestic employees. For Brazil (1990), Chile (1990, 1994 and 1998), Colombia (1991 and 1994), Mexico (1989) and Nicaragua (1998), public-sector wage earners are included.

b/ Includes workers in all sectors of activity.

c/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

d/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH).

Table 8

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME IN URBAN AREAS, BY AGE GROUPS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income disparity by age group a/						Wage disparity by age group b/					
		Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 44	45 – 54	55 and over	Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 44	45 – 54	55 and over
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	65	87	77	61	59	51	76	94	82	72	72	54
	1994	71	87	88	64	72	50	76	94	80	69	73	61
	1997	70	95	83	66	67	49	79	98	92	77	63	66
	1999	65	94	76	64	58	54	79	95	84	69	78	73
Bolivia	1989	59	71	65	54	54	62	60	74	68	60	54	44
	1994	54	61	61	58	44	40	61	60	71	68	56	40
	1997	60	60	67	72	47	40	69	65	74	85	64	39
	1999	63	72	70	55	67	54	72	81	85	63	72	63
Brazil	1990	56	73	64	54	47	35	65	77	71	63	57	52
	1993	56	74	66	53	43	48	61	77	68	56	46	54
	1996	62	77	67	62	51	54	68	80	72	65	56	60
	1999	64	80	71	62	57	54	70	83	75	66	58	59
Chile	1990	61	81	67	60	56	52	66	86	72	63	54	61
	1994	67	81	84	71	56	54	70	84	78	67	64	56
	1996	67	86	82	60	64	57	73	93	82	67	62	67
	1998	66	90	77	69	59	54	74	93	83	69	67	69
	2000	61	87	79	59	50	56	72	91	82	68	64	67
Colombia c/	1991	68	88	77	64	56	55	77	87	79	73	75	74
	1994	68	97	80	69	52	48	83	104	90	82	67	57
	1997	79	90	95	83	60	58	77	92	85	73	64	60
	1999	75	101	86	69	68	55	83	101	94	76	75	66
Costa Rica	1990	72	86	75	66	60	61	74	87	78	66	62	81
	1994	69	82	76	64	60	55	75	84	79	70	65	77
	1997	78	99	79	73	74	51	87	102	87	79	87	55
	1999	70	87	75	67	64	59	78	89	79	75	72	70
Ecuador	1990	66	80	70	61	60	64	67	78	73	63	63	60
	1994	67	77	73	65	57	58	76	81	82	76	65	72
	1997	75	90	84	70	64	67	83	94	90	77	75	62
	1999	67	99	82	61	51	55	83	99	93	78	69	52
El Salvador	1995	63	76	70	58	52	47	79	80	81	72	85	61
	1997	72	97	74	69	64	53	88	100	85	85	91	73
	1999	75	84	79	71	67	60	88	87	93	84	86	70
Guatemala	1998	55	57	51	58	58	56	70	86	83	67	72	48
Honduras	1990	59	77	68	51	56	43	78	81	80	70	89	103
	1994	63	80	72	69	47	43	73	82	80	82	67	32
	1997	60	81	72	58	47	37	77	86	78	74	70	72
	1999	65	78	65	68	51	52	78	80	76	82	69	86
Mexico	1989	55	71	63	52	46	48	73	86	78	69	59	82
	1994	57	83	65	57	45	46	68	91	74	78	49	49
	1996	59	83	61	62	45	52	73	90	73	66	72	84
	1998	57	84	71	51	54	40	72	89	79	68	63	72
	2000	58	79	76	53	42	58	72	83	92	65	83	82
Nicaragua	1993	77	107	87	62	64	67	77	90	88	54	64	95
	1998	65	92	73	60	47	43	77	103	77	73	56	47

Table 8 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME IN URBAN AREAS, BY AGE GROUPS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income disparity by age group a/						Wage disparity by age group b/					
		Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 44	45 – 54	55 and over	Total	15 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 44	45 – 54	55 and over
Panama	1991	80	76	90	83	73	74	80	71	89	86	74	67
	1994	71	81	77	73	58	54	75	80	86	73	63	52
	1997	74	82	81	71	73	52	76	81	87	73	73	50
	1999	83	101	90	79	79	61	84	99	92	77	78	59
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	55	63	68	52	50	60	63	66	72	58	63	77
	1994	60	73	71	58	68	33	64	77	71	58	70	47
	1996	64	76	66	71	48	56	76	76	74	82	72	93
	1999	71	96	84	67	69	44	79	102	92	70	62	69
Peru	1997	60	80	67	58	49	41	73	89	79	79	67	48
	1999	63	95	83	63	47	32	78	99	94	86	61	40
Dominican Republic	1997	75	95	77	76	51	69	90	97	87	90	84	67
Uruguay	1990	45	63	60	46	37	30	64	79	73	61	59	49
	1994	61	76	65	58	56	51	63	76	66	59	60	51
	1997	65	79	72	63	59	55	67	79	71	64	60	55
	1999	67	79	77	63	65	55	68	79	75	61	66	53
Venezuela d/	1990	66	80	72	64	57	48	79	86	82	74	68	66
	1994	70	96	77	64	56	57	83	106	84	75	67	69
	1997	69	84	77	62	60	55	83	92	87	77	73	65
	1999	74	92	76	71	65	57	91	99	91	85	79	91

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

a/ Income differential among the entire employed population.

b/ Income differential among wage earners.

c/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

d/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 9

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME IN URBAN AREAS, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, 1990–2000 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income disparity by years of schooling <i>a/</i>						Wage disparity by years of schooling <i>b/</i>					
		Total	0 – 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10 – 12	13 and over	Total	0 – 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10 – 12	13 and over
Argentina <i>c/</i> (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	65	...	66	...	63	51	76	...	73	...	68	62
	1994	71	...	62	65	65	63	76
	1997	70	73	66	67	69	55	79	60	57	69	76	64
	1999	65	64	82	58	63	51	79	63	72	58	77	66
Bolivia	1989	59	62	67	76	77	46	60	40	49	69	85	49
	1994	54	60	58	67	65	54	61	44	48	56	70	60
	1997	60	59	66	53	75	57	69	61	46	48	79	60
	1999	63	63	64	66	71	66	72	55	59	42	82	65
Brazil	1990	56	46	46	50	49	49	65	56	51	57	53	52
	1993	56	49	46	49	51	46	61	56	51	56	55	45
	1996	62	57	52	53	53	53	68	65	57	57	57	56
	1999	64	58	51	55	55	56	70	65	58	59	60	57
Chile	1990	61	56	58	69	62	49	66	64	49	66	69	55
	1994	67	93	70	69	69	54	70	83	68	66	72	58
	1996	67	83	65	70	70	53	73	74	68	74	73	60
	1998	66	71	63	65	71	54	74	72	64	71	75	63
	2000	61	75	71	68	68	48	72	82	73	73	74	60
Colombia <i>d/</i>	1991	68	57	60	70	72	64	77	71	70	78	78	68
	1994	68	59	68	65	71	57	83	80	81	83	86	66
	1997	79	69	65	108	88	61	77	74	74	71	78	67
	1999	75	66	71	75	73	70	83	79	86	84	81	74
Costa Rica	1990	72	53	62	65	73	67	74	58	66	67	76	66
	1994	69	61	55	58	64	70	75	61	63	68	67	75
	1997	78	61	58	61	77	75	87	66	67	70	83	77
	1999	70	49	62	57	65	68	78	59	68	66	73	71
Ecuador	1990	66	49	57	68	79	57	67	42	47	70	77	56
	1994	67	60	61	70	72	59	76	56	59	68	83	66
	1997	75	57	60	61	87	70	83	64	61	63	92	72
	1999	67	63	62	62	71	60	83	55	60	68	87	71
El Salvador	1995	63	61	56	63	69	65	79	59	56	67	83	72
	1997	72	77	67	76	80	66	88	80	73	85	92	71
	1999	75	73	75	78	80	71	88	79	79	81	88	73
Guatemala	1998	55	57	51	58	58	56	70	56	59	66	71	62
Honduras	1990	59	47	50	58	69	54	78	55	55	66	82	63
	1994	63	60	65	66	67	56	73	57	70	80	74	63
	1997	60	52	56	58	66	54	77	60	69	76	76	59
	1999	65	60	62	59	66	66	78	67	68	60	76	74
Mexico <i>e/</i>	1989	55	61	50	70	62	46	73	71	68	83	78	63
	1994	57	...	58	65	70	48	68	...	59	78	76	56
	1996	59	56	67	71	63	49	73	67	69	81	76	63
	1998	57	72	56	65	63	47	72	61	65	75	78	56
	2000	58	67	59	55	72	49	72	67	61	63	84	60

Table 9 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): RATIO OF AVERAGE FEMALE INCOME TO AVERAGE MALE INCOME IN URBAN AREAS, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, 1990–2000 (Percentages)													
Country	Year	Earned income disparity by years of schooling a/						Wage disparity by years of schooling b/					
		Total	0 – 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10 – 12	13 and over	Total	0 – 3	4 – 6	7 – 9	10 – 12	13 and over
Nicaragua	1993	77	95	73	71	91	58	77	86	76	72	77	65
	1998	65	68	80	67	52	53	77	72	75	64	57	67
Panama	1991	80	45	55	67	80	72	80	45	52	66	78	76
	1994	71	51	52	60	68	61	75	57	53	62	76	62
	1997	74	58	54	58	69	62	76	49	55	65	75	63
	1999	83	57	60	66	75	71	84	58	58	68	80	71
Paraguay	1990	55	69	55	60	65	42	63	51	50	58	72	58
	1994	60	64	59	66	67	52	64	64	59	66	75	51
	1996	64	69	62	55	67	58	76	56	61	60	81	70
	1999	71	62	76	62	74	63	79	72	75	61	86	67
Peru	1997	60	69	66	61	71	53	73	79	69	62	80	65
	1999	63	65	65	...	67	62	78	78	80	...	69	72
Dominican Republic	1997	75	57	60	60	75	66	90	67	71	67	95	75
Uruguay	1990	45	50	41	40	42	37	64	52	57	63	59	57
	1994	61	59	55	55	56	50	63	57	54	59	59	51
	1997	65	54	57	60	58	56	67	51	57	62	62	57
	1999	67	61	58	61	62	56	68	54	56	63	65	58
Venezuela f/	1990	66	62	58	68	61	62	79	73	68	77	78	71
	1994	70	68	62	70	63	67	84	83	75	90	71	76
	1997	69	71	61	64	60	63	83	74	73	71	75	70
	1999	74	71	65	66	63	66	91	83	73	75	77	74

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

a/ Income differential among the entire employed population.

b/ Income differential among wage earners.

c/ The levels of schooling in Argentina are 0 to 6 years, 7 to 9 years, and 10 years and over.

d/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

e/ Except for 1989, the levels of schooling for Mexico are from 0 to 5 years; 6 to 9 years; 10 to 12 years and 13 years and over.

f/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 10

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	44.4	3.8	12.0	0.4	11.6	5.7	22.9	6.9	16.0
	1994	42.7	3.4	14.8	1.4	13.4	4.8	19.7	6.0	13.6
	1997	41.4	3.7	15.9	1.4	14.5	5.1	16.7	4.6	12.1
	1999	40.4	3.2	14.9	1.3	13.6	5.3	17.0	5.1	11.9
	2000	42.2	3.4	16.0	1.4	14.6	5.3	17.5	5.1	12.4
	(Urban areas)	1999	42.2	3.2	14.9	1.4	13.5	5.8	18.3	5.4
	2000	43.5	3.3	15.4	1.3	14.1	5.9	18.9	5.6	13.2
Bolivia	1989	58.5	1.1	10.5	0.9	9.6	5.8	41.1	9.8	30.0
	1994	63.0	6.2	14.8	1.0	13.8	5.2	36.8	9.1	27.1
	1997	65.5	5.0	12.0	1.0	11.0	3.6	44.9	11.9	27.7
	1999	64.3	2.5	12.8	1.0	11.8	3.1	45.9	12.1	31.1
	2000	63.1	1.7	10.8	0.6	10.2	4.2	46.4	12.1	30.9
Brazil d/	1990	49.2	...	21.6	4.3	17.3	6.2	21.4	3.5	15.8
	1993	45.5	1.9	9.0	0.5	8.5	8.2	26.4	4.7	16.0
	1996	46.7	2.0	10.6	0.7	9.9	8.4	25.7	5.0	15.9
	1999	47.3	2.2	10.1	1.7	8.4	8.5	26.5	5.2	16.4
Chile e/	1990	38.8	0.8	10.3	0.9	9.4	7.0	20.7	5.7	14.0
	1994	34.6	1.8	9.4	0.8	8.6	6.1	17.3	5.4	11.2
	1996	34.3	2.0	10.1	1.0	9.1	6.1	16.1	4.2	10.7
	1998	34.4	2.6	10.7	1.0	9.7	5.9	15.2	4.1	10.2
	2000	32.5	2.4	9.0	1.0	8.0	6.2	14.9	4.3	9.6
Colombia f/	1991	5.6	27.3	6.4	20.0
	1994	5.3	25.0	6.2	18.4
	1997	4.5	30.8	7.1	22.9
	1999	5.2	35.7	7.5	26.7
Costa Rica	1990	36.9	4.4	10.5	0.8	9.7	4.4	17.6	6.4	10.1
	1994	38.0	5.0	12.6	1.4	11.2	3.8	16.6	4.6	11.1
	1997	39.6	6.1	12.2	1.0	11.2	3.5	17.8	4.8	12.4
	1999	41.6	6.0	13.2	1.4	11.8	5.1	17.3	4.5	11.9
	2000	39.1	4.1	13.0	1.2	11.8	4.5	17.5	4.5	11.9
Ecuador	1990	54.5	3.6	11.9	0.6	11.3	4.5	34.5	7.8	24.4
	1994	56.5	6.5	13.2	1.0	12.2	4.7	32.1	6.0	24.1
	1997	56.6	6.2	12.6	0.8	11.8	5.0	32.8	6.9	23.6
	1999	58.9	7.0	15.0	1.6	13.4	5.4	31.5	5.6	23.8
	2000	56.5	3.0	15.0	1.2	13.8	4.7	33.8	7.1	24.1
El Salvador	1990	55.6	2.7	13.6	0.3	13.3	6.1	33.2	8.7	21.8
	1995	51.0	4.9	10.7	0.2	10.5	4.4	31.0	8.1	20.2
	1997	52.5	4.8	11.8	0.6	11.2	4.4	31.5	7.1	21.5
	1999	52.2	4.1	14.6	0.8	13.8	4.3	29.2	6.7	20.0
	2000	53.8	5.0	13.5	1.0	12.5	4.1	31.2	7.0	21.7
Guatemala	1989	54.6	2.1	14.6	0.8	13.8	7.0	30.9	7.4	14.9
	1998	55.1	3.6	20.5	2.9	17.6	6.7	24.3	7.3	11.6
Honduras	1990	53.3	1.0	13.9	0.7	13.2	6.7	31.7	8.9	18.7
	1994	49.9	3.0	11.9	0.9	11.0	5.4	29.5	8.1	16.1
	1997	54.3	5.3	11.6	0.6	11.0	5.1	32.3	7.6	20.4
	1999	55.2	5.1	12.2	1.0	11.2	4.8	33.1	7.4	22.0

Table 10 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional, non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	2.8	2.7	18.9	3.0	12.5
	1994	...	3.3	3.7	20.4	4.2	14.9
	1996	43.6	3.8	15.8	1.2	14.6	3.6	20.4	3.8	15.7
	1998	44.3	3.9	15.9	1.0	14.9	4.1	20.4	3.2	16.4
	2000	42.5	3.9	16.0	1.1	14.9	3.0	19.6	3.6	15.1
Nicaragua	1993	49.2	0.5	13.3	1.6	11.7	6.2	29.2	7.7	17.5
	1998	60.6	3.0	16.2	1.7	14.5	6.4	35.0	4.3	26.4
Panama	1991	37.9	2.6	5.8	0.6	5.2	7.0	22.5	4.3	11.2
	1994	35.4	1.7	6.0	0.3	5.7	7.3	20.4	4.4	11.4
	1997	36.6	2.0	6.4	0.8	5.6	6.4	21.8	4.8	12.6
	1999	37.3	2.1	7.2	0.7	6.5	6.1	21.9	4.6	13.5
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	55.5	6.8	17.0	1.1	15.9	10.5	21.2	5.2	15.5
	1994	54.6	7.1	14.6	1.3	13.3	11.5	21.4	5.3	15.9
	1996	57.1	4.7	14.6	0.8	13.8	9.3	28.5	6.4	19.9
	1999	51.9	4.7	14.9	1.3	13.6	9.1	23.2	5.2	17.1
(Urban areas)	1994	61.2	7.2	16.0	1.0	15.0	10.5	27.5	5.4	20.2
	1996	62.9	4.9	15.0	0.6	14.4	9.3	33.7	5.6	24.3
	1999	59.1	5.0	15.8	0.9	14.9	9.2	29.1	5.2	21.3
Peru	1997	60.6	4.9	13.1	1.2	11.9	4.4	38.2	5.4	28.6
	1999	63.3	4.5	14.9	1.9	13.0	5.8	38.1	4.9	29.4
Dominican Republic	1992	3.2	32.8	5.6	23.0
	1995	3.8	30.6	4.9	22.1
	1997	47.0	2.1	9.1	0.7	8.4	4.4	31.4	6.8	21.3
	2000	45.1	1.8	8.5	0.7	7.8	4.1	30.7	7.3	20.6
Uruguay	1990	39.2	2.7	10.6	0.3	10.3	6.9	19.0	5.6	12.0
	1994	40.3	3.3	9.9	0.5	9.4	7.0	20.1	6.4	12.7
	1997	42.2	2.8	11.5	0.5	11.0	7.1	20.8	6.8	12.7
	1999	41.5	2.4	11.0	0.6	10.4	7.5	20.6	7.0	12.7
	2000	42.6	2.4	11.8	0.7	11.1	9.1	19.3	7.3	10.9
Venezuela h/	1990	39.2	4.9	6.7	0.2	6.5	6.3	21.3	4.1	15.3
	1994	45.3	4.2	9.7	0.5	9.2	4.0	27.4	5.9	19.0
	1997	49.4	3.6	11.3	0.5	10.8	4.3	30.2	6.1	19.9
	1999	53.7	3.9	12.6	0.5	12.1	2.0	35.2	6.7	23.7
	2000	54.6	3.8	11.6	0.4	11.2	2.1	37.1	7.4	24.7

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons.

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

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

d/ To 1990, the heading "Micro-enterprises" refers to wage earners lacking an employment contract. In 1993 and from 1996 to 1999, however, it refers to wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons, so that the figures from these years are not comparable to those of previous years.

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH). In the 1989 and 1994 surveys, no information was provided about the size of establishments in which wage earners were employed.

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 10.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non- professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	42.2	4.6	12.7	0.3	12.4	1.8	23.1	8.5	14.6
	1994	41.3	4.4	15.7	1.2	14.5	0.4	20.8	8.4	12.3
	1997	39.8	4.5	18.7	1.2	17.5	0.4	16.2	6.0	10.2
	1999	39.4	4.2	16.9	1.0	15.9	0.2	18.1	7.2	10.8
	2000	40.8	4.1	17.9	1.5	16.4	0.2	18.6	7.2	11.4
	(Urban areas)	1999	40.9	4.1	16.8	1.2	15.6	0.2	19.8	7.6
	2000	42.5	4.1	17.6	1.5	16.1	0.2	20.6	8.0	12.4
Bolivia	1989	48.8	1.5	13.8	0.9	12.9	0.6	32.9	11.5	19.9
	1994	53.7	8.6	19.2	0.9	18.3	0.5	25.4	9.1	15.6
	1997	58.4	7.1	15.2	1.1	14.1	0.5	35.6	12.6	17.1
	1999	57.2	3.0	16.7	1.1	15.6	0.3	37.2	12.7	19.5
	2000	56.2	2.2	15.1	0.8	14.3	0.2	38.7	15.3	19.2
Brazil d/	1990	44.7	...	23.4	2.3	21.1	0.4	20.9	5.1	12.9
	1993	40.6	2.5	10.6	0.5	10.1	0.8	26.7	6.7	14.8
	1996	42.6	2.5	12.0	0.6	11.4	0.8	27.3	7.4	15.1
	1999	43.7	2.9	11.6	1.1	10.5	0.8	28.4	7.5	15.9
Chile e/	1990	33.8	0.9	10.7	0.7	10.0	0.2	22.0	6.3	14.3
	1994	30.1	2.0	9.8	0.7	9.1	0.1	18.2	6.2	10.9
	1996	30.2	2.3	10.7	1.0	9.7	0.2	17.0	4.8	10.6
	1998	30.0	2.9	10.5	0.8	9.7	0.1	16.5	5.0	10.2
	2000	27.9	2.9	9.1	0.9	8.2	0.1	15.8	5.2	9.2
Colombia f/	1991	0.3	28.4	6.2	20.9
	1994	0.2	26.0	6.7	18.7
	1997	0.2	32.6	8.4	22.9
	1999	0.5	37.3	8.4	26.5
Costa Rica	1990	35.1	5.7	11.1	0.8	10.3	0.2	18.1	5.7	10.8
	1994	36.2	6.1	13.1	1.5	11.6	0.3	16.7	4.4	10.9
	1997	38.5	7.8	13.4	1.0	12.4	0.2	17.1	5.2	11.0
	1999	39.5	7.7	14.7	1.4	13.3	0.4	16.7	4.4	10.9
	2000	37.4	5.1	13.5	1.1	12.4	0.3	18.5	5.3	11.6
Ecuador	1990	50.7	4.3	14.2	0.4	13.8	0.6	31.6	8.0	20.7
	1994	52.5	7.8	15.9	0.9	15.0	0.3	28.5	5.8	20.2
	1997	52.2	7.6	14.8	0.6	14.2	0.7	29.1	6.5	19.5
	1999	54.9	8.6	18.0	1.4	16.6	0.6	27.7	5.4	19.6
	2000	53.6	3.8	18.0	1.2	16.8	0.7	31.1	7.5	20.6
El Salvador	1990	45.9	3.8	18.6	0.4	18.2	0.4	23.1	6.0	12.8
	1995	43.0	6.7	14.5	0.2	14.3	0.5	21.3	5.2	11.5
	1997	44.7	6.3	15.2	0.6	14.6	0.3	22.9	5.6	12.2
	1999	45.7	5.5	19.6	1.0	18.6	0.6	20.0	4.2	11.3
	2000	47.1	6.6	18.1	1.3	16.8	0.4	22.0	5.0	12.5
Guatemala	1989	49.5	2.5	18.2	0.8	17.4	0.2	28.6	5.7	10.1
	1998	53.4	4.7	26.1	3.3	22.8	1.5	21.1	5.2	7.8
Honduras	1990	46.6	1.2	18.2	0.8	17.4	0.4	26.8	6.6	13.5
	1994	43.0	4.1	12.0	0.9	14.2	0.0	26.9	5.6	12.6
	1997	52.1	7.3	16.2	0.4	15.8	0.8	27.8	4.7	15.7
	1999	52.4	6.7	17.1	0.9	16.2	0.6	28.0	4.1	17.6

Table 10.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non- professional, non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	3.5	0.6	17.5	2.5	10.5
	1994	...	4.4	0.6	17.9	4.0	12.6
	1996	41.7	5.1	18.3	1.0	17.3	0.9	17.4	3.6	12.9
	1998	41.3	5.1	18.4	1.0	17.4	1.2	16.6	2.6	13.2
	2000	40.7	5.1	19.3	1.2	18.1	0.9	15.4	3.6	10.7
Nicaragua	1993	45.8	0.6	17.4	1.2	16.2	0.3	27.5	6.8	14.2
	1998	55.8	4.2	20.4	1.7	18.7	1.2	30.0	4.9	18.2
Panama	1991	39.3	3.4	6.5	0.6	5.9	0.6	28.8	5.4	12.7
	1994	35.7	2.1	7.0	0.3	6.7	1.2	25.4	5.6	13.0
	1997	36.6	2.7	6.7	0.7	6.0	1.0	26.2	6.0	13.2
	1999	36.7	2.5	8.1	0.7	7.4	1.0	25.1	5.5	13.7
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	48.0	10.2	21.4	0.8	20.6	0.0	16.4	4.3	11.5
	1994	47.9	8.8	19.3	1.2	18.1	1.6	18.2	5.4	11.9
	1996	51.1	6.2	19.3	0.9	18.4	1.0	24.6	6.6	15.0
	1999	43.8	6.1	16.4	1.9	14.5	0.8	20.5	4.9	14.5
(Urban areas)	1994	55.1	9.0	21.2	1.0	20.2	1.4	23.5	5.3	15.4
	1996	56.7	6.6	20.1	0.8	19.3	0.9	29.1	6.0	18.4
	1999	51.9	6.8	19.1	1.2	17.9	0.9	25.1	4.9	16.8
Peru	1997	53.7	7.0	17.0	1.1	15.9	0.2	29.5	5.3	19.2
	1999	56.5	6.2	18.0	1.9	16.1	0.4	31.9	5.0	21.7
Dominican Republic	1992	0.2	36.2	5.8	24.0
	1995	0.2	35.1	5.3	24.4
	1997	47.5	2.7	9.9	0.5	9.4	0.4	34.5	8.7	20.8
	2000	46.6	1.9	8.5	0.8	7.7	0.6	35.6	10.1	21.3
Uruguay	1990	34.8	3.7	12.1	0.3	11.8	0.1	18.9	5.4	11.7
	1994	36.0	4.2	11.0	0.4	10.6	0.1	20.7	6.9	12.4
	1997	38.2	3.6	12.3	0.3	12.0	0.2	22.1	8.1	12.8
	1999	38.6	3.1	12.1	0.4	11.7	0.2	23.2	9.0	13.0
	2000	38.3	3.1	12.0	0.6	11.4	1.3	21.9	9.6	10.7
Venezuela h/	1990	39.1	6.5	8.2	0.2	8.0	1.9	22.5	4.0	15.7
	1994	47.8	5.8	11.3	0.4	10.9	1.5	29.2	6.5	19.0
	1997	50.4	4.8	13.8	0.4	13.4	1.5	30.3	6.8	17.4
	1999	54.6	5.2	15.2	0.3	14.9	0.1	34.1	7.2	19.9
	2000	55.6	5.1	14.0	0.3	13.7	0.1	36.4	8.4	20.6

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons.

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

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

d/ To 1990, the heading "Micro-enterprises" refers to wage earners lacking an employment contract. In 1993 and from 1996 to 1999, however, it refers to wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons, so that the figures from these years are not comparable to those of previous years.

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH). In the 1989 and 1994 surveys, no information was provided about the size of establishments in which wage earners were employed.

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 10.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non- professional, non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	48.0	2.3	10.6	0.4	10.2	12.5	22.6	4.0	18.6
	1994	45.6	1.6	13.0	1.5	11.5	12.3	18.7	1.8	16.8
	1997	43.9	2.5	11.2	1.6	9.6	12.7	17.5	2.3	15.2
	1999	41.9	1.7	12.2	1.9	10.3	12.7	15.3	1.9	13.4
	2000	44.1	2.2	13.2	1.2	12.0	13.0	15.7	2.0	13.7
	(Urban areas)	1999	44.0	1.7	11.8	1.6	10.2	14.2	16.3	2.1
	2000	45.2	2.2	12.2	1.1	11.1	14.3	16.5	2.1	14.3
Bolivia	1989	71.5	0.4	6.1	0.9	5.2	12.9	52.1	7.5	43.6
	1994	75.0	3.1	9.0	1.1	7.9	11.2	51.7	9.1	42.1
	1997	75.2	2.1	7.9	0.9	7.0	7.7	57.5	11.1	41.8
	1999	75.3	1.7	7.6	0.7	6.9	6.7	59.3	11.3	45.9
	2000	71.9	1.1	5.2	0.3	4.9	9.4	56.2	8.1	45.7
Brazil d/	1990	56.8	...	18.8	7.6	11.2	15.6	22.4	0.9	20.7
	1993	53.2	1.0	6.6	0.6	6.0	19.8	25.8	1.6	17.8
	1996	52.7	1.3	8.3	0.7	7.6	19.7	23.4	1.6	17.1
	1999	53.1	1.3	8.0	2.7	5.3	20.3	23.5	1.7	17.1
Chile e/	1990	47.5	0.5	9.5	1.3	8.2	19.4	18.1	4.6	13.3
	1994	42.7	1.5	8.6	0.9	7.7	16.8	15.8	4.0	11.7
	1996	41.5	1.5	9.2	1.0	8.2	16.3	14.5	3.2	10.9
	1998	41.7	2.1	11.1	1.4	9.7	15.2	13.3	2.8	10.3
	2000	39.8	1.6	8.9	1.1	7.8	16.0	13.3	2.8	10.2
Colombia f/	1991	13.6	25.5	6.8	18.6
	1994	12.7	23.4	5.4	17.9
	1997	10.4	28.2	5.2	22.9
	1999	11.5	33.4	6.3	26.8
Costa Rica	1990	40.1	1.9	9.5	0.9	8.6	12.0	16.7	7.7	8.9
	1994	40.9	3.1	11.5	1.2	10.3	10.1	16.2	4.9	11.3
	1997	41.3	3.3	10.1	0.9	9.2	9.2	18.7	4.0	14.7
	1999	45.1	3.3	11.0	1.6	9.4	12.6	18.2	4.6	13.5
	1999	41.7	2.3	12.3	1.4	10.9	11.4	15.7	3.2	12.4
Ecuador	1990	61.1	2.3	7.6	0.9	6.7	11.6	39.6	7.5	31.0
	1994	62.8	4.4	8.8	1.1	7.7	11.8	37.8	6.2	30.5
	1997	62.8	4.0	9.2	1.2	8.0	10.9	38.7	7.5	30.2
	1999	65.1	4.4	10.3	1.9	8.4	13.1	37.3	5.8	30.5
	2000	61.0	1.7	10.1	1.1	9.0	11.1	38.1	6.5	29.6
El Salvador	1990	67.9	1.4	7.5	0.3	7.2	13.1	45.9	12.1	33.0
	1995	60.8	2.8	6.1	0.3	5.8	9.1	42.8	11.6	30.7
	1997	62.0	3.0	7.6	0.5	7.1	9.4	42.0	8.9	32.8
	1999	59.6	2.6	8.9	0.5	8.4	8.6	39.5	9.5	29.7
	2000	61.1	3.1	8.3	0.6	7.7	8.2	41.5	9.3	32.0
Guatemala	1989	62.7	1.3	8.7	0.8	7.9	18.1	34.6	10.1	22.7
	1998	57.3	2.2	13.3	2.3	11.0	13.3	28.5	10.0	16.5
Honduras	1990	63.3	0.8	7.5	0.6	6.9	16.0	39.0	12.3	26.5
	1994	55.6	1.5	6.8	0.8	6.0	13.7	33.6	12.0	21.4
	1997	57.3	2.7	5.5	0.8	4.7	10.7	38.4	11.4	26.7
	1999	58.5	3.2	6.3	1.2	5.1	9.9	39.1	11.3	27.2

Table 10.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (Percentages of the total employed urban population)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Domestic employment	Unskilled self-employed workers b/		
			Employers	Wage earners				Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
				Total	Professional and technical	Non- professional, non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	1.2	7.1	21.9	4.0	16.7
	1994	...	1.1	9.6	25.0	4.6	19.1
	1996	47.6	2.0	11.4	1.5	9.9	8.3	25.9	4.2	20.7
	1998	49.6	1.9	11.6	0.9	10.7	9.0	27.1	4.4	22.0
	2000	45.7	1.8	10.6	1.0	9.6	6.5	26.8	3.7	22.4
Nicaragua	1993	54.2	0.5	7.9	2.2	5.7	14.1	31.7	9.0	22.0
	1998	67.4	1.3	10.7	1.8	8.9	13.5	41.9	3.6	37.4
Panama	1991	35.1	1.3	4.5	0.5	4.0	17.8	11.5	2.3	8.6
	1994	35.3	1.0	4.5	0.5	4.0	18.1	11.7	2.3	8.7
	1997	37.1	1.0	6.0	1.0	5.0	15.3	14.8	2.8	11.8
	1999	38.6	1.4	6.0	0.8	5.2	14.4	16.8	3.1	13.3
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	65.9	2.0	10.2	1.6	8.6	25.6	28.1	6.5	21.1
	1994	65.0	4.9	9.0	1.5	7.5	24.3	26.8	5.3	21.1
	1996	65.1	2.8	8.4	0.6	7.8	20.0	33.9	6.3	26.4
	1999	64.3	2.9	13.0	0.6	12.4	20.1	28.3	5.7	22.1
(Urban areas)	1994	69.9	4.7	8.5	1.0	7.5	23.3	33.4	5.6	27.0
	1996	71.4	2.5	8.1	0.4	7.7	20.8	40.0	5.1	32.4
	1999	69.1	2.5	11.3	0.5	10.8	20.7	34.6	5.6	27.5
Peru	1997	69.3	2.2	8.2	1.3	6.9	9.8	49.1	5.4	40.4
	1999	71.5	2.5	10.9	1.8	9.1	12.4	45.7	4.8	38.8
Dominican Republic	1992	8.7	26.7	5.2	21.4
	1995	10.5	21.9	4.0	17.8
	1997	46.0	1.1	7.6	0.9	6.7	11.6	25.7	3.6	22.0
	2000	42.8	1.6	8.7	0.6	8.1	9.7	22.8	2.9	19.4
Uruguay	1990	46.1	1.4	8.5	0.4	8.1	17.1	19.1	6.0	12.3
	1994	46.3	2.0	8.2	0.6	7.6	16.8	19.3	5.7	13.0
	1997	46.8	1.6	10.2	0.7	9.5	16.7	18.3	5.0	12.6
	1999	45.4	1.6	9.3	0.7	8.6	17.4	17.1	4.4	12.2
	2000	48.2	1.4	11.4	0.8	10.6	19.5	15.9	4.2	11.3
Venezuela h/	1990	39.6	1.7	3.7	0.3	3.4	15.0	19.2	4.4	14.6
	1994	40.7	1.2	6.6	0.7	5.9	9.0	23.9	4.7	19.0
	1997	47.9	1.4	6.6	0.8	5.8	9.7	30.2	5.0	24.6
	1999	52.2	1.5	7.7	0.7	7.0	5.6	37.4	5.9	30.6
	2000	52.9	1.5	7.4	0.5	6.9	5.6	38.4	5.6	32.0

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

- a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons.
- b/ Refers to own account workers and non-paid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations.
- c/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.
- d/ To 1990, the heading "Micro-enterprises" refers to wage earners lacking an employment contract. In 1993 and from 1996 to 1999, however, it refers to wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons, so that the figures from these years are not comparable to those of previous years.
- e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).
- f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.
- g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH). In the 1989 and 1994 surveys, no information was provided about the size of establishments in which wage earners were employed.
- h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 11

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Unskilled self-employed workers b/			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	6.6	18.4	3.7	7.6	3.6	7.2	7.0	7.4	2.5
	1994	8.3	24.8	5.0	7.7	4.7	9.1	8.8	9.2	3.3
	1997	6.5	23.1	3.9	6.0	3.7	6.5	6.6	6.4	2.6
	1999	5.7	19.7	3.8	6.1	3.5	8.1	5.7	6.2	2.4
Bolivia	1989	3.6	11.8	2.8	4.5	2.6	3.9	3.3	4.0	1.6
	1994	2.7	8.1	2.4	3.6	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.0
	1997	2.6	7.1	2.5	5.7	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.6	1.1
	1999	2.5	7.1	2.6	5.0	2.4	2.2	1.9	2.4	1.8
Brazil d/	1990	4.1	...	3.6	7.6	2.6	3.4	3.3	3.6	1.0
	1993	2.6	11.3	2.2	5.1	2.0	2.7	2.6	3.4	1.1
	1996	3.4	14.0	2.7	5.9	2.5	3.7	3.5	4.5	1.5
	1999	3.0	10.3	2.4	3.6	2.1	2.8	2.7	3.5	1.4
Chile e/	1990	3.8	18.8	2.6	4.8	2.4	4.7	3.9	5.1	1.4
	1994	4.3	17.4	3.2	6.8	2.9	4.6	4.6	4.6	2.0
	1996	5.6	22.3	3.4	7.9	2.9	6.0	5.5	6.1	2.0
	1998	5.9	24.0	3.4	7.1	3.0	5.9	5.5	6.2	2.2
	2000	5.3	21.8	3.6	8.2	3.0	5.2	5.1	5.4	2.4
Colombia f/	1991	2.2	2.0	2.3	1.3
	1994	2.9	2.6	2.9	1.7
	1997	2.8	2.4	2.8	1.6
	1999	1.9	1.6	1.9	2.1
Costa Rica	1990	3.7	6.5	3.5	6.7	3.2	3.4	2.9	3.6	1.5
	1994	4.3	9.2	3.8	6.3	3.5	4.0	2.9	4.2	1.6
	1997	3.9	7.4	3.3	4.9	3.2	3.6	3.3	3.7	1.8
	1999	4.5	9.3	4.0	7.0	3.6	4.0	3.6	4.1	1.7
Ecuador	1990	2.0	4.0	2.3	3.4	2.3	1.8	1.7	1.9	0.8
	1994	2.4	6.1	2.0	3.9	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.1	0.9
	1997	2.3	5.5	2.0	5.0	1.8	2.1	1.8	2.2	0.9
	1999	1.9	6.0	1.8	2.6	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.9	0.9
El Salvador	1995	2.4	6.8	2.0	3.1	2.0	2.0	1.6	2.4	1.0
	1997	2.6	7.3	2.5	6.4	2.3	2.1	2.0	2.4	1.9
	1999	2.9	8.8	2.5	4.4	2.4	2.4	1.7	2.6	2.1
Guatemala	1989	2.8	13.1	1.8	3.9	1.7	2.8	2.4	3.5	1.4
	1998	2.0	7.7	2.2	4.1	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.5	0.7
Honduras	1990	1.6	7.6	1.7	3.9	1.6	1.5	1.1	1.6	0.8
	1994	1.6	4.8	1.4	2.5	1.3	1.6	1.1	1.7	0.5
	1997	1.5	4.7	1.2	2.6	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.3	0.5
	1999	1.5	4.4	1.1	1.7	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.3	0.5

Table 11 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Unskilled self-employed workers b/			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	15.5	3.8	3.5	5.2	1.4
	1994	...	13.8	3.3	2.7	3.6	1.2
	1996	3.2	13.7	1.8	2.9	1.7	2.3	1.9	2.4	1.2
	1998	3.1	11.7	2.1	4.7	1.9	2.6	2.1	2.7	1.3
	2000	3.5	12.9	2.2	3.5	2.1	3.0	2.7	3.2	1.3
Nicaragua	1993	3.0	8.8	2.6	4.8	2.3	2.9	2.7	3.3	2.1
	1998	2.3	6.9	2.2	5.2	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	1.7
Panama	1991	2.5	7.7	3.1	7.4	2.6	2.3	2.5	3.0	1.3
	1994	3.3	11.4	2.6	6.4	2.4	3.4	3.7	4.2	1.3
	1997	3.4	11.6	2.9	5.1	2.6	3.4	3.7	3.9	1.4
	1999	3.5	11.4	3.2	7.8	2.7	3.0	3.1	3.4	2.2
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	3.1	8.2	1.9	3.8	1.8	3.6	2.4	4.1	0.8
	1994	3.0	8.7	2.3	4.9	2.0	2.4	2.0	2.6	1.3
	1996	2.5	7.2	2.3	3.3	2.3	2.5	2.1	2.7	1.2
	1999	2.6	6.2	2.5	4.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.3	1.7
(Urban areas)	1994	2.7	8.3	2.1	4.7	1.9	2.3	1.9	2.4	1.2
	1996	2.4	6.8	2.2	3.7	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.5	1.1
	1999	2.3	5.7	2.2	3.8	2.1	2.0	1.9	2.1	1.6
Peru	1997	2.4	6.5	2.4	3.6	2.3	1.8	1.6	1.9	2.3
	1999	2.1	4.5	2.2	3.9	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.7	2.9
Dominican Republic	1997	3.8	9.9	2.6	5.1	2.4	4.0	4.2	4.1	1.4
Uruguay	1990	3.8	8.9	2.6	4.8	2.5	5.1	2.1	3.0	1.5
	1994	3.5	10.5	3.0	4.6	2.9	3.5	2.8	3.9	1.7
	1997	3.5	9.8	3.1	4.2	3.0	3.5	2.8	3.8	1.8
	1999	3.7	11.6	3.3	5.4	3.2	3.6	3.1	3.9	2.1
Venezuela h/	1990	4.2	9.5	2.5	3.5	2.5	4.3	4.0	4.5	2.1
	1994	3.6	7.5	2.2	6.0	2.0	3.8	3.5	4.0	1.9
	1997	3.6	9.4	1.8	2.9	1.7	3.8	4.0	4.2	1.4
	1999	3.1	7.6	2.1	4.0	2.0	3.1	3.3	3.1	1.4

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons. In cases where no information was available on the size of establishments, no data are given for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.

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

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

d/ In 1990 wage earners without a contract of employment were included under the heading "Micro-enterprises".

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH).

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 11.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Unskilled self-employed workers b/			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	8.3	19.9	3.8	8.9	3.7	8.8	7.3	9.6	4.4
	1994	10.1	25.2	5.2	9.4	4.9	10.6	9.3	11.4	4.5
	1997	7.7	23.8	4.0	6.5	3.8	7.6	7.3	7.8	2.7
	1999	7.3	21.7	4.0	7.9	3.8	7.1	6.1	7.8	3.1
Bolivia	1989	4.6	12.9	2.9	5.4	2.7	4.9	3.6	5.6	4.0
	1994	3.6	8.2	2.3	4.3	2.2	3.2	2.5	3.6	1.7
	1997	3.3	7.3	2.6	5.3	2.4	2.9	2.6	3.8	1.8
	1999	2.9	6.0	2.8	5.0	2.6	2.8	2.6	3.2	1.9
Brazil d/	1990	4.0	...	3.7	11.6	2.8	4.4	3.5	5.2	1.3
	1993	3.7	12.0	2.2	6.6	2.0	3.5	2.8	4.6	1.5
	1996	4.7	14.4	2.8	7.3	2.6	4.7	3.8	6.0	2.0
	1999	3.8	10.4	2.5	5.0	2.2	3.6	3.0	4.5	2.1
Chile e/	1990	5.0	21.5	2.8	6.7	2.5	5.2	4.3	5.7	1.9
	1994	5.2	17.5	3.4	8.9	3.0	5.2	5.1	5.4	2.2
	1996	7.0	23.1	3.6	9.1	3.0	7.0	6.4	7.3	2.1
	1998	7.6	27.1	3.6	8.1	3.2	7.0	6.2	7.4	3.0
	2000	7.2	24.5	3.7	9.4	3.1	5.8	5.6	6.2	3.0
Colombia f/	1991	2.8	2.4	2.9	1.5
	1994	3.5	3.0	3.5	1.7
	1997	3.4	2.6	3.5	1.6
	1999	2.4	1.9	2.4	2.7
Costa Rica	1990	4.5	6.8	3.6	8.0	3.3	4.3	3.9	4.5	1.5
	1994	5.4	9.9	4.3	7.4	3.9	4.8	3.7	4.9	2.1
	1997	4.7	7.9	3.7	5.7	3.5	4.5	3.9	4.9	2.3
	1999	5.7	10.1	4.2	8.0	3.8	5.2	4.6	5.5	2.3
Ecuador	1990	2.5	3.9	2.4	4.0	2.4	2.3	1.9	2.5	1.1
	1994	3.0	6.6	2.2	5.3	2.0	2.6	2.2	2.8	1.1
	1997	2.9	5.6	2.0	7.9	1.8	2.6	2.3	2.8	1.3
	1999	2.8	6.4	1.8	2.9	1.7	2.3	2.1	2.5	1.4
El Salvador	1995	3.2	7.4	2.2	3.4	2.2	2.8	2.2	3.8	1.7
	1997	3.3	7.9	2.5	5.8	2.4	3.2	2.7	3.5	2.8
	1999	3.5	9.3	2.6	4.5	2.5	2.9	2.4	3.4	2.9
Guatemala	1989	3.5	13.7	1.9	4.9	1.8	3.6	3.4	5.4	2.6
	1998	2.7	8.7	2.3	4.6	2.0	1.8	1.9	2.2	1.0
Honduras	1990	2.2	9.4	1.8	4.1	1.7	2.2	1.7	2.4	1.6
	1994	2.1	5.1	1.4	2.5	1.3	2.0	1.6	2.3	1.6
	1997	1.9	5.0	1.1	2.2	1.1	1.7	1.6	1.8	0.8
	1999	1.9	4.7	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.6	2.1	1.8	0.8

Table 11.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN MALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Unskilled self-employed workers b/			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	16.5	5.5	4.8	7.2	2.1
	1994	...	14.2	4.4	3.7	4.9	2.0
	1996	3.9	14.2	1.9	3.1	1.8	3.1	2.5	3.4	1.8
	1998	3.8	11.6	2.3	5.6	2.1	3.6	2.8	3.8	1.9
	2000	4.6	13.5	2.4	3.9	2.3	4.7	3.5	5.4	2.1
Nicaragua	1993	3.0	9.9	2.7	7.4	2.4	3.2	2.8	4.0	1.3
	1998	2.8	7.1	2.3	5.1	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.8	3.3
Panama	1991	4.0	7.5	2.7	7.8	2.7	2.5	2.9	3.4	1.4
	1994	3.8	11.7	2.5	6.7	2.3	3.7	4.1	4.8	2.0
	1997	4.1	12.1	2.8	4.8	2.6	3.8	4.2	4.7	2.0
	1999	4.2	12.1	3.2	8.2	2.7	3.5	3.6	4.2	2.3
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	4.2	8.2	2.0	4.8	1.9	4.5	2.9	5.2	...
	1994	3.9	9.0	2.3	5.8	2.1	2.9	2.5	3.2	2.1
	1996	3.3	7.6	2.5	3.5	2.4	3.1	2.6	3.6	2.0
	1999	3.0	6.4	2.5	3.9	2.3	2.6	2.4	2.8	1.9
(Urban areas)	1994	3.5	8.4	2.2	5.3	2.0	2.8	2.5	3.0	1.9
	1996	3.1	7.0	2.3	4.0	2.2	2.9	2.7	3.3	1.7
	1999	2.8	5.8	2.1	3.7	2.0	2.3	2.1	2.6	1.7
Peru	1997	3.0	6.9	2.6	4.3	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.5	2.7
	1999	2.4	4.9	2.3	4.3	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.3	1.8
Dominican Republic	1997	4.4	10.8	2.7	4.8	2.6	4.7	4.6	4.8	2.2
Uruguay	1990	6.1	9.6	2.8	6.3	2.7	7.3	2.7	3.8	1.5
	1994	4.7	10.8	3.2	7.0	3.1	4.4	3.5	5.0	3.0
	1997	4.5	10.5	3.3	6.0	3.2	4.1	3.3	4.6	2.0
	1999	4.7	12.1	3.5	7.1	3.4	4.2	3.5	4.7	2.7
Venezuela h/	1990	5.1	9.5	2.5	3.9	2.5	4.9	4.8	5.4	3.4
	1994	4.2	7.6	2.2	6.4	2.0	4.2	3.9	4.7	2.9
	1997	4.1	9.5	1.7	2.8	1.7	4.3	4.6	5.0	2.2
	1999	3.4	7.7	2.1	4.3	2.0	3.3	3.8	3.8	2.0

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

a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons. In cases where no information was available on the size of establishments, no data are given for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.

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

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

d/ In 1990 wage earners without a contract of employment were included under the heading "Micro-enterprises".

e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).

f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH).

h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 11.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Unskilled self-employed workers b/			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical				
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	4.2	13.2	3.5	5.8	3.4	4.5	5.7	4.2	2.0
	1994	5.5	23.0	4.4	5.5	4.2	6.4	4.2	6.5	3.2
	1997	4.9	21.1	3.7	5.3	3.4	4.7	3.4	4.9	2.5
	1999	3.7	12.6	3.2	4.6	3.0	4.3	3.4	4.4	2.4
Bolivia	1989	2.7	6.1	2.4	3.4	2.2	2.9	2.7	3.0	1.4
	1994	1.8	7.5	1.7	2.8	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.7	0.9
	1997	1.9	6.6	2.3	6.3	1.8	1.7	1.3	2.0	1.0
	1999	1.9	9.7	2.1	5.1	1.8	1.6	0.9	1.9	1.8
Brazil d/	1990	2.2	...	3.5	5.6	2.1	1.9	1.1	2.0	0.9
	1993	1.5	8.4	2.1	3.3	1.8	1.4	1.1	1.9	1.1
	1996	2.2	12.6	2.5	4.1	2.3	2.0	1.5	2.6	1.5
	1999	1.9	10.1	2.2	2.9	1.8	1.6	1.2	2.0	1.4
Chile e/	1990	2.6	10.2	2.3	3.1	2.2	2.9	2.9	3.9	1.4
	1994	3.2	17.2	2.7	3.8	2.6	3.3	3.2	3.3	2.0
	1996	3.6	20.4	3.1	5.6	2.8	3.9	3.3	4.1	2.0
	1998	3.7	16.8	3.2	6.2	2.6	4.2	3.6	4.4	2.2
	2000	3.5	14.0	3.3	6.6	2.8	3.9	3.6	4.0	2.4
Colombia f/	1991	2.2	1.9	2.3	1.2
	1994	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.7
	1997	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.6
	1999	1.3	1.1	1.3	2.1
Costa Rica	1990	2.1	5.0	3.1	4.5	2.9	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.5
	1994	2.8	6.5	2.9	4.0	2.8	2.5	1.7	2.9	1.6
	1997	2.4	5.3	2.9	3.7	2.8	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.8
	1999	2.7	6.1	3.6	5.6	3.3	2.1	2.0	2.1	1.7
Ecuador	1990	1.3	4.2	2.0	2.8	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.3	0.7
	1994	1.6	4.4	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.4	0.9
	1997	1.7	4.9	1.9	2.9	1.7	1.5	1.0	1.6	0.9
	1999	1.4	4.7	1.6	2.2	1.4	1.2	0.8	1.3	0.9
El Salvador	1995	1.7	5.2	1.6	2.9	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.7	0.9
	1997	2.1	5.9	2.3	7.2	2.0	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.8
	1999	2.4	7.6	2.2	4.2	2.1	2.0	1.4	2.2	2.0
Guatemala	1989	1.6	11.1	1.8	2.5	1.5	1.9	1.6	2.1	1.4
	1998	1.3	4.8	1.8	3.2	1.5	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.6
Honduras	1990	1.0	4.0	1.4	3.5	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.8
	1994	1.0	3.5	1.3	2.6	1.1	1.1	0.7	1.2	0.5
	1997	0.9	3.5	1.2	2.9	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.5
	1999	1.0	3.5	1.2	1.9	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.5

Table 11.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE INCOMES OF THE URBAN FEMALE POPULATION EMPLOYED IN LOW-PRODUCTIVITY SECTORS OF THE LABOUR MARKET, 1990–2000 (In multiples of the respective per capita poverty line)										
Country	Year	Total	Micro-enterprises a/				Unskilled self-employed workers b/			Domestic employment
			Employers	Wage earners			Total c/	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
				Total	Professional and technical	Non-professional non-technical				
Mexico g/	1989	...	9.4	2.3	1.7	2.6	1.3
	1994	...	11.6	1.8	1.1	2.1	1.1
	1996	1.7	11.3	1.6	2.6	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.4	1.1
	1998	1.9	12.5	1.6	3.2	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.1
	2000	1.7	9.7	1.7	2.7	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.1
Nicaragua	1993	2.5	7.0	2.4	2.8	2.3	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.1
	1998	1.8	6.0	2.2	5.4	1.6	1.6	1.3	1.7	1.5
Panama	1991	2.0	8.4	3.1	6.7	2.6	1.6	1.1	1.8	1.3
	1994	1.9	10.1	2.9	6.0	2.5	2.3	1.9	2.5	1.2
	1997	2.4	9.3	3.2	5.5	2.7	2.3	1.8	2.5	1.4
	1999	2.6	8.7	3.5	7.1	2.9	2.0	1.5	2.1	2.2
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	2.0	8.2	1.8	3.1	1.5	2.9	1.9	3.2	0.8
	1994	2.1	8.0	2.2	4.0	1.8	1.9	1.3	2.1	1.2
	1996	1.8	6.1	2.1	2.8	2.0	1.9	1.4	2.1	1.2
	1999	2.2	5.7	2.5	5.1	2.4	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.7
(Urban areas)	1994	2.0	7.9	2.0	3.9	1.7	1.8	1.1	2.0	1.2
	1996	1.7	6.1	2.0	2.8	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.9	1.1
	1999	1.9	5.4	2.3	4.0	2.0	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.6
Peru	1997	1.7	5.0	1.8	2.7	1.6	1.3	0.8	1.5	2.3
	1999	1.7	3.2	2.0	3.5	1.7	1.2	0.6	1.3	2.9
Dominican Republic	1997	2.5	5.8	2.4	5.6	2.0	2.9	2.5	3.0	1.4
Uruguay	1990	1.9	6.3	2.0	3.1	1.9	1.8	1.2	1.9	1.5
	1994	2.2	9.4	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.2	1.5	2.5	1.7
	1997	2.4	7.4	2.6	2.9	2.6	2.3	1.6	2.6	1.8
	1999	2.5	10.4	2.9	4.1	2.8	2.5	1.9	2.7	2.1
Venezuela h/	1990	2.5	9.8	2.5	3.1	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.8	1.7
	1994	2.6	6.7	2.4	5.6	2.0	2.6	2.4	2.6	1.5
	1997	2.6	8.3	1.2	3.0	1.6	3.1	2.5	3.2	1.2
	1999	2.4	6.7	2.1	3.7	1.9	2.3	2.1	2.4	1.3

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

- a/ Refers to establishments employing up to 5 persons. In the cases of Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this refers to establishments employing up to four persons. In cases where no information was available on the size of establishments, no data are given for the total population employed in low-productivity sectors.
- b/ Refers to own account workers and non-paid family workers engaged in non-professional, non-technical occupations.
- c/ Includes persons employed in the agricultural, forestry, hunting and fisheries sectors.
- d/ In 1990 wage earners without a contract of employment were included under the heading "Micro-enterprises".
- e/ Information from national socio-economic survey (CASEN).
- f/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.
- g/ Information from National Survey of Household Income and Expenditure (ENIGH).
- h/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 12

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999 AND 2000 ^{a/}																										
Country	Sex	Age groups																								
		Total					15 – 24					25 – 34					35 – 44					45 and over				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	Total	5.9	13.0	14.3	14.7	14.9	13.0	22.8	24.2	24.3	25.8	4.9	10.0	12.7	12.0	12.7	4.1	10.5	10.6	11.6	12.0	3.8	10.3	11.6	12.9	12.2
	Males	5.7	11.5	12.4	13.4	13.4	11.5	20.3	21.1	22.8	21.5	5.0	8.8	10.1	11.3	12.3	3.9	7.3	8.6	8.0	12.7	4.2	10.5	11.1	12.7	12.7
	Females	6.4	15.5	17.2	16.5	17.2	15.6	26.7	28.9	26.3	31.2	4.9	11.9	16.8	13.0	13.4	4.3	15.4	13.8	16.1	11.6	3.0	10.0	12.4	13.2	11.6
Bolivia	Total	9.4	3.2	3.7	7.1	7.2	17.4	5.8	6.4	15.3	14.1	8.5	2.8	3.7	6.3	6.6	5.1	2.0	2.9	3.8	4.7	6.6	2.1	2.1	3.7	4.1
	Males	9.5	3.4	3.7	6.0	5.7	18.2	6.3	5.8	12.5	11.4	7.5	2.5	3.4	4.8	5.4	5.5	2.1	3.1	2.3	2.6	8.5	2.9	2.8	4.9	3.9
	Females	9.1	2.9	3.7	8.5	9.0	16.5	5.2	7.1	18.5	17.3	9.9	3.2	4.2	8.2	8.0	4.6	1.9	2.5	5.5	7.1	3.8	0.9	1.2	1.9	4.4
Brazil	Total	4.5	7.4	8.0	11.4	...	8.3	14.3	15.1	21.7	...	4.4	6.9	7.4	10.5	...	2.4	4.3	5.0	7.0	...	1.5	2.6	3.8	5.5	...
	Males	4.8	6.4	6.7	9.4	...	8.7	12.4	12.8	18.4	...	4.7	5.5	5.6	8.0	...	2.8	3.8	4.2	5.5	...	2.0	2.7	3.7	5.3	...
	Females	3.9	8.9	10.0	14.1	...	7.7	17.0	18.2	26.2	...	3.8	8.8	9.8	13.8	...	1.7	5.0	6.2	9.0	...	0.6	2.5	4.0	5.8	...
Chile	Total	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	10.6	17.9	16.1	13.2	21.8	22.6	8.3	6.5	5.9	9.9	10.8	5.1	3.7	4.1	7.4	7.9	5.3	3.7	3.4	6.3	7.4
	Males	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	9.9	17.0	14.0	10.7	20.4	21.8	7.5	5.5	5.0	9.3	9.6	4.8	3.0	3.6	6.4	7.3	5.6	3.9	3.7	6.7	7.6
	Females	9.7	8.4	7.3	11.2	11.6	19.1	19.3	17.1	23.7	23.7	9.8	8.4	7.4	10.9	12.5	5.8	4.9	5.0	8.9	8.9	4.7	3.4	2.9	5.6	7.1
Colombia	Total	9.3	8.0	11.8	19.2	...	19.7	16.2	24.3	36.6	...	8.3	7.6	11.8	17.8	...	4.2	4.7	6.5	13.2	...	3.8	3.3	5.8	10.3	...
	Males	6.7	5.4	9.7	16.2	...	15.3	11.9	20.7	32.0	...	5.5	4.4	8.6	14.0	...	2.8	3.4	5.4	10.5	...	3.7	2.9	6.1	10.6	...
	Females	13.0	11.6	14.7	23.0	...	24.8	21.0	28.3	41.6	...	11.8	11.6	15.6	22.1	...	6.2	6.3	7.9	16.4	...	3.9	4.2	5.1	9.7	...
Costa Rica	Total	5.3	4.2	5.8	6.1	5.2	10.5	9.7	13.0	14.8	11.4	4.9	3.8	4.4	5.3	4.6	2.5	2.3	3.9	3.0	3.1	2.9	1.6	3.0	2.3	2.3
	Males	4.9	3.7	5.3	5.3	4.6	9.8	8.6	11.4	14.8	10.5	4.1	3.7	3.6	3.8	3.8	2.3	1.5	3.9	2.1	2.5	3.1	1.6	3.1	1.9	2.2
	Females	6.2	5.1	6.7	7.4	6.3	11.6	11.6	16.2	14.9	13.0	6.2	4.0	5.6	7.4	5.8	2.8	3.5	4.0	4.2	3.9	2.3	1.5	2.8	3.2	2.4
Ecuador	Total	6.1	7.1	9.2	14.2	8.9	13.5	14.9	18.9	25.9	17.5	6.4	6.6	9.7	13.6	8.0	2.7	3.9	4.7	9.0	5.5	1.3	2.7	3.8	8.3	5.2
	Males	4.2	5.7	6.9	10.5	6.2	11.2	12.7	15.1	20.0	14.4	3.2	4.4	6.4	8.0	4.0	1.7	3.1	3.6	5.5	2.7	1.3	2.9	3.4	8.6	4.3
	Females	9.2	9.2	12.6	19.5	12.9	17.2	17.8	24.5	33.9	21.7	11.3	9.8	14.3	21.3	13.5	4.5	5.2	6.3	13.6	9.2	1.4	2.2	4.6	7.7	6.7
El Salvador	Total	9.9	6.8	7.3	6.9	6.6	19.3	14.0	14.6	13.9	14.3	9.2	6.8	7.7	6.1	5.9	5.7	2.6	4.4	4.4	4.1	4.3	3.4	3.5	3.8	3.4
	Males	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	9.0	17.7	15.4	16.1	16.2	17.3	8.4	7.5	8.1	6.0	7.5	7.0	3.7	6.1	6.0	6.1	6.5	5.4	5.4	6.1	5.8
	Females	9.7	4.9	5.5	4.6	3.7	21.3	11.9	12.4	10.6	9.9	10.0	6.0	7.2	5.1	4.2	4.3	1.5	2.5	2.6	2.0	1.3	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.2
Guatemala	Total	3.5	2.8	...	7.1	4.8	...	2.9	3.8	...	1.6	1.8	...	1.2	0.9	...
	Males	3.3	3.6	...	7.2	6.0	...	2.6	4.5	...	1.5	2.4	...	1.4	1.3	...
	Females	3.8	1.9	...	7.0	3.4	...	3.4	2.8	...	1.8	1.0	...	0.9	0.4	...
Honduras	Total	6.9	4.1	5.2	5.3	...	11.2	7.1	8.9	9.0	...	7.0	3.6	5.4	4.7	...	4.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	...	3.7	1.3	2.3	3.0	...
	Males	7.6	4.5	5.9	6.2	...	11.5	7.5	9.2	10.3	...	6.6	3.7	5.6	5.3	...	6.0	4.1	4.5	3.6	...	5.3	2.0	3.4	4.3	...
	Females	5.9	3.4	4.3	4.0	...	10.7	6.6	8.5	7.4	...	7.6	3.6	5.2	4.1	...	2.0	1.3	0.8	2.2	...	0.7	0.1	0.7	1.1	...
Mexico	Total	3.3	4.5	5.1	3.2	2.4	8.1	9.4	12.5	7.4	5.6	2.4	2.9	3.2	2.8	2.5	0.7	2.3	1.7	1.5	1.1	0.8	3.1	2.8	1.1	0.6
	Males	3.4	5.1	5.8	3.6	2.8	8.4	10.0	13.8	8.1	6.5	2.5	3.0	3.4	3.1	2.6	0.9	2.8	2.1	1.8	1.7	1.0	4.2	3.9	1.5	0.8
	Females	3.1	3.6	3.9	2.6	1.7	7.6	8.3	10.3	6.2	4.3	2.0	2.7	2.9	2.3	2.2	0.2	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.1
Nicaragua	Total	...	14.1	13.1	13.8	20.1	20.9	20.9	14.5	13.7	11.0	11.1	9.2	12.3	10.6	7.4	10.5	...
	Males	...	16.5	13.6	14.0	20.3	18.9	17.9	17.3	13.2	10.3	13.5	11.2	14.3	13.9	10.1	12.9	...
	Females	...	10.8	12.6	13.6	19.7	23.8	25.8	10.6	14.3	11.7	7.9	7.2	9.9	6.3	3.9	7.0	...
Panama	Total	18.6	15.7	15.4	13.1	...	35.1	31.0	31.5	26.9	...	20.6	15.1	14.9	12.7	...	9.5	9.7	9.7	8.3	...	6.9	5.9	6.9	5.6	...
	Males	15.9	12.4	13.3	10.6	...	31.9	27.5	29.2	22.5	...	16.5	9.7	10.9	8.7	...	7.4	6.8	7.5	6.1	...	7.0	5.7	7.4	6.1	...
	Females	22.8	21.0	18.2	17.0	...	39.9	36.9	34.6	33.5	...	26.3	22.7	20.1	18.8	...	12.5	14.0	12.2	11.0	...	6.5	6.2	6.0	4.6	...

Table 12 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND AGE IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999 AND 2000 a/																										
Country	Sex	Age groups																								
		Total					15 - 24					25 - 34					35 - 44					45 and over				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000
Paraguay (Asunción)	Total	6.3	4.4	8.4	10.1	...	15.5	8.3	17.8	19.5	...	4.8	3.2	5.2	6.7	...	2.3	2.9	3.4	5.9	...	1.4	2.6	5.8	8.4	...
	Males	6.2	5.1	8.2	10.2	...	14.7	9.9	17.4	21.6	...	5.0	3.4	4.2	5.2	...	3.2	3.1	1.9	6.2	...	2.0	3.9	7.6	8.8	...
	Females	6.5	3.5	8.7	10.1	...	16.5	6.5	18.2	17.1	...	4.7	3.0	6.5	8.8	...	1.1	2.6	5.1	5.5	...	0.0	0.7	3.4	7.7	...
Peru	Total	10.7	7.3	18.2	15.3	7.4	5.5	6.0	4.1	10.5	4.5	...
	Males	8.1	7.0	15.3	15.3	4.8	4.7	2.6	3.8	9.0	5.0	...
	Females	13.8	7.7	21.3	15.2	10.3	6.3	9.7	4.5	13.0	3.7	...
Dominican Republic	Total	19.7	17.0	17.0	...	13.8	34.1	30.6	27.8	...	18.8	17.3	16.1	15.7	...	13.7	9.2	10.0	10.2	...	13.3	7.4	7.4	8.7	...	9.4
	Males	11.3	12.1	10.9	...	8.8	22.3	24.0	20.0	...	12.9	9.2	10.4	8.0	...	8.0	5.0	6.3	6.9	...	7.5	4.0	5.8	6.1	...	7.1
	Females	31.5	24.8	26.0	...	20.7	47.3	39.9	38.2	...	27.1	27.7	23.4	25.5	...	20.4	15.8	15.5	15.0	...	14.0	15.4	11.5	14.8	...	14.0
Uruguay	Total	8.9	9.7	11.4	11.2	13.5	24.4	24.7	26.3	25.8	30.6	8.2	8.4	10.5	10.0	12.2	4.3	5.5	7.1	7.2	8.6	3.5	3.8	5.3	6.1	7.3
	Males	7.3	7.3	8.9	8.6	10.8	22.2	19.8	21.8	21.4	27.2	6.0	4.9	7.5	7.2	8.7	2.5	3.4	4.4	3.7	5.1	3.0	3.4	4.4	4.9	5.6
	Females	11.1	13.0	14.7	14.5	17.0	27.5	31.5	32.7	31.9	35.2	11.0	12.8	14.3	13.5	16.3	6.4	7.8	10.2	11.1	12.5	4.4	4.5	6.7	7.7	9.6
Venezuela b/	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	13.2	19.3	17.1	19.8	25.7	24.3	11.3	9.1	10.6	14.7	13.1	5.9	5.3	6.8	10.2	9.2	4.5	4.2	5.5	7.8	7.3
	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	12.5	19.9	17.2	16.4	22.2	22.3	12.3	8.8	8.3	12.8	11.5	6.9	5.9	5.7	10.1	8.7	5.5	4.9	5.6	9.4	8.4
	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	14.4	18.0	17.0	26.6	32.6	28.3	9.6	9.6	14.3	17.7	15.9	4.0	4.2	8.5	10.4	10.1	1.7	2.5	5.3	4.7	5.2

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

a/ For the exact years of the surveys in each country, see for example table 11.

b/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 13

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999 AND 2000 <i>a/</i>																										
Country	Sex	Age groups																								
		Total					0 – 5					6 – 9					10 – 12					13 and over				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000
Argentina b/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	Total	5.9	13.0	14.3	14.7	14.9	6.8	14.0	16.8	17.0	18.0	5.9	...	16.6	17.4	18.0	3.0	15.0	14.4	14.5	16.2	...	7.7	9.4	10.2	7.8
	Males	5.7	11.5	12.4	13.4	13.4	6.1	13.1	15.6	19.4	21.9	4.7	...	15.7	15.8	15.7	3.4	12.1	9.8	12.2	13.5	...	5.9	7.6	8.1	5.5
	Females	6.4	15.5	17.2	16.5	17.2	8.5	15.8	18.7	13.5	12.2	7.4	...	18.4	20.5	22.5	2.5	19.7	21.3	17.8	20.1	...	9.5	11.3	12.0	10.0
Bolivia	Total	9.4	3.2	3.7	7.1	7.2	7.1	2.4	2.7	3.4	5.6	9.3	2.8	2.1	7.9	8.8	13.1	3.7	5.4	10.5	8.7	8.1	3.8	4.1	6.0	5.5
	Males	9.5	3.4	3.7	6.0	5.7	9.0	3.1	3.2	2.8	4.0	8.2	3.1	1.8	7.0	7.8	12.5	3.9	4.6	7.5	6.2	7.9	3.1	4.7	5.5	4.5
	Females	9.1	2.9	3.7	8.5	9.0	5.4	1.7	2.3	3.9	6.9	11.1	2.4	2.6	9.2	10.1	14.1	3.4	6.8	15.7	12.7	8.4	5.0	3.1	6.7	6.9
Brazil	Total	4.5	7.4	8.0	11.4	...	4.2	6.5	7.5	9.9	...	6.2	11.0	11.3	15.6	...	4.5	7.3	7.5	12.2	...	1.8	3.3	3.4	5.2	...
	Males	4.8	6.4	6.7	9.4	...	4.8	5.9	6.5	8.5	...	6.2	8.8	9.0	12.7	...	4.6	5.9	5.8	9.5	...	1.6	2.4	2.6	4.0	...
	Females	3.9	8.9	10.0	14.1	...	3.1	7.4	9.2	12.1	...	6.2	14.4	14.8	20.1	...	4.5	8.8	9.3	14.9	...	2.1	4.2	4.2	6.4	...
Chile	Total	8.7	6.8	6.0	10.1	10.6	9.3	5.9	6.7	12.8	12.4	10.1	8.1	6.7	12.2	13.2	9.2	7.8	6.6	10.2	11.4	6.3	4.4	4.0	7.1	6.6
	Males	8.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	9.9	9.3	5.8	6.8	14.0	12.8	10.3	7.4	5.9	12.1	13.2	7.9	6.5	5.2	8.7	9.7	4.9	3.3	3.4	5.7	6.0
	Females	9.7	8.4	7.3	11.2	11.6	9.2	6.2	6.6	10.7	11.5	9.5	9.6	8.1	12.5	13.0	11.7	10.2	9.1	12.5	14.1	8.0	6.0	4.8	8.8	7.4
Colombia	Total	9.3	8.0	11.8	19.2	...	6.6	6.2	9.3	15.3	...	11.3	9.7	14.5	23.2	...	12.4	10.2	14.7	23.2	...	7.4	5.2	7.6	14.1	...
	Males	6.7	5.4	9.7	16.2	...	5.1	4.7	8.7	13.8	...	8.2	6.3	11.5	19.2	...	8.1	6.5	11.4	18.6	...	0.6	3.4	5.9	12.4	...
	Females	13.0	11.6	14.7	23.0	...	9.0	8.5	10.4	17.4	...	16.3	14.9	18.6	28.2	...	17.6	14.6	18.4	28.2	...	9.1	7.3	9.6	16.0	...
Costa Rica	Total	5.3	4.2	5.8	6.1	5.2	6.4	5.0	5.5	9.2	7.3	6.0	5.0	7.3	7.8	6.6	5.7	4.1	6.1	4.7	5.0	3.0	2.7	3.4	2.8	1.9
	Males	4.9	3.7	5.3	5.3	4.6	6.9	4.3	4.8	6.8	6.5	5.4	3.7	6.4	7.1	5.2	4.6	4.3	5.4	3.6	4.6	2.3	2.7	3.2	2.1	1.8
	Females	6.2	5.1	6.7	7.4	6.3	5.2	6.6	7.2	13.3	9.1	7.3	7.5	8.9	9.3	9.3	7.2	3.9	7.1	6.1	5.5	3.9	2.6	3.6	3.6	2.0
Ecuador	Total	6.1	7.1	9.2	14.2	8.9	2.6	5.0	5.9	9.0	6.0	4.8	5.7	7.8	13.8	7.5	10.3	10.2	12.9	19.0	12.4	6.1	6.7	8.1	11.5	8.4
	Males	4.2	5.7	6.9	10.5	6.2	3.0	4.9	6.0	8.5	4.0	3.3	4.9	6.4	10.9	5.4	6.8	7.8	9.2	12.8	9.0	4.2	4.9	5.4	7.7	5.6
	Females	9.2	9.2	12.6	19.5	12.9	2.0	5.0	5.9	9.5	8.9	8.0	7.3	10.5	18.8	11.4	14.9	13.6	18.3	27.0	17.1	8.7	9.0	11.7	16.1	11.9
El Salvador	Total	9.9	6.8	7.3	6.9	6.6	8.1	6.0	5.3	4.9	5.5	9.9	6.8	8.0	7.4	6.1	14.6	9.2	9.6	9.3	9.8	7.6	4.9	6.4	6.1	4.7
	Males	10.0	8.3	8.8	8.9	9.0	11.0	9.2	8.8	7.8	9.7	9.1	8.1	9.4	9.4	8.7	11.8	9.6	9.8	11.0	11.3	6.9	4.7	5.5	6.5	5.5
	Females	9.7	4.9	5.5	4.6	3.7	5.2	2.6	1.6	1.9	1.5	11.2	4.8	5.8	4.7	2.6	17.8	8.7	9.3	7.3	7.9	8.6	5.2	7.4	5.7	3.8
Guatemala	Total	3.5	2.8	...	2.3	1.7	...	4.3	2.9	...	5.9	5.4	...	2.3	1.7	...
	Males	3.3	3.6	...	2.3	3.0	...	4.1	4.1	...	5.3	5.1	...	2.3	0.8	...
	Females	3.8	1.9	...	2.3	0.3	...	4.7	1.1	...	6.5	5.8	...	2.3	3.3	...
Honduras	Total	6.9	4.1	5.2	5.3	...	5.1	3.0	4.8	4.8	...	7.7	5.0	5.4	6.3	...	9.3	4.4	6.3	4.3	...	6.3	2.8	3.6	4.0	...
	Males	7.6	4.5	5.9	6.2	...	7.3	3.8	6.6	7.0	...	8.1	5.9	6.0	6.9	...	8.0	3.8	5.9	4.9	...	5.3	2.3	3.3	3.3	...
	Females	5.9	3.4	4.3	4.0	...	1.7	1.7	2.2	2.0	...	6.9	3.5	4.5	5.5	...	10.6	5.3	6.7	3.8	...	7.8	3.6	4.0	5.0	...
Mexico	Total	3.3	4.5	5.1	3.2	2.4	1.3	3.9	3.5	2.1	1.2	4.3	5.0	5.8	2.6	2.2	3.8	4.9	5.2	3.7	2.9	2.4	2.6	4.6	3.9	2.1
	Males	3.4	5.1	5.8	3.6	2.8	1.6	5.4	4.8	3.2	2.0	4.4	5.7	6.7	3.0	2.4	4.4	5.3	5.7	4.0	3.7	2.1	2.8	4.2	3.9	1.9
	Females	3.1	3.6	3.9	2.6	1.7	0.4	1.2	1.2	0.5	0.0	4.0	3.7	4.3	1.9	1.9	2.7	4.2	4.2	3.2	1.8	3.3	5.2	5.5	3.9	2.6
Nicaragua	Total	...	14.1	13.1	13.8	14.1	10.9	11.8	15.0	14.3	14.2	12.6	14.9	18.5	13.6	11.6	12.4	...
	Males	...	16.5	13.6	14.0	16.4	12.5	13.8	16.8	14.7	13.0	14.8	15.1	19.2	19.2	10.7	10.8	...
	Females	...	10.8	12.6	13.6	11.1	9.0	9.0	12.0	13.8	16.2	10.2	14.7	17.8	4.8	12.7	14.0	...
Panama	Total	18.6	15.7	15.4	13.1	...	10.7	9.6	12.1	7.2	...	18.4	16.0	16.6	14.2	...	24.9	19.7	18.2	16.2	...	14.8	12.5	11.3	9.6	...
	Males	15.9	12.4	13.3	10.6	...	9.6	9.6	13.6	7.1	...	16.5	13.2	15.6	12.4	...	20.5	13.9	14.4	11.7	...	12.9	9.9	8.2	7.1	...
	Females	22.8	21.0	18.2	17.0	...	13.9	9.3	9.1	7.7	...	22.5	21.6	18.4	18.0	...	30.4	27.7	23.5	22.7	...	16.6	15.1	14.2	12.0	...

Table 13 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): OPEN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING IN URBAN AREAS, AROUND 1990, 1994, 1997, 1999 AND 2000 ^{a/}																										
Country	Sex	Age groups																								
		Total					0 – 5					6 – 9					10 – 12					13 and over				
		1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000	1990	1994	1997	1999	2000
Paraguay (Asunción)	Total	6.3	4.4	8.4	10.1	...	4.4	5.2	7.8	16.3	...	6.4	5.2	9.4	9.8	...	8.4	4.5	10.6	11.1	...	3.7	1.3	3.4	5.3	...
	Males	6.2	5.1	8.2	10.2	...	4.2	7.6	9.3	19.8	...	6.7	6.2	9.0	9.8	...	7.9	4.1	8.8	9.9	...	2.9	1.1	3.4	7.1	...
	Females	6.5	3.5	8.7	10.1	...	4.7	2.5	5.9	12.0	...	6.0	3.8	9.8	9.7	...	9.1	4.9	12.9	12.8	...	4.8	1.5	3.5	12.0	...
Peru	Total	10.7	7.3	9.4	4.9	11.5	10.0	12.8	7.1	8.1	7.7	...
	Males	8.1	7.0	7.5	5.8	10.4	10.1	8.9	7.0	5.6	5.8	...
	Females	13.8	7.7	11.0	4.1	12.9	9.8	18.2	7.3	11.4	10.2	...
Dominican Republic	Total	19.7	17.0	17.0	...	13.8	15.6	13.6	15.3	...	12.0	19.6	18.7	18.9	...	13.5	25.2	21.4	18.1	...	16.4	16.6	13.4	15.1	...	12.9
	Males	11.3	12.1	10.9	...	8.8	7.0	10.2	10.4	...	8.5	11.1	12.8	11.2	...	8.3	15.5	14.3	11.5	...	9.1	11.2	10.9	10.0	...	9.8
	Females	31.5	24.8	26.0	...	20.7	30.5	21.3	24.8	...	18.7	34.7	29.8	32.7	...	22.4	37.2	30.5	26.2	...	25.1	21.8	16.1	19.5	...	15.8
Uruguay	Total	8.9	9.7	11.4	11.2	13.5	5.6	5.7	8.1	8.9	12.3	10.2	12.4	13.2	13.1	15.6	10.0	9.5	11.8	11.4	13.0	5.9	4.9	6.8	6.3	8.8
	Males	7.3	7.3	8.9	8.6	10.8	5.6	5.2	6.7	7.4	9.5	8.4	9.1	10.1	9.8	11.9	7.5	6.1	8.9	8.6	10.1	4.4	4.0	4.8	4.3	7.7
	Females	11.1	13.0	14.7	14.5	17.0	5.6	6.5	10.7	11.9	16.7	13.0	17.5	18.1	18.2	21.5	12.8	13.3	14.9	14.5	16.0	7.2	5.6	8.3	7.8	9.6
Venezuela ^{c/}	Total	10.2	8.9	10.6	14.5	13.2	9.7	7.9	9.4	11.7	10.7	12.1	9.8	11.0	15.5	13.4	9.3	9.1	12.7	16.2	15.6	6.1	6.7	8.4	12.7	12.4
	Males	11.2	9.1	9.0	13.6	12.5	11.4	8.2	7.9	12.2	11.5	12.9	10.4	9.5	14.8	12.8	9.7	9.0	10.6	13.7	14.5	5.6	5.9	6.6	11.2	10.0
	Females	8.4	8.3	13.6	16.1	14.4	5.4	7.1	13.4	10.6	8.4	10.1	8.5	14.3	17.0	14.6	8.7	9.2	15.5	19.7	17.1	6.7	7.8	10.4	14.0	14.5

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

a/ For the exact years of the surveys in each country, see for example table 11.

b/ In 1990, the levels of schooling which have data entered correspond to 0–6 years, 7–9 years and 10 years or more, respectively. In 1994, however, the range of 0–5 years actually represents 0–9 years of schooling.

c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 14

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Households below the poverty line a/					Households below the indigence line				
		Country total	Urban areas			Rural areas	Country total	Urban areas			Rural areas
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Argentina	1990	21.2	5.2
	1994	...	16.1	13.2	21.2	3.4	2.6	4.9	...
	1997	17.8	4.8
	1999	...	23.7	19.7	28.5	6.7	4.8	8.8	...
Bolivia	1989	...	53.1	23.2
	1994	...	51.6	19.8
	1997	...	52.3	22.6
	1999	60.6	48.7	45.0	63.9	80.7	36.5	19.8	17.5	29.0	64.7
Brazil	1990	48.0	41.2	70.6	23.4	16.7	46.1
	1993	45.3	40.3	63.0	20.2	15.0	38.8
	1996	35.8	30.6	55.6	13.9	9.6	30.2
	1999	37.5	32.9	55.3	12.9	9.3	27.1
Chile	1990	38.6	38.4	32.1	42.0	39.5	12.9	12.4	9.3	13.9	15.2
	1994	27.5	26.9	18.5	33.2	30.9	7.6	7.1	4.2	9.3	9.8
	1996	23.2	21.8	13.6	27.6	30.6	5.7	5.0	2.4	6.9	9.4
	1998	21.7	20.7	15.4	22.5	27.6	5.6	5.1	3.5	5.5	8.7
	2000	20.6	20.1	14.5	23.5	23.8	5.7	5.3	4.0	6.0	8.3
Colombia	1991	56.1	52.7	60.7	26.1	20.0	34.3
	1994	52.5	45.4	37.6	48.2	62.4	28.5	18.6	13.6	20.4	42.5
	1997	50.9	45.0	33.5	48.9	60.1	23.5	17.2	11.3	19.1	33.4
	1999	54.9	50.6	43.1	53.1	61.8	26.8	21.9	19.6	22.7	34.6
Costa Rica	1990	26.2	24.8	22.7	27.7	27.3	9.8	6.4	4.9	8.4	12.5
	1994	23.1	20.7	19.1	22.7	25.0	8.0	5.7	4.6	7.1	9.7
	1997	22.5	19.3	18.8	20.1	24.8	7.8	5.5	5.7	5.3	9.6
	1999	20.3	18.1	17.5	18.7	22.3	7.8	5.4	4.3	6.5	9.8
Ecuador	1990	...	62.1	26.2
	1994	...	57.9	25.5
	1997	...	56.2	22.2
	1999	...	63.6	31.3
El Salvador	1995	54.2	45.8	34.7	55.1	64.4	21.7	14.9	8.8	20.1	29.9
	1997	55.5	44.4	29.8	56.6	69.2	23.3	14.8	6.3	21.9	33.7
	1999	49.8	38.7	29.8	48.7	65.1	21.9	13.0	7.7	19.0	34.3
Guatemala	1998	60.5	46.0	37.5	55.1	70.0	34.1	17.2	9.7	25.2	45.2
Honduras	1990	80.5	69.8	59.2	74.4	88.0	60.6	43.2	30.3	48.9	72.8
	1994	77.9	74.5	68.7	80.4	80.5	53.9	46.0	38.3	53.7	59.8
	1997	79.1	72.6	68.0	77.2	84.2	54.4	41.5	35.5	48.6	64.0
	1999	79.7	71.7	64.4	78.8	86.3	56.8	42.9	33.7	51.9	68.0
Mexico	1989	47.8	42.1	57.0	18.8	13.1	27.9
	1994	45.1	36.8	56.5	16.8	9.0	27.5
	1996	52.1	45.1	62.5	21.3	13.8	32.4
	1998	46.9	38.9	58.5	18.5	9.7	31.1
	2000	41.1	32.3	54.7	15.2	6.6	28.5
Nicaragua	1993	73.6	66.3	58.3	73.0	82.7	48.4	36.8	29.5	43.0	62.8
	1998	64.0	57.0	68.9	64.0	77.0	44.6	33.9	25.8	39.5	57.5

Table 14 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POVERTY AND INDIGENCE LEVELS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Households below the poverty line <i>a/</i>					Households below the indigence line				
		Country total	Urban areas			Rural areas	Country total	Urban areas			Rural areas
			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas			Total	Metropolitan area	Other urban areas	
Panama	1991	42.8	39.6	37.9	45.9	50.6	19.2	16.0	15.5	18.2	26.7
	1994	36.1	30.8	28.3	41.2	49.2	15.7	11.4	9.7	18.1	26.2
	1997	33.2	29.7	27.9	37.3	41.9	13.0	10.7	9.9	13.8	18.8
	1999	30.2	25.8	24.2	32.5	41.5	10.7	8.1	7.5	10.6	17.2
Paraguay	1990	42.2	12.7
	1994	...	49.9	42.2	59.3	18.8	12.8	26.1	...
	1996	...	46.3	39.2	55.9	16.3	9.8	25.2	...
	1999	60.6	49.0	39.5	61.3	73.9	33.9	17.4	9.2	28.0	52.8
Peru	1997	47.6	33.7	72.7	25.1	9.9	52.7
	1999	48.6	36.1	72.5	22.4	9.3	47.3
Dominican Republic	1997	37.2	35.6	39.4	14.4	11.8	17.9
Uruguay	1990	...	17.8	11.2	24.3	3.4	1.8	5.0	...
	1994	...	9.7	7.5	11.8	1.9	1.5	2.2	...
	1997	...	9.5	8.6	10.3	1.7	1.5	1.8	...
	1999	...	9.4	9.8	9.0	1.8	1.9	1.6	...
Venezuela <i>b/</i>	1990	40.0	38.8	28.8	41.4	46.5	14.6	13.3	7.9	14.7	21.7
	1994	48.7	47.1	25.8	52.0	55.6	19.2	17.1	6.1	19.6	28.3
	1997	48.1	20.5
	1999	49.4	21.7
Latin America <i>c/</i>	1990	48.3	41.4	65.4	22.5	15.3	40.4
	1994	45.7	38.7	65.1	20.8	13.6	40.8
	1997	43.5	36.5	63.0	19.0	12.3	37.6
	1999	43.8	37.1	63.7	18.5	11.9	38.3

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

a/ Includes households below the indigence line.

b/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

c/ Estimate for 19 countries of the region.

Table 15

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDIGENCE LINES (IL) AND POVERTY LINES (PL) (In monthly values per person)												
Country	Year	Reference period of income	Currency a/	Urban		Rural		Exchange rate b/	Urban		Rural	
				IL	PL	IL	PL		IL	PL	IL	PL
				Local currency					US dollars			
Argentina	1990 c/	Sep.	A	255 928	511 856	5 791.0	44.2	88.4
	1994	Sep.	\$	72	144	1.0	72.0	143.9
	1997 c/	Sep.	\$	76	151	1.0	75.5	151.0
	1999	Sep.	\$	72	143	1.0	71.6	143.3
Bolivia	1989	Oct.	Bs	68	137	2.9	23.8	47.5
	1994	June–Nov.	Bs	120	240	4.7	25.7	51.4
	1997	May	Bs	155	309	125	219	5.3	29.4	58.8	23.9	41.8
	1999	Oct.–Nov.	Bs	167	333	130	228	5.9	28.0	56.1	21.9	38.3
Brazil	1990	Sep.	Cr\$	3 109	6 572	2 634	4 967	75.5	41.2	87.0	34.9	65.7
	1993	Sep.	Cr\$	3 400	7 391	2 864	5 466	111.2	30.6	66.5	25.8	49.2
	1996	Sep.	R\$	44	104	38	76	1.0	43.6	102.3	37.2	74.9
	1999	Sep.	R\$	51	126	43	91	1.9	26.7	66.2	22.7	48.1
Chile	1990	Nov.	Ch\$	9 297	18 594	7 164	12 538	327.4	28.4	56.8	21.9	38.3
	1994	Nov.	Ch\$	15 050	30 100	11 597	20 295	413.1	36.4	72.9	28.1	49.1
	1996	Nov.	Ch\$	17 136	34 272	13 204	23 108	420.0	40.8	81.6	31.4	55.0
	1998	Nov.	Ch\$	18 944	37 889	14 598	25 546	463.3	40.9	81.8	31.5	55.1
	2000	Nov.	Ch\$	20 281	40 562	15 628	27 349	525.1	38.6	77.2	29.8	52.1
Colombia	1991	Aug.	Col\$	18 093	36 186	14 915	26 102	645.6	28.0	56.1	23.1	40.4
	1994	Aug.	Col\$	31 624	63 249	26 074	45 629	814.8	38.8	77.6	32.0	56.0
	1997	Aug.	Col\$	53 721	107 471	44 333	77 583	1 141.0	47.1	94.2	38.9	68.0
	1999	Aug.	Col\$	69 838	139 716	57 629	100 851	1 873.7	37.3	74.6	30.8	53.8
Costa Rica	1990	June	¢	2 639	5 278	2 081	3 642	89.7	29.4	58.9	23.2	40.6
	1994	June	¢	5 264	10 528	4 153	7 268	155.6	33.8	67.7	26.7	46.7
	1997	June	¢	8 604	17 208	6 778	11 862	232.6	37.0	74.0	29.1	51.0
	1999	June	¢	10 708	21 415	8 463	14 811	285.3	37.5	75.1	29.7	51.9
Ecuador	1990	Nov.	S/.	18 465	36 930	854.8	21.6	43.2
	1994	Nov.	S/.	69 364	138 729	2 301.2	30.1	60.3
	1997	Oct.	S/.	142 233	284 465	4 194.6	33.9	67.8
	1999	Oct.	S/.	301 716	603 432	15 656.8	19.3	38.5
El Salvador	1995	Jan.–Dec.	¢	254	508	158	315	8.8	29.0	58.1	18.0	35.9
	1997	Jan.–Dec.	¢	290	580	187	374	8.8	33.1	66.2	21.4	42.8
	1999	Jan.–Dec.	¢	293	586	189	378	8.8	33.5	66.9	21.6	43.2
Guatemala	1989	April	Q	64	127	50	88	2.7	23.6	47.1	18.7	32.7
	1998	Dec. 97–Dec. 98	Q	260	520	197	344	6.4	40.7	81.5	30.8	54.0
Honduras	1990	Aug.	L	115	229	81	141	4.3	26.5	52.9	18.6	32.6
	1994	Sep.	L	257	513	181	316	9.0	28.6	57.1	20.1	35.2
	1997	Aug.	L	481	963	339	593	13.1	36.8	73.6	25.9	45.3
	1999	Aug.	L	561	1 122	395	691	14.3	39.3	78.6	27.7	48.4
Mexico	1989	3rd quarter	\$	86 400	172 800	68 810	120 418	2 510.0	34.4	68.8	27.4	48.0
	1994	3rd quarter	MN\$	213	425	151	265	3.3	63.6	127.2	45.3	79.3
	1996	3rd quarter	MN\$	405	810	300	525	7.6	53.6	107.2	39.7	69.5
	1998	3rd quarter	MN\$	537	1 074	385	674	9.5	56.8	113.6	40.7	71.3
	2000	3rd quarter	MN\$	665	1 330	475	831	9.4	71.0	142.1	50.7	88.8
Nicaragua	1993	21 Feb.–12 June	C\$	167	334	129	225	4.6	36.6	73.3	28.2	49.4
	1997	Oct.	C\$	247	493	9.8	25.3	50.5
	1998	15 April–31 Aug.	C\$	275	550	212	370	10.4	26.3	52.7	20.3	35.5

Table 15 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDIGENCE LINES (IL) AND POVERTY LINES (PL) (In monthly values per person)												
Country	Year	Reference period of income	Currency a/	Urban		Rural		Exchange rate b/	Urban		Rural	
				IL	PL	IL	PL		IL	PL	IL	PL
				Local currency					US dollars			
Panama	1991	Aug.	B	35	70	27	47	1.0	35.0	70.1	27.1	47.5
	1994	Aug.	B	40	80	31	54	1.0	40.1	80.2	31.0	54.3
	1997	Aug.	B	41	81	31	55	1.0	40.6	81.3	31.4	55.0
	1999	July	B	41	81	31	55	1.0	40.7	81.4	31.5	55.1
Paraguay	1990 d/	June, July, Aug.	₵	43 242	86 484	1 207.8	35.8	71.6
	1994	Aug. – Sept.	₵	87 894	175 789	1 916.3	45.9	91.7
	1996	July – Nov.	₵	108 572	217 143	2 081.2	52.2	104.3
	1999	July – Dec.	₵	138 915	277 831	106 608	186 565	3 311.4	42.0	83.9	32.2	56.3
Peru	1997	2° quarter	N\$	103	192	83	128	2.7	42.1	84.3	31.6	55.3
	1999	2° quarter	N\$	109	213	89	141	3.5	31.2	61.2	25.5	40.5
Dominican Republic	1997	April	RD\$	601	1 203	451	789	14.3	42.1	84.3	31.6	55.3
Uruguay	1990	2° quarter	Nur\$	41 972	83 944	1 358.0	30.9	61.8
	1994	2° quarter	\$	281	563	5.4	52.1	104.1
	1997	Year	\$	528	1 056	9.4	55.9	111.9
	1999	Year	\$	640	1 280	11.3	56.4	112.9
Venezuela	1990	2° quarter	Bs	1 924	3 848	1 503	2 630	49.4	38.9	77.9	30.4	53.2
	1994	2° quarter	Bs	8 025	16 050	6 356	11 124	171.3	46.9	93.7	37.1	65.0
	1997 e/	2° quarter	Bs	31 711	62 316	488.6	64.9	127.5
	1999 e/	2° quarter	Bs	49 368	97 622	626.3	78.8	155.9

Source: ECLAC.

a/ National currencies:

Argentina: (A) Austral; (\$) Peso
 Bolivia: (Bs) Boliviano
 Brazil: (Cr\$) Cruzeiro; (R\$) Real
 Chile: (Ch\$) Peso
 Colombia: (Col\$) Peso
 Costa Rica: (¢) Colón
 Ecuador: (S/) Sucre
 El Salvador: (¢) Colón
 Guatemala: (Q) Quetzal

Honduras: (L) Lempira
 Mexico: (\$) Peso; (MN\$) New Peso
 Nicaragua: (C\$) Córdoba
 Panama: (B) Balboa
 Paraguay: (₵) Guaraní
 Peru: (N\$) New Soles
 Dominican Republic: (RD\$) Peso
 Uruguay: (NUR\$) New Peso; (\$) Peso
 Venezuela: (Bs) Bolívar

b/ "rf" series of the International Monetary Fund.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Asunción.

e/ National total.

Table 16

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000									
Country	Year	Per capita income expressed as multiples of the poverty line							
		0–0.5 (Indigent)	0.5–0.9	0.9–1.0	0.0–1.0 (Poor)	1.0–1.25	1.25–2.0	2.0–3.0	More than 3.0
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	3.5	10.6	2.1	16.2	7.3	22.5	18.7	35.3
	1994	1.5	6.6	2.1	10.2	7.4	16.7	19.0	46.7
	1997	3.3	7.0	2.8	13.1	7.2	19.0	17.5	43.2
	1999	3.1	8.4	1.6	13.1	6.2	19.1	17.8	43.9
Bolivia	1989	22.1	23.2	4.1	49.4	9.0	16.4	10.6	14.5
	1994	16.8	24.2	4.6	45.6	9.8	19.3	10.2	14.9
	1997	19.2	22.6	5.1	46.8	9.7	17.2	11.2	15.2
	1999	16.4	20.8	5.1	42.3	10.8	18.5	11.4	17.0
Brazil a/	1990	14.8	17.3	3.7	35.8	8.3	16.6	12.3	27.1
	1993	13.5	16.0	3.8	33.3	8.5	19.0	13.3	26.0
	1996	9.7	11.9	3.1	24.6	7.3	17.5	15.5	35.1
	1999	9.9	13.1	3.4	26.4	8.0	18.1	15.3	32.3
Chile	1990	10.2	18.6	4.5	33.3	9.5	20.3	14.3	22.7
	1994	5.9	13.3	3.6	22.8	8.5	20.7	16.6	31.4
	1996	4.3	11.0	3.2	18.5	8.5	20.5	17.2	34.1
	1998	4.3	9.9	2.8	17.0	7.3	19.4	17.6	38.8
	2000	4.3	9.1	2.9	16.3	7.5	19.2	18.0	39.1
Colombia b/	1994	16.2	20.3	4.1	40.6	9.1	18.2	12.6	19.5
	1997	14.6	20.3	4.5	39.5	9.6	18.9	12.6	19.4
	1999	18.7	21.5	4.4	44.6	9.5	17.7	10.8	17.4
Costa Rica	1990	7.8	11.2	3.7	22.2	7.9	21.9	20.2	27.9
	1994	5.6	9.1	3.4	18.1	7.9	20.4	20.7	32.9
	1997	5.2	9.1	2.8	17.1	8.1	20.5	20.3	34.0
	1999	5.4	7.9	2.4	15.7	8.5	19.3	17.7	38.8
Ecuador	1990	22.6	28.1	5.2	55.8	10.5	16.7	8.8	8.2
	1994	22.4	24.7	5.2	52.3	10.1	19.1	9.1	9.4
	1997	18.6	25.6	5.6	49.8	10.0	19.4	10.7	10.0
	1999	27.2	25.5	5.3	58.0	7.9	16.1	7.9	10.1
El Salvador	1995	12.4	22.4	5.1	40.0	12.0	22.0	12.8	13.3
	1997	12.0	21.8	4.8	38.6	11.0	21.8	13.6	15.0
	1999	11.1	19.0	3.9	34.0	9.8	21.7	15.4	19.1
Guatemala	1989	22.9	21.0	4.3	48.2	8.5	17.3	11.0	15.0
	1998	12.9	21.7	4.2	38.8	10.9	20.0	12.5	17.8
Honduras	1990	38.0	22.7	3.8	64.5	8.2	12.0	6.5	8.8
	1994	40.8	24.5	4.3	69.6	7.6	12.0	5.1	5.8
	1997	36.8	26.0	4.2	67.0	8.2	12.5	5.9	6.4
	1999	37.1	24.4	4.2	65.6	8.2	12.9	6.4	7.0
Mexico	1989	9.3	19.8	4.8	33.9	11.0	22.3	13.1	19.8
	1994	6.2	18.2	4.6	29.0	10.8	21.8	14.4	24.0
	1996	10.0	22.2	5.3	37.5	10.7	21.3	12.4	18.1
	1998	6.9	19.1	5.1	31.1	11.0	22.0	15.3	20.6
	2000	4.7	17.3	4.5	26.5	10.9	22.7	16.3	23.6
Nicaragua	1993	32.2	23.5	4.6	60.3	8.2	15.7	6.9	9.0
	1998	30.7	24.1	4.5	59.3	8.6	15.8	7.6	8.7

Table 16 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PER CAPITA INCOME BRACKETS, EXPRESSED AS MULTIPLES OF THE POVERTY LINE, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000									
Country	Year	Per capita income expressed as multiples of the poverty line							
		0–0.5 (Indigent)	0.5–0.9	0.9–1.0	0.0–1.0 (Poor)	1.0–1.25	1.25–2.0	2.0–3.0	More than 3.0
Panama	1991	13.9	15.5	4.2	33.6	8.5	17.0	13.7	27.2
	1994	8.7	13.2	3.3	25.2	7.7	19.2	16.5	31.3
	1997	8.6	12.2	3.7	24.6	7.5	18.8	15.4	33.7
	1999	6.6	10.9	3.3	20.8	7.6	18.2	16.2	37.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	10.4	21.7	4.7	36.8	13.6	19.6	14.2	15.9
	1994	9.5	20.9	5.0	35.4	11.6	20.4	13.4	19.3
	1996	8.0	19.2	6.4	33.5	11.3	22.2	13.5	19.5
	1999	6.9	20.8	5.2	32.9	11.9	19.9	16.2	19.2
Peru	1997	6.5	17.1	4.4	28.0	10.3	23.8	16.2	21.8
	1999	7.4	18.7	4.8	30.9	11.3	24.5	13.0	20.4
Dominican Republic	1997	11.0	16.6	4.0	31.6	10.4	21.5	15.6	21.0
Uruguay	1990	2.0	7.0	2.8	11.8	7.1	22.7	23.1	35.3
	1994	1.1	3.4	1.3	5.8	3.6	15.4	23.2	52.0
	1997	0.9	3.5	1.4	5.7	4.0	15.2	21.4	53.8
	1999	0.9	3.4	1.3	5.6	3.6	13.5	20.5	56.9
Venezuela c/	1990	10.9	17.5	5.0	33.4	10.9	21.5	14.8	19.4
	1994	13.5	22.0	5.4	40.9	10.4	21.4	12.9	14.4
	1997	17.1	20.7	4.5	42.3	10.6	19.3	11.5	16.3
	1999	19.4	20.5	4.1	44.0	10.3	19.5	11.5	14.8

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

- a/ In Brazil the measurements of indigence (0–0.5 poverty lines) and of poverty (0–1.0 poverty lines) may not coincide with those in table 14. This is because the poverty line is calculated by multiplying the indigence line by a variable coefficient instead of a fixed value (2.0) as is the case in the other countries.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 17

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, a/ URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons b/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	21	10	...	12 c/	15	21	6	8
	1994	13	5	...	5 c/	7	10	4	3
	1997	18	8	...	8 c/	12	18	8	6
	1999	20	10	6	9	17	22	14	8
Bolivia	1989	53	39	...	42	53	31	46	40
	1994	52	41	35	48	58	31	52	44
	1997	52	43	30	42	50	35	59	46
	1999	49	41	23	41	53	27	66	43
Brazil d/	1990	41	32	...	30	48	49	40	36
	1993	40	32	20	31	39	47	43	33
	1996	31	22	14	22	27	35	28	22
	1999	33	24	14	26	32	39	33	27
Chile	1990	38	29	...	30 c/	38	37	28	23
	1994	28	20	...	20 c/	27	21	20	17
	1996	22	15	7	18	24	20	10	10
	1998	21	14	...	14 c/	21	19	11	9
	2000	20	14	6	16	22	17	14	12
Colombia e/	1991	52	41	27	45 f/	...	38	54	53
	1994	45	34	15	41 f/	...	31	42	42
	1997	40	33	15	37 f/	...	34	48	42
	1999	51	38	12	38 f/	...	35	60	54
Costa Rica	1990	25	15	...	15	22	28	28	24
	1994	21	12	5	11	19	25	24	18
	1997	23	10	4	10	17	23	21	18
	1999	18	10	3	9	14	27	17	16
Ecuador	1990	62	51	33	50	60	56	70	61
	1994	58	46	31	49	58	56	60	56
	1997	56	45	28	46	62	53	56	54
	1999	64	53	30	55	70	61	68	62
El Salvador	1995	54	34	14	35	50	32	50	41
	1997	56	35	13	35	48	40	50	43
	1999	39	29	9	26	44	41	43	35
Guatemala	1989	53	42	20	47	61	42	48	35
	1998	46	40	19	41	53	46	51	46
Honduras	1990	70	60	29	60	76	51	81	73
	1994	75	66	42	71	83	56	84	77
	1997	73	64	44	69	83	52	84	72
	1999	72	64	41	64	81	58	80	72
Mexico	1989	42	33	...	37 g/	...	60	32	28
	1994	37	29	...	33 g/	...	56	27 h/	...
	1996	45	38	19	41	59	63	48	41
	1998	39	31	12	36	49	57	39	30
	2000	32	25	11	26	44	38	34	24

Table 17 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, a/ URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons b/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services
Nicaragua	1993	66	52	47	54	64	74	60	45
	1998	64	54	...	54 c/	68	74	59	52
Panama	1991	40	26	12	24	38	31	42	38
	1994	31	18	6	16	30	28	26	25
	1997	33	18	6	17	27	26	32	25
	1999	26	15	5	12	24	20	24	26
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	42	32	23	40	49	29	41	31
	1994	42	31	14	38	44	36	42	37
	1996	39	29	13	27	40	33	44	37
	1999	40	26	11	27	40	27	42	31
Peru	1997	34	25	14	20	28	16	36	33
	1999	36	28	14	21	32	23	52	36
Dominican Republic	1997	37	21	21	18	25	26	20	25
Uruguay	1990	18	11	8	10	17	25	21	14
	1994	10	6	2	6	7	13	12	7
	1997	10	6	2	5	9	12	10	9
	1999	9	5	2	5	9	12	12	9
Venezuela i/	1990	39	22	20	24	34	33	25	22
	1994	47	32	38	29	48	41	32	32
	1997	48	35	34	44	50	52	27	27
	1999	49	35	28	37	52	50	33	34

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

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

b/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to four persons only.

c/ Includes public-sector wage earners.

d/ For 1990, the columns corresponding to establishments employing more than 5 persons and up to 5 persons refer to wage earners with and without a contract of employment ("carteira"), respectively.

e/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

f/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

g/ Includes public sector wage earners and those occupied in establishments employing up to 5 persons.

h/ Refers to all non-professional, non-technical own account workers.

i/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 18

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): INCIDENCE OF POVERTY IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORIES, a/ RURAL AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Total population	Total employed	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations	
					In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons b/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Agricultural forestry and fisheries
Bolivia	1997	79	79	35	48	41	49	87	89
	1999	81	80	14	25	58	37	86	88
Brazil c/	1990	71	64	...	45	72	61	70	74
	1993	63	57	56	58	53	53	59	60
	1996	56	49	33	46	35	40	54	56
	1999	55	49	39	47	40	41	54	55
Chile	1990	40	27	...	28	36	23	22	24
	1994	32	22	...	20	28	13	21	24
	1996	31	21	13	21	27	16	18	21
	1998	28	18	...	16 d/	21	13	17	21
	2000	24	16	9	16	20	10	16	21
Colombia	1991	60	53	...	42 d/ e/	...	54	67	73
	1994	62	55	...	55 d/ e/	...	57	61	59
	1997	60	48	16	40 e/	...	48	62	67
	1999	62	50	12	41 e/	...	45	64	66
Costa Rica	1990	27	17	...	13	23	22	24	27
	1994	25	14	7	3	20	23	21	24
	1997	25	14	5	9	20	25	21	24
	1999	22	12	3	7	21	22	17	21
El Salvador	1995	64	53	24	43	56	50	63	72
	1997	69	58	26	47	57	49	67	79
	1999	65	55	16	42	56	47	71	80
Guatemala	1989	78	70	42	72	76	61	71	76
	1998	70	66	40	63	77	60	69	69
Honduras	1990	88	83	...	71	90	72	88	90
	1994	81	73	40	65	79	74	78	81
	1997	84	79	37	75	86	74	83	85
	1999	86	81	38	79	89	75	85	89
Mexico	1989	57	49	...	53 f/	...	50	47	54
	1994	57	47	...	53 f/	...	53	46	54
	1996	62	56	23	57	67	64	59	68
	1998	58	51	23	48	60	64	55	64
	2000	55	46	16	44	59	64	49	61
Nicaragua	1993	83	75	71	64	77	59	82	89
	1998	77	70	...	61	69	49	80	87
Panama	1991	51	40	10	25	43	43	52	57
	1994	49	38	6	23	39	40	52	61
	1997	42	29	6	22	39	33	36	42
	1999	42	29	5	19	39	30	37	42
Paraguay	1999	74	65	10	47	57	43	75	79
Peru	1997	73	66	23	47	57	54	76	77
	1999	73	66	33	42	54	38	73	78
Dominican Republic	1997	39	25	17	14	26	40	30	42
Venezuela	1990	47	31	22	35	36	44	31	36
	1994	56	42	27	50	50	53	42	44

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

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

b/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to four persons only.

c/ For 1990, the columns corresponding to establishments employing more than 5 persons and up to 5 persons refer to wage earners with and without a contract of employment ("carteira"), respectively.

d/ Includes public-sector wage earners.

e/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons.

f/ Includes public-sector wage earners and those occupied in establishments employing up to five persons.

Table 19

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2000 (Percentages of total employed urban population living in poverty)								
Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations		Total b/
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons a/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	...	53	17	12	6	10	98
	1994	...	52	22	10	6	10	100
	1997	...	49	23	11	5	12	100
	1999	7	36	25	12	7	13	100
Bolivia	1989	18	15	17	5	12	31	98
	1994	11	18	19	4	11	29	92
	1997	7	14	13	3	16	29	82
	1999	6	15	15	2	19	33	90
Brazil c/	1990	...	32	26	10	5	18	91
	1993	9	32	11	12	6	17	87
	1996	8	31	12	13	7	16	87
	1999	7	28	11	14	7	18	85
Chile	1990	...	53	14	10	6	12	95
	1994	...	54	14	8	7	11	94
	1996	6	53	16	9	3	8	95
	1998	...	56	18	10	4	8	96
	2000	7.3	52	15	9	5	10	98
Colombia d/	1991	...	48 e/	...	5	8	26	87
	1994	4	58 e/	...	5	8	22	97
	1997	4	46 e/	...	5	10	30	95
	1999	3	38 e/	...	5	12	37	95
Costa Rica	1990	...	28	13	8	12	17	78
	1994	11	28	18	9	10	18	94
	1997	7	30	18	8	10	22	95
	1999	6	28	17	15	8	20	94
Ecuador	1990	11	21	13	5	11	29	90
	1994	9	23	15	6	8	29	90
	1997	9	24	15	6	8	27	89
	1999	6	23	18	6	7	27	87
El Salvador	1995	5	28	15	4	12	25	89
	1997	5	25	16	5	10	27	88
	1999	4	23	21	6	10	24	88
Guatemala	1989	7	26	20	7	8	12	80
	1998	4	19	24	8	9	13	77
Honduras	1990	7	27	17	6	12	23	92
	1994	7	33	14	5	10	19	88
	1997	7	30	14	4	10	23	88
	1999	6	27	14	4	9	25	85
Mexico	1989	...	72 e/	...	5	3	11	91
	1994	...	71 e/	...	7	17 f/	...	95
	1996	7	36	23	6	5	17	94
	1998	14	33	15	4	3	16	85
	2000	6	36	27	5	5	15	94

Table 19 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages of total employed urban population living in poverty)								
Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations		Total b/
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons a/	Domestic employees	Manufacturing and construction	Commerce and services	
Nicaragua	1993	19	17	15	9	9	15	84
	1998	...	25	18	9	5	26	83
Panama	1991	12	24	8	8	7	16	75
	1994	9	30	19	14	7	19	98
	1997	8	29	9	10	9	18	83
	1999	6	26	11	8	7	24	82
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	8	30	24	10	7	15	94
	1994	5	30	19	14	7	19	94
	1996	5	22	19	11	10	26	93
	1999	6	26	21	10	8	20	91
Peru	1997	7	15	14	3	8	38	85
	1999	5	12	15	5	9	38	84
Dominican Republic	1997	12	27	10	6	7	26	88
Uruguay	1990	16	30	11	15	10	15	97
	1994	8	32	13	16	13	15	97
	1997	7	27	17	15	12	19	97
	1999	5	26	15	17	15	20	98
Venezuela g/	1990	19	33	10	10	5	15	92
	1994	21	26	14	5	6	19	91
	1997	17	32	15	7	5	15	91
	1999	12	26	18	3	7	24	90

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

- a/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic, Uruguay (1990) and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to four persons only.
- b/ In most cases, the totals amount to less than 100%, since employers, professional and technical wage earners and public-sector employees have not been included.
- c/ For 1990, the columns corresponding to establishments employing more than 5 persons and up to 5 persons refer to wage earners with and without a contract of employment ("carteira"), respectively.
- d/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.
- e/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons.
- f/ Refers to all non-professional, non-technical own account workers.
- g/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 20

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): BREAKDOWN OF TOTAL EMPLOYED POPULATION LIVING IN POVERTY BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY, RURAL AREAS, 1990–2000 (Percentages of total employed rural population living in poverty)								
Country	Year	Public-sector wage earners	Private-sector wage earners in non-professional, non-technical occupations			Own account workers in non-professional, non-technical occupations		Total b/
			In establishments employing more than 5 persons	In establishments employing up to 5 persons a/	Domestic employees	Total	Agriculture	
Bolivia	1997	1	2	2	0	94	89	99
	1999	0	1	2	0	95	90	98
Brazil c/	1990	...	9	26	4	57	51	96
	1993	5	23	2	3	66	61	99
	1996	3	21	2	3	70	65	99
	1999	4	20	2	3	69	64	98
Chile	1990	...	40	29	3	27	23	99
	1994	...	39	26	2	31	25	98
	1996	2	29	35	3	30	27	99
	1998	...	36	25	3	35	31	99
	2000	2.7	40	22	2	33	28	100
Colombia	1991	...	34 d/	...	2	58	35	94
	1994	...	47 d/	...	4	45	24	96
	1997	1	35 d/	...	3	57	35	96
	1999	1	31 d/	...	3	62	36	97
Costa Rica	1990	-	25	23	6	41	27	95
	1994	5	20	28	7	35	19	95
	1997	3	20	28	9	36	19	96
	1999	2	19	34	10	30	16	95
El Salvador	1995	1	23	15	3	52	36	94
	1997	1	23	15	4	54	39	97
	1999	1	18	17	5	55	38	96
Guatemala	1989	2	23	12	2	61	52	100
	1998	1	21	17	3	49	35	91
Honduras	1990	2	11	17	2	68	51	100
	1994	3	14	15	2	65	49	99
	1997	2	13	16	2	65	45	98
	1999	2	12	16	2	66	45	98
Mexico	1989	...	50 d/	...	3	45	38	98
	1994	...	50 d/	...	3	45	35	98
	1996	3	20	22	4	49	35	98
	1998	6	19	18	2	49	29	94
	2000	2	20	27	3	46	33	98
Nicaragua	1993	6	13 d/	11	4	62	54	96
	1998	-	17 d/	16	3	60	49	96
Panama	1991	3	9	9	3	75	65	99
	1994	3	10	15	4	68	56	100
	1997	2	11	17	4	65	50	99
	1999	2	9	20	4	65	45	100
Paraguay	1999	1	5	10	3	80	66	99
Peru	1997	1	5	7	1	82	71	96
	1999	1	4	7	1	82	73	95
Dominican Republic	1997	7	12	9	5	63	48	96
Venezuela	1990	5	27	15	4	47	39	98
	1994	5	23	19	6	45	31	98

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

a/ For Bolivia (1999), Chile (1996), El Salvador, Panama, Dominican Republic and Venezuela, this category includes establishments employing up to four persons only.

b/ In most cases, the totals amount to less than 100%, since employers, professional and technical wage earners and public-sector employees have not been included.

c/ In 1990, the columns corresponding to establishments employing more than 5 persons and up to 5 persons refer to wage earners with and without a contract of employment ("carteira"), respectively.

d/ Includes wage earners in establishments employing up to five persons.

Table 21

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS, URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000									
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 (Greater Buenos Aires)	1990	21	26	12	22	100.0	4.3	7.0	88.7
	1994	24	22	20	24	100.0	1.0	7.5	91.1
	1997	26	32	24	26	100.0	4.1	9.0	86.9
	1999	27	37	28	27	100.0	4.2	10.4	85.4
Bolivia	1989	17	23	16	15	100.0	30.2	25.5	44.3
	1994	18	20	17	18	100.0	18.1	27.0	54.9
	1997	21	24	22	19	100.0	22.2	30.0	47.8
	1999	21	24	19	21	100.0	19.2	23.4	57.4
Brazil	1990	20	24	23	18	100.0	16.0	25.1	58.9
	1993	22	23	21	22	100.0	12.3	20.9	66.8
	1996	24	24	22	24	100.0	7.7	15.9	76.4
	1999	25	24	24	26	100.0	6.7	18.3	74.9
Chile	1990	21	25	20	22	100.0	11.7	21.3	67.0
	1994	22	27	21	22	100.0	7.1	16.0	76.8
	1996	23	29	22	23	100.0	5.3	13.6	81.1
	1998	24	28	23	24	100.0	4.9	12.3	82.7
	2000	24	28	23	24	100.0	5.0	11.5	83.6
Colombia a/	1991	24	28	22	24	100.0	19.8	27.6	52.6
	1994	24	24	24	24	100.0	16.1	24.0	59.9
	1997	27	32	28	25	100.0	17.5	25.9	56.6
	1999	29	31	27	29	100.0	20.4	24.0	55.6
Costa Rica	1990	23	36	25	21	100.0	10.9	16.5	72.6
	1994	24	42	27	22	100.0	9.8	14.0	76.2
	1997	27	51	36	24	100.0	9.9	15.7	74.4
	1999	28	56	39	25	100.0	10.9	14.1	75.0
Ecuador	1990	17	22	16	15	100.0	28.9	31.2	39.9
	1994	19	23	18	18	100.0	27.3	28.1	44.6
	1997	19	24	19	17	100.0	23.9	31.1	45.0
	1999	20	23	21	18	100.0	30.9	31.4	37.6
El Salvador	1995	31	38	31	29	100.0	15.4	28.1	56.5
	1997	30	36	33	28	100.0	14.2	29.3	56.5
	1999	31	36	36	29	100.0	12.6	25.9	61.5
Guatemala	1989	22	23	21	22	100.0	24.2	24.3	51.5
	1998	24	24	22	25	100.0	12.8	23.4	63.8
Honduras	1990	27	35	21	21	100.0	50.4	21.1	28.5
	1994	25	28	25	21	100.0	45.8	29.2	25.0
	1997	29	32	28	28	100.0	40.3	28.6	31.1
	1999	30	32	30	28	100.0	39.4	28.7	31.9
Mexico	1989	16	14	14	17	100.0	8.2	21.9	69.9
	1994	17	11	16	18	100.0	4.0	21.3	74.7
	1996	18	17	15	19	100.0	9.8	23.0	67.3
	1998	19	18	16	20	100.0	6.3	20.0	73.7
	2000	20	14	16	21	100.0	3.4	17.5	79.1
Nicaragua	1993	35	40	34	32	100.0	36.8	27.2	36.1
	1998	35	39	36	30	100.0	34.9	30.2	34.9

Table 21 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EXTENT AND DISTRIBUTION OF POVERTY AND INDIGENCE IN FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS, URBAN AREAS, 1990-2000									
Country	Year	Percentage of female-headed households at each poverty level				Distribution of female-headed households by poverty level			
		Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor	Total	Indigent	Non-indigent poor	Non-poor
Panama	1991	26	34	29	24	100.0	18.0	22.0	60.0
	1994	25	35	25	24	100.0	12.1	16.2	71.7
	1997	28	37	29	26	100.0	11.4	16.7	71.9
	1999	27	45	28	26	100.0	10.8	14.5	74.7
Paraguay (Asunción)	1990	20	21	23	18	100.0	11.2	30.5	58.3
	1994	23	20	26	22	100.0	8.4	29.3	62.3
	1996	27	25	26	27	100.0	7.4	24.7	67.9
	1999	27	30	23	29	100.0	7.7	21.9	70.4
Peru	1997	20	21	19	21	100.0	8.0	18.6	73.3
	1999	21	17	21	21	100.0	6.3	23.9	69.7
Dominican Republic	1997	31	50	31	29	100.0	17.5	20.5	62.0
Uruguay	1990	25	28	22	26	100.0	2.2	8.4	89.4
	1994	27	21	23	27	100.0	0.8	4.0	95.1
	1997	29	27	23	29	100.0	0.8	3.9	95.3
	1999	31	29	26	31	100.0	0.8	4.0	95.2
Venezuela b/	1990	22	40	25	18	100.0	19.6	25.4	55.1
	1994	25	34	28	21	100.0	18.7	30.8	50.5
	1997	26	28	29	24	100.0	18.6	28.4	53.0
	1999	27	34	27	25	100.0	23.8	24.8	51.3

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

a/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted.

b/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 22

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS, a/ NATIONAL TOTAL, 1990–2000 (Percentages)								
Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of:				Ratio of average per capita income c/	
			Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%	D ¹⁰ /D ⁽¹⁻⁴⁾	Q ³ /Q ¹
Argentina d/	1990	10.6	14.9	23.6	26.7	34.8	13.5	13.5
	1997	12.4	14.9	22.3	27.1	35.8	16.0	16.4
	1999	12.5	15.4	21.6	26.1	37.0	16.4	16.5
Bolivia	1989 e/	7.7	12.1	22.0	27.9	38.2	17.1	21.4
	1997	5.8	9.4	22.0	27.9	40.7	25.9	34.6
	1999	5.7	9.2	24.0	29.6	37.2	26.7	48.1
Brazil	1990	9.3	9.5	18.6	28.0	43.9	31.2	35.0
	1996	12.3	9.9	17.7	26.5	46.0	32.2	38.0
	1999	11.3	10.1	17.3	25.5	47.1	32.0	35.6
Chile	1990	9.4	13.2	20.8	25.4	40.7	18.2	18.4
	1996	12.9	13.1	20.5	26.2	40.2	18.3	18.6
	2000	13.6	13.8	20.8	25.1	40.3	18.7	19.0
Colombia	1994	8.4	10.0	21.3	26.9	41.8	26.8	35.2
	1997	7.3	12.5	21.7	25.7	40.1	21.4	24.1
	1999	6.7	12.3	21.6	26.0	40.1	22.3	25.6
Costa Rica	1990	9.5	16.7	27.4	30.2	25.6	10.1	13.1
	1997	10.0	16.5	26.8	29.4	27.3	10.8	13.0
	1999	11.4	15.3	25.7	29.7	29.4	12.6	15.3
Ecuador f/	1990	5.5	17.1	25.4	27.0	30.5	11.4	12.3
	1997	6.0	17.0	24.7	26.4	31.9	11.5	12.2
	1999	5.6	14.1	22.8	26.5	36.6	17.2	18.4
El Salvador	1995	6.2	15.4	24.8	26.9	32.9	14.1	16.9
	1997	6.1	15.3	24.5	27.3	33.0	14.8	15.9
	1999	6.6	13.8	25.0	29.1	32.1	15.2	19.6
Guatemala	1989	6.0	11.8	20.9	26.8	40.6	23.5	27.3
	1998	7.3	12.8	20.9	26.1	40.3	23.6	22.9
Honduras	1990	4.3	10.1	19.7	27.0	43.1	27.4	30.7
	1997	4.1	12.6	22.5	27.3	37.7	21.1	23.7
	1999	3.9	11.8	22.9	28.9	36.5	22.3	26.5
Mexico	1989	8.6	15.8	22.5	25.1	36.6	17.2	16.9
	1994	8.5	15.3	22.9	26.1	35.6	17.3	17.4
	2000	8.5	14.6	22.5	26.5	36.4	17.9	18.5
Nicaragua	1993	5.2	10.4	22.8	28.4	38.4	26.1	37.7
	1998	5.6	10.4	22.1	27.1	40.5	25.3	33.1
Panama	1991	8.9	12.5	22.9	28.8	35.9	20.0	24.3
	1997	11.0	12.4	21.5	27.5	38.6	21.5	23.8
	1999	11.1	12.9	22.4	27.7	37.1	19.5	21.6
Paraguay	1990 g/	7.7	18.6	25.7	26.9	28.9	10.2	10.6
	1996 f/	7.4	16.7	24.6	25.3	33.4	13.0	13.4
	1999	6.2	13.1	23.0	27.8	36.2	19.3	22.6
Peru	1997	8.1	13.4	24.6	28.7	33.3	17.9	20.8
	1999	8.2	13.4	23.1	27.1	36.5	19.5	21.6
Dominican Republic	1997	8.5	14.5	23.6	26.0	36.0	16.0	17.6
Uruguay f/	1990	9.3	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2	9.4	9.4
	1997	11.2	22.0	26.1	26.1	25.8	8.5	9.1
	1999	11.9	21.6	25.5	25.9	27.0	8.8	9.5
Venezuela	1990	8.9	16.7	25.7	28.9	28.7	12.1	13.4
	1997	7.8	14.7	24.0	28.6	32.8	14.9	16.1
	1999	7.2	14.6	25.1	29.0	31.4	15.0	18.0

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

a/ Households nationwide arranged in order of per capita income. Table 23 shows the breakdown by urban and rural areas.

b/ Average monthly household income in multiples of the per capita poverty line.

c/ D⁽¹⁻⁴⁾ represents the poorest 40% of households, and D¹⁰ represents the richest 10%. The same notation is used in the case of quintiles (Q), which represent groups consisting of 20% of households.

d/ Greater Buenos Aires.

e/ Eight major cities and El Alto.

f/ Urban total.

g/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 23

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): HOUSEHOLD INCOME LEVELS DISTRIBUTION, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, a/ 1990–2000 (Percentages)											
Country	Year	Average income b/	Share of total income of:				Average income b/	Share of total income of:			
			Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%		Poorest 40%	Next poorest 30%	20% below the richest 10%	Richest 10%
Urban areas						Rural areas					
Argentina c/	1990	10.6	14.9	23.6	26.7	34.8
	1997	12.4	14.9	22.3	27.1	35.8
	1999	12.5	15.4	21.6	26.1	37.0
Bolivia	1989 d/	7.7	12.1	22.0	27.9	38.2
	1997	7.2	13.6	22.5	26.9	37.0	3.6	9.8	19.4	28.8	42.0
	1999	7.2	15.2	24.1	28.0	32.7	3.1	6.9	21.3	33.6	38.3
Brazil	1990	10.4	10.3	19.4	28.5	41.8	4.7	14.5	21.3	26.1	38.2
	1996	13.6	10.5	18.1	27.0	44.3	6.8	13.4	23.3	23.7	39.6
	1999	12.3	10.6	17.7	26.1	45.7	6.7	14.0	23.1	22.8	40.2
Chile	1990	9.4	13.4	21.2	26.2	39.2	9.7	13.8	20.4	20.6	45.1
	1996	13.5	13.4	20.9	26.4	39.4	9.4	16.8	24.3	23.4	35.6
	2000	14.1	14.0	20.9	25.4	39.7	10.6	16.9	24.5	22.4	36.1
Colombia	1994	9.0	11.6	20.4	26.1	41.9	5.7	10.0	23.3	32.2	34.6
	1997	8.4	12.9	21.4	26.1	39.5	5.3	15.4	26.3	28.2	30.1
	1999	7.3	12.6	21.9	26.6	38.8	5.6	13.9	24.7	25.9	35.5
Costa Rica	1990	9.6	17.8	28.7	28.9	24.6	9.3	17.6	28.0	29.9	24.5
	1997	10.5	17.3	27.6	28.4	26.8	9.6	17.3	27.9	28.9	25.9
	1999	11.9	16.2	26.8	29.9	27.2	10.9	15.8	26.7	29.3	28.2
Ecuador	1990	5.5	17.1	25.4	27.0	30.5
	1997	6.0	17.0	24.7	26.4	31.9
	1999	5.6	14.1	22.8	26.5	36.6
El Salvador	1995	6.9	17.3	25.1	25.8	31.7	5.1	17.0	29.6	27.3	26.1
	1997	7.1	17.2	24.8	26.9	31.1	4.7	19.4	28.6	27.3	24.7
	1999	7.7	16.3	25.9	28.6	29.2	4.9	15.6	28.8	29.8	25.9
Guatemala	1989	7.7	12.1	22.6	27.4	37.9	5.0	14.4	24.7	25.7	35.1
	1998	8.8	14.7	22.0	26.0	37.5	6.2	15.2	21.8	25.2	37.9
Honduras	1990	5.5	12.2	20.8	28.1	38.9	3.3	13.1	22.1	27.3	37.4
	1997	4.7	14.3	22.8	26.1	36.8	3.6	14.4	24.6	27.5	33.5
	1999	4.6	14.3	24.0	27.9	33.9	3.3	13.9	23.9	29.1	33.0
Mexico	1989	9.6	16.3	22.0	24.9	36.9	6.7	18.7	26.5	27.4	27.4
	1994	9.7	16.8	22.8	26.1	34.3	6.6	20.1	25.3	27.6	27.0
	1998	8.6	17.2	22.3	25.7	34.8	6.2	18.0	23.7	26.8	31.5
	2000	9.0	17.0	23.3	26.1	33.6	7.4	15.6	21.5	24.3	38.7
Nicaragua	1993	6.1	12.9	23.6	26.9	36.5	3.9	12.4	24.3	30.0	33.4
	1998	6.4	12.3	22.3	26.4	39.1	4.5	10.8	24.1	27.8	37.3
Panama	1991	9.5	13.3	23.9	28.6	34.2	7.3	15.0	23.7	25.7	35.6
	1997	12.0	13.3	22.4	27.0	37.3	8.6	14.9	22.4	25.0	37.7
	1999	12.2	14.2	23.9	26.8	35.1	8.3	16.2	22.1	23.8	37.8
Paraguay	1990 e/	7.7	18.6	25.7	26.9	28.9
	1996	7.4	16.7	24.6	25.3	33.4
	1999	7.1	16.5	24.9	25.8	32.8	5.0	15.1	21.2	24.3	39.4
Peru	1997	9.2	17.3	25.4	26.7	30.6	4.4	17.8	27.1	29.4	25.7
	1999	9.2	16.2	23.6	26.6	33.7	4.4	17.4	17.9	23.8	40.9
Dominican Republic	1997	9.0	14.8	23.8	25.8	35.5	7.7	16.5	25.7	25.2	32.6
Uruguay	1990	9.3	20.1	24.6	24.1	31.2
	1997	11.2	22.0	26.1	26.1	25.8
	1999	11.9	21.6	25.5	25.9	27.0
Venezuela	1990	9.1	16.8	26.1	28.8	28.4	7.7	19.8	28.6	27.8	23.8

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

a/ Households of each area arranged in order of per capita income.

b/ Average monthly household income in multiples of the per capita poverty line.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight major cities and El Alto.

e/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 24

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, a/ NATIONAL TOTAL, 1990–2000							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		Average	50% of average	Gini b/	Logarithm variation	Theil	Atkinson
Argentina c/	1990	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.570
	1997	72.1	43.4	0.530	1.143	0.601	0.607
	1999	72.5	44.2	0.542	1.183	0.681	0.623
Bolivia	1989 d/	71.9	44.1	0.538	1.528	0.574	0.771
	1997	73.1	47.7	0.595	2.024	0.728	0.795
	1999	70.4	45.5	0.586	2.548	0.658	0.867
Brazil	1990	75.2	53.9	0.627	1.938	0.816	0.790
	1996	76.3	54.4	0.638	1.962	0.871	0.762
	1999	77.1	54.8	0.640	1.913	0.914	0.754
Chile	1990	74.6	46.5	0.554	1.258	0.644	0.671
	1996	73.9	46.9	0.553	1.261	0.630	0.667
	2000	75.0	46.4	0.559	1.278	0.666	0.658
Colombia	1994	73.6	48.9	0.601	2.042	0.794	0.817
	1997	74.2	46.4	0.569	1.399	0.857	0.822
	1999	74.5	46.6	0.572	1.456	0.734	0.945
Costa Rica	1990	65.0	31.6	0.438	0.833	0.328	0.539
	1997	66.6	33.0	0.450	0.860	0.356	0.535
	1999	67.6	36.1	0.473	0.974	0.395	0.573
Ecuador e/	1990	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.591
	1997	68.9	34.8	0.469	0.832	0.409	0.510
	1999	72.1	42.0	0.521	1.075	0.567	0.597
El Salvador	1995	69.7	38.4	0.507	1.192	0.502	0.695
	1997	69.9	40.2	0.510	1.083	0.512	0.583
	1999	68.5	40.6	0.518	1.548	0.496	0.798
Guatemala	1989	74.9	47.9	0.582	1.477	0.736	0.700
	1998	75.0	49.5	0.582	1.331	0.795	0.645
Honduras	1990	75.1	52.3	0.615	1.842	0.817	0.746
	1997	72.5	45.4	0.558	1.388	0.652	0.697
	1999	71.8	46.4	0.564	1.560	0.636	0.746
Mexico	1989	74.2	43.5	0.536	1.096	0.680	0.598
	1994	73.1	44.7	0.539	1.130	0.606	0.592
	2000	73.2	44.0	0.542	1.221	0.603	0.621
Nicaragua	1993	71.5	45.9	0.582	1.598	0.671	0.802
	1998	73.1	45.9	0.584	1.800	0.731	0.822
Panama	1991	71.3	46.4	0.560	1.373	0.628	0.661
	1997	72.6	47.6	0.570	1.464	0.681	0.686
	1999	72.1	46.4	0.557	1.363	0.629	0.658

Table 24 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, a/ NATIONAL TOTAL, 1990–2000							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		Average	50% of average	Gini b/	Logarithm variation	Theil	Atkinson
Paraguay	1990 f/	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365	0.468
	1996 e/	72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.544
	1999	72.3	46.3	0.565	1.555	0.668	0.716
Peru	1997	70.1	41.4	0.532	1.348	0.567	0.663
	1999	71.7	42.7	0.545	1.358	0.599	0.673
Dominican Republic	1997	71.4	39.8	0.517	1.075	0.557	0.603
Uruguay e/	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.519
	1997	66.8	31.3	0.430	0.730	0.336	0.475
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.483
Venezuela	1990	68.0	35.5	0.471	0.930	0.416	0.545
	1997	70.8	40.7	0.507	1.223	0.508	0.985
	1999	69.4	38.6	0.498	1.134	0.464	0.664

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

a/ Calculated on the basis of the per capita income distribution nationwide. Tables 25 and 26 show the breakdown by urban and rural areas.

b/ Includes persons with no source of income.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight major cities and El Alto.

e/ Urban total.

f/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 25

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, a/ URBAN AREAS, 1990–2000							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		Average	50% of average	Gini b/	Logarithm variation	Theil	Atkinson
Argentina c/	1990	70.6	39.1	0.501	0.982	0.555	0.570
	1997	72.1	43.4	0.530	1.143	0.601	0.607
	1999	72.5	44.2	0.542	1.183	0.681	0.623
Bolivia	1989 d/	71.9	44.1	0.538	1.528	0.574	0.771
	1997	72.5	43.0	0.531	1.772	0.573	0.627
	1999	70.4	40.2	0.504	1.131	0.487	0.680
Brazil	1990	74.7	52.2	0.606	1.690	0.748	0.749
	1996	75.7	53.1	0.620	1.735	0.815	0.728
	1999	76.5	53.8	0.625	1.742	0.865	0.729
Chile	1990	73.8	45.1	0.542	1.204	0.600	0.663
	1996	73.5	45.7	0.544	1.206	0.604	0.662
	2000	74.7	45.9	0.553	1.246	0.643	0.654
Colombia	1994	74.6	48.1	0.579	1.491	0.749	0.724
	1997	73.8	46.5	0.577	1.571	0.714	0.866
	1999	74.2	46.1	0.564	1.312	0.707	0.701
Costa Rica	1990	63.6	29.6	0.419	0.727	0.295	0.493
	1997	65.3	32.2	0.429	0.779	0.323	0.507
	1999	66.3	34.5	0.454	0.881	0.356	0.538
Ecuador	1990	69.6	33.8	0.461	0.823	0.403	0.591
	1997	68.9	34.8	0.469	0.832	0.409	0.510
	1999	72.1	42.0	0.521	1.075	0.567	0.597
El Salvador	1995	69.5	34.3	0.466	0.836	0.428	0.526
	1997	70.0	34.6	0.467	0.864	0.428	0.523
	1999	68.0	35.7	0.462	1.002	0.388	0.768
Guatemala	1989	72.2	45.6	0.558	1.377	0.640	0.679
	1998	74.6	43.4	0.543	1.131	0.670	0.602
Honduras	1990	73.1	46.6	0.561	1.397	0.661	0.679
	1997	71.8	40.9	0.527	1.142	0.578	0.650
	1999	70.8	41.6	0.518	1.138	0.528	0.630
Mexico	1989	75.2	42.5	0.530	1.031	0.678	0.583
	1994	73.6	41.6	0.512	0.934	0.544	0.534
	1998	73.2	41.5	0.507	0.901	0.578	0.530
	2000	72.1	38.7	0.493	0.856	0.500	0.512
Nicaragua	1993	71.4	42.6	0.549	1.256	0.595	0.661
	1998	72.3	43.4	0.551	1.271	0.673	0.689
Panama	1991	70.3	44.2	0.545	1.312	0.577	0.656
	1997	71.8	45.6	0.552	1.362	0.632	0.673
	1999	71.4	43.8	0.533	1.223	0.558	0.629
Paraguay	1990 e/	69.2	33.4	0.447	0.737	0.365	0.468
	1996	72.9	37.9	0.493	0.916	0.515	0.544
	1999	70.0	39.1	0.497	0.997	0.490	0.575
Peru	1997	70.4	36.0	0.473	0.852	0.453	0.523
	1999	74.0	39.4	0.498	0.954	0.499	0.581
Dominican Republic	1997	71.9	39.5	0.509	1.003	0.538	0.574
Uruguay	1990	73.2	36.8	0.492	0.812	0.699	0.519
	1997	66.8	31.3	0.430	0.730	0.336	0.475
	1999	67.1	32.2	0.440	0.764	0.354	0.483
Venezuela	1990	67.7	34.4	0.464	0.903	0.403	0.538

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

a/ Calculated on the basis of the per capita income distribution for persons in urban areas.

b/ Includes persons with no source of income.

c/ Greater Buenos Aires.

d/ Eight major cities and El Alto.

e/ Asunción metropolitan area.

Table 26

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS OF INCOME CONCENTRATION, <i>a/</i> RURAL AREAS, 1990–2000							
Country	Year	Percentage of persons with per capita income of less than:		Concentration indices			
		Average	50% of average	Gini <i>b/</i>	Logarithm variation	Theil	Atkinson
Bolivia	1997	75.4	53.6	0.637	2.133	0.951	0.788
	1999	71.3	52.9	0.640	2.772	0.809	0.846
Brazil	1990	72.5	45.5	0.548	1.266	0.627	0.704
	1996	73.1	47.6	0.578	1.424	0.727	0.675
	1999	73.8	47.4	0.577	1.357	0.773	0.662
Chile	1990	79.0	47.9	0.578	1.269	0.854	0.663
	1996	73.9	36.2	0.492	0.887	0.542	0.554
	2000	74.5	38.7	0.511	0.956	0.669	0.576
Colombia	1994	69.8	45.5	0.570	2.047	0.621	0.806
	1997	73.8	46.5	0.554	1.571	0.714	0.866
	1999	72.1	39.5	0.525	1.291	0.626	0.963
Costa Rica	1990	63.3	27.9	0.419	0.771	0.301	0.518
	1997	65.7	30.4	0.426	0.757	0.316	0.498
	1999	66.8	33.0	0.457	0.895	0.377	0.551
El Salvador	1995	64.4	29.9	0.442	0.961	0.352	0.656
	1997	66.3	31.0	0.423	0.670	0.343	0.441
	1999	64.8	34.0	0.462	1.302	0.382	0.768
Guatemala	1989	72.6	37.6	0.513	1.076	0.593	0.620
	1998	74.1	43.7	0.523	0.934	0.707	0.550
Honduras	1990	73.9	45.6	0.558	1.326	0.692	0.658
	1997	70.9	38.7	0.504	1.083	0.520	0.630
	1999	69.8	39.8	0.512	1.244	0.516	0.695
Mexico	1989	68.8	33.5	0.453	0.769	0.401	0.490
	1994	69.5	34.9	0.451	0.720	0.385	0.458
	1998	70.2	41.5	0.486	0.846	0.467	0.506
	2000	75.3	46.1	0.553	1.125	0.682	0.592
Nicaragua	1993	69.2	41.6	0.536	1.348	0.553	0.790
	1998	68.2	42.4	0.558	1.765	0.598	0.819
Panama	1991	72.9	44.0	0.535	1.083	0.949	0.588
	1997	74.1	45.4	0.555	1.211	0.696	0.627
	1999	74.0	44.5	0.540	1.089	0.720	0.597
Paraguay	1999	74.1	47.1	0.570	1.389	0.839	0.684
Peru	1997	66.5	33.9	0.451	0.868	0.383	0.525
	1999	65.8	31.1	0.427	0.803	0.320	0.507
Dominican Republic	1997	69.8	36.2	0.483	0.940	0.484	0.570
Venezuela	1990	67.0	31.3	0.431	0.724	0.348	0.468

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

a/ Calculated on the basis of the per capita income distribution for persons in rural areas.

b/ Includes persons with no source of income.

Table 27

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more	0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.6	77.3		15.0
	1990	3.3	78.6		18.2
	1994	3.9	77.2		18.9
	2000	1.9	42.8	40.4	14.9
Bolivia	1997	11.9	31.1	44.4	12.6	48.3	34.9	15.3	1.5
	2000	10.4	25.2	48.9	15.5	47.6	33.8	17.6	1.0
Brazil	1979	48.2	34.6	14.1	3.1	86.8	9.7	1.9	1.6
	1990	41.0	37.5	18.2	3.3	79.0	16.9	3.7	0.3
	1993	40.7	38.9	17.6	2.8	77.9	17.4	4.3	0.3
	1999	27.0	42.7	26.7	3.7	62.8	27.2	9.5	0.5
Chile	1990	5.6	33.1	45.5	15.8	16.9	56.5	22.6	4.1
	1994	4.2	31.2	46.4	18.2	14.4	54.8	26.1	4.7
	2000	2.7	30.1	51.1	16.2	8.5	49.9	37.0	4.6
Colombia b/	1980	31.2	40.9	21.1	6.8
	1990	19.6	40.4	31.0	9.0
	1991	21.8	37.9	29.7	10.6	60.1	25.7	13.6	0.5
	1994	17.7	37.9	35.9	8.4	55.8	29.5	14.0	0.7
	1999	14.6	32.4	43.2	9.8	46.2	30.7	21.8	1.3
Costa Rica	1981	7.3	50.5	33.9	8.2	19.8	64.7	13.8	1.7
	1990	9.1	50.1	29.8	10.9	20.0	64.5	13.6	2.0
	1994	8.6	49.6	30.9	10.9	21.2	64.3	12.3	2.2
	2000	8.2	53.5	28.6	9.8	18.2	63.6	14.4	3.7
Ecuador	1990	5.8	45.9	37.0	11.4
	1994	4.8	42.3	39.5	13.4
	2000	5.3	37.1	42.7	14.9	15.2	63.1	19.1	2.6
El Salvador	1995	20.6	41.4	28.8	9.2	60.4	31.2	7.3	1.1
	2000	14.6	39.7	31.7	14.1	46.4	40.5	11.3	1.9
Guatemala	1989	33.9	42.6	19.2	4.3	75.9	21.8	2.1	0.2
	1998	25.3	43.5	24.3	6.9	67.3	29.1	3.4	0.2
Honduras	1990	24.1	55.7	15.3	5.0	57.6	39.8	2.3	0.3
	1994	20.5	56.1	17.3	6.0	45.9	49.3	4.4	0.4
	1999	16.3	57.7	19.9	6.2	45.5	49.1	5.2	0.3
Mexico a/	1989	8.3	60.5	22.1	9.1	31.4	59.2	7.7	1.7
	1994	7.5	57.5	24.4	10.6	25.8	65.1	8.0	1.1
	2000	7.3	43.1	33.3	16.3	19.1	60.2	17.5	3.2
Nicaragua	1993	24.6	53.8	19.5	2.1	68.9	26.5	4.3	0.3
	1998	21.7	50.5	22.2	5.5	61.2	32.6	5.3	0.9
Panama	1979	6.3	49.1	35.5	9.1	20.5	61.3	16.2	1.9
	1991	6.3	42.7	39.5	11.5	15.6	57.3	23.6	3.5
	1994	5.0	45.9	36.4	12.6	16.4	56.3	23.3	4.0
	1999	3.9	40.8	39.1	16.2	12.9	55.4	26.3	5.4

Table 27 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	10.6	50.9	31.1	7.5
	1990	7.3	46.7	36.8	9.3
	1994	7.9	49.0	34.8	8.3
	1999	5.4	44.3	40.2	10.2	29.0	56.5	12.3	2.2
Peru	1999	3.4	32.9	49.6	14.1	25.1	49.0	22.7	3.2
Dominican Republic	1997	20.2	39.7	29.7	10.4	41.2	39.6	17.1	2.1
	2000	13.1	35.5	37.1	14.3	37.4	38.7	20.4	3.5
Uruguay	1981	7.4	55.5	31.8	5.3
	1990	3.7	52.6	35.4	8.3
	1994	3.5	51.1	37.6	7.8
	2000	2.8	49.4	37.9	9.9
Venezuela c/	1981	13.5	58.5	20.4	7.7	46.1	46.4	6.8	0.7
	1990	10.3	56.5	23.6	9.6	39.0	51.3	8.5	1.2
	1994	10.2	48.2	28.8	12.8	38.2	48.4	10.9	2.5
	2000	11.0	47.0	28.0	13.9

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 27.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more	0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.6	78.9		13.5
	1990	3.1	81.6		15.3
	1994	4.8	80.1		15.0
	2000	2.8	49.0	36.4	11.8
Bolivia	1997	9.2	31.3	46.6	12.9	40.0	39.1	19.8	1.1
	1999	5.3	24.8	51.5	18.5	40.2	32.8	25.6	1.4
	2000	8.6	23.7	52.7	15.0	42.1	34.8	22.1	1.0
Brazil	1979	49.2	34.6	13.1	3.1	87.0	9.5	1.6	2.0
	1990	44.4	37.0	15.8	2.9	81.7	15.6	2.6	0.2
	1993	44.8	37.4	15.5	2.2	81.0	15.6	3.2	0.2
	1999	30.7	42.9	23.4	3.0	68.1	23.7	7.8	0.4
Chile	1990	6.0	33.5	45.6	14.9	18.8	57.0	20.5	3.6
	1994	4.5	32.1	45.6	17.8	16.2	55.5	24.1	4.1
	2000	2.8	31.0	49.7	16.5	9.5	52.4	34.5	3.6
Colombia b/	1980	29.5	42.7	21.3	6.6
	1990	18.2	42.5	30.7	8.6
	1991	22.1	39.8	28.4	9.7	64.3	23.5	11.6	0.5
	1994	18.1	39.0	35.1	7.8	60.3	28.3	10.9	0.5
	1999	15.0	34.0	42.2	8.9	50.2	29.7	19.1	1.0
Costa Rica	1981	7.8	52.4	31.6	8.2	19.6	65.8	12.7	1.9
	1990	10.5	50.1	28.6	10.8	22.3	63.7	12.2	1.8
	1994	9.4	47.9	31.5	11.2	22.4	64.7	11.0	1.9
	2000	9.4	54.1	28.3	8.3	19.8	63.7	12.4	4.2
Ecuador	1990	6.7	48.9	33.9	10.6
	1994	4.9	42.9	39.9	12.3
	2000	6.1	37.3	43.1	13.6	15.6	63.7	18.4	2.3
El Salvador	1995	20.7	43.5	26.7	9.1	61.1	31.5	6.7	0.7
	2000	14.2	40.3	32.2	13.4	45.5	42.2	10.6	1.6
Guatemala	1989	27.6	47.5	18.6	6.2	70.8	26.5	2.5	0.2
	1998	24.3	45.8	21.8	8.1	61.1	34.8	3.9	0.1
Honduras	1990	23.8	57.3	14.6	4.3	60.2	38.2	1.6	0.1
	1994	21.4	56.2	15.9	6.5	48.2	47.9	3.5	0.4
	1999	17.7	58.8	18.5	5.0	46.7	49.0	4.2	0.1
Mexico a/	1989	7.6	58.1	23.8	10.5	31.4	58.6	8.4	1.5
	1994	7.1	56.1	25.2	11.5	27.4	63.5	7.9	1.2
	2000	6.7	44.0	34.0	15.2	18.6	61.0	16.1	4.3
Nicaragua	1993	26.0	54.2	17.7	2.1	72.1	23.3	4.4	0.2
	1998	24.0	50.7	20.6	4.7	65.7	30.1	3.5	0.8
Panama	1979	6.5	52.6	32.3	8.6	20.3	63.5	14.6	1.6
	1991	7.2	47.1	36.0	9.7	17.8	58.2	21.2	2.8
	1994	5.6	49.5	34.8	10.1	18.2	59.1	19.9	2.8
	1999	4.3	43.9	37.9	13.8	14.8	59.4	21.9	3.9

Table 27.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	7.7	52.3	31.2	8.8
	1990	5.6	46.6	38.8	9.1
	1994	7.4	47.5	37.2	7.8
	1999	5.3	43.1	42.8	8.8	30.4	56.0	11.8	1.7
Peru	1999	3.1	33.3	50.0	13.7	20.3	50.6	27.5	1.6
Dominican Republic	1997	24.5	39.2	27.5	8.8	46.6	36.7	14.5	2.1
	2000	15.6	39.4	33.9	11.0	41.9	38.1	17.3	2.8
Uruguay	1981	8.8	57.4	28.7	5.1
	1990	4.0	57.3	31.8	6.9
	1994	4.1	56.5	33.2	6.2
	2000	3.4	55.9	33.8	6.9
Venezuela c/	1981	15.3	59.0	18.6	7.1	49.0	44.5	6.0	0.5
	1990	11.9	58.4	21.1	8.6	44.4	48.8	6.0	0.8
	1994	12.2	51.0	26.0	10.8	43.5	45.2	9.7	1.6
	2000	13.8	50.7	24.8	10.7

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 27.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more	0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.7	75.9		16.5
	1990	3.4	75.2		21.3
	1994	3.0	74.1		22.9
	2000	1.1	36.7	44.2	18.0
Bolivia	1997	14.5	30.9	42.3	12.4	56.9	30.5	10.8	1.8
	2000	12.0	26.4	45.7	15.9	53.3	32.7	13.0	1.0
Brazil	1979	47.3	34.5	15.0	3.2	86.6	9.9	2.2	1.3
	1990	37.9	38.0	20.4	3.7	76.1	18.5	5.0	0.4
	1993	36.8	40.3	19.5	3.4	74.3	19.5	5.7	0.4
	1999	23.4	42.4	29.9	4.3	56.7	31.1	11.5	0.7
Chile	1990	5.3	32.6	45.4	16.7	14.7	55.9	24.7	4.6
	1994	3.8	30.3	47.2	18.6	12.5	54.0	28.2	5.3
	2000	2.5	29.2	52.5	15.8	7.4	47.2	39.8	5.6
Colombia b/	1980	32.5	39.5	21.0	7.0
	1990	20.8	38.7	31.2	9.3
	1991	21.5	36.3	30.8	11.4	55.9	28.0	15.6	0.5
	1994	17.4	37.1	36.6	8.9	50.9	30.8	17.4	0.8
	1999	14.3	31.1	44.0	10.6	41.8	31.8	24.8	1.7
Costa Rica	1981	6.9	48.7	36.2	8.2	19.9	63.7	14.8	1.6
	1990	7.7	50.1	31.1	11.1	17.4	65.4	15.0	2.2
	1994	7.7	51.4	30.3	10.6	19.8	63.9	13.8	2.5
	2000	7.0	52.8	28.9	11.3	16.6	63.6	16.5	3.3
Ecuador	1990	5.0	43.1	39.8	12.1
	1994	4.8	41.8	39.2	14.3
	2000	4.5	36.8	42.4	16.3	14.8	62.5	19.8	3.0
El Salvador	1995	20.5	39.6	30.6	9.3	59.7	30.9	7.8	1.5
	2000	15.1	39.1	31.2	14.7	47.2	38.7	12.0	2.1
Guatemala	1989	38.9	38.7	19.6	2.8	80.8	17.4	1.7	0.2
	1998	26.2	41.5	26.6	5.8	73.2	23.7	2.8	0.3
Honduras	1990	24.2	54.4	15.9	5.5	55.0	41.5	3.1	0.4
	1994	19.8	56.0	18.5	5.6	43.4	50.8	5.3	0.4
	1999	15.2	56.7	21.1	7.1	44.2	49.2	6.3	0.4
Mexico a/	1989	8.9	62.7	20.5	7.8	31.4	59.8	6.9	1.9
	1994	7.8	58.8	23.6	9.8	24.3	66.7	8.1	0.9
	2000	7.8	42.3	32.8	17.1	19.6	59.3	18.9	2.2
Nicaragua	1993	23.4	53.4	21.1	2.1	65.7	29.8	4.3	0.3
	1998	19.7	50.3	23.7	6.3	56.4	35.4	7.2	1.0
Panama	1979	6.1	46.1	38.2	9.6	20.8	58.6	18.2	2.3
	1991	5.4	38.4	42.9	13.3	12.9	56.2	26.5	4.4
	1994	4.5	42.3	38.0	15.2	14.4	53.0	27.2	5.4
	1999	3.5	37.7	40.3	18.5	10.8	51.1	31.2	7.0

Table 27.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	12.4	49.9	31.0	6.7
	1990	8.7	46.7	35.1	9.4
	1994	8.3	50.2	32.8	8.7
	1999	5.4	45.2	38.0	11.4	27.4	57.0	12.9	2.6
Peru	1999	3.6	32.6	49.3	14.5	30.3	47.2	17.4	5.1
Dominican Republic	1997	16.7	40.1	31.5	11.6	35.2	42.7	20.0	2.1
	2000	10.6	31.8	40.2	17.4	32.5	39.4	23.9	4.2
Uruguay	1981	6.1	53.9	34.6	5.5
	1990	3.3	48.0	38.9	9.7
	1994	2.8	45.8	42.0	9.4
	2000	2.2	42.7	42.2	12.9
Venezuela c/	1981	11.8	58.0	22.0	8.2	42.2	48.8	7.9	1.0
	1990	8.7	54.5	26.2	10.6	32.5	54.3	11.5	1.7
	1994	8.3	45.3	31.6	14.8	32.0	52.1	12.4	3.5
	2000	8.1	43.2	31.3	17.3

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 28

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more	0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	21.6	67.4		11.1
	1990	12.4	69.6		18.0
	1994	10.3	70.7		19.0
	2000	8.3	38.6	29.3	23.8
Bolivia	1997	34.1	17.3	28.4	20.3	78.3	12.2	5.8	3.8
	2000	27.6	17.3	26.9	28.2	76.5	13.9	6.8	2.8
Brazil	1979	70.0	12.6	10.0	7.3	96.0	1.9	1.0	1.0
	1990	55.5	17.1	16.8	10.7	89.2	6.3	3.7	0.8
	1993	53.4	19.0	17.7	10.0	88.3	6.8	3.9	1.0
	1999	45.3	21.6	21.8	11.3	82.6	10.2	5.8	1.4
Chile	1990	15.7	29.4	34.6	20.3	43.7	37.5	13.1	5.7
	1994	14.0	24.2	39.0	22.8	39.6	38.7	15.8	5.9
	2000	10.0	23.4	40.3	26.3	35.1	43.5	16.8	4.7
Colombia b/	1980	52.4	22.3	13.7	11.6
	1990	37.4	23.4	23.1	16.1
	1991	39.9	23.0	21.3	15.8	78.2	12.4	7.3	2.1
	1994	35.9	22.9	25.3	15.9	76.2	12.0	9.5	2.4
	1999	33.3	21.5	27.6	17.6	72.8	12.5	10.9	3.9
Costa Rica	1981	27.2	41.5	17.8	13.5	58.1	33.5	5.8	2.6
	1990	16.7	40.5	22.1	20.7	40.0	44.8	10.6	4.5
	1994	14.1	39.5	24.9	21.5	34.8	49.2	10.7	5.3
	2000	13.6	43.2	20.6	22.6	29.2	53.2	10.6	7.0
Ecuador	1990	16.1	43.0	21.9	19.0
	1994	11.7	39.8	24.6	24.0
	2000	12.8	37.7	25.4	24.1	39.7	46.8	8.9	4.6
El Salvador	1995	35.8	30.2	19.7	14.3	80.2	16.3	2.6	0.9
	2000	29.5	30.9	21.8	17.8	74.2	20.2	4.1	1.5
Guatemala	1989	51.5	26.6	13.8	8.1	90.7	7.3	1.5	0.5
	1998	42.4	29.9	17.5	10.2	87.1	10.2	2.3	0.5
Honduras	1990	42.7	31.0	18.2	8.1	81.4	15.9	2.5	0.2
	1994	35.1	34.4	22.0	8.5	69.9	25.1	4.5	0.5
	1999	31.4	36.6	21.0	11.0	69.3	24.8	5.0	0.9
Mexico a/	1989	29.5	47.2	9.6	13.7	70.0	25.1	2.3	2.6
	1994	23.0	48.4	11.8	16.8	63.3	31.4	3.4	1.9
	2000	17.7	42.1	21.5	18.7	49.9	37.5	7.5	5.1
Nicaragua	1993	41.4	34.1	15.9	8.7	81.7	15.0	2.1	1.1
	1998	36.5	35.2	14.0	14.4	75.9	16.6	4.1	3.4
Panama	1979	18.2	47.8	20.5	13.5	57.4	36.6	4.4	1.7
	1991	13.8	39.6	25.1	21.6	37.6	43.9	12.3	6.1
	1994	11.2	39.9	26.6	22.3	35.0	44.8	13.2	6.9
	1999	8.0	38.7	27.8	25.4	27.2	48.4	16.1	8.3

Table 28 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	21.6	37.5	23.3	17.6
	1990	16.9	40.5	28.1	14.6
	1994	17.9	42.1	22.9	17.1
	1999	13.1	45.4	23.8	17.6	59.1	34.0	4.6	2.3
Peru	1999	21.3	13.8	35.3	29.6	69.3	15.7	10.9	4.2
Dominican Republic	1997	32.0	26.9	25.5	15.6	62.1	25.2	9.9	2.7
	2000	26.4	29.0	23.5	21.1	58.6	26.6	10.4	4.3
Uruguay	1981	26.6	46.4	18.2	8.8
	1990	17.2	46.3	23.6	12.8
	1994	14.5	46.3	25.3	13.8
	2000	8.6	49.0	25.9	16.4
Venezuela c/	1981	29.9	49.4	11.9	8.7	73.5	22.8	2.8	0.9
	1990	19.4	48.3	17.8	14.5	61.0	32.4	5.2	1.4
	1994	18.5	45.8	20.2	15.5	54.0	36.3	7.0	2.8
	2000	19.1	44.5	20.2	16.2

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 28.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more	0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	20.9	66.1		13.1
	1990	11.2	70.1		18.7
	1994	9.1	71.9		19.1
	2000	7.4	40.1	30.5	22.0
Bolivia	1997	25.1	18.4	32.3	24.2	71.3	15.6	7.9	5.2
	2000	19.3	18.4	31.4	31.0	68.0	18.6	9.5	3.8
Brazil	1979	67.9	13.7	9.7	8.6	95.9	2.0	1.0	1.1
	1990	54.6	17.8	16.6	11.0	89.0	6.6	3.4	0.9
	1993	52.8	19.7	17.4	10.1	88.4	6.9	3.7	1.0
	1999	45.7	22.6	20.6	11.1	83.5	10.3	5.0	1.3
Chile	1990	13.8	28.5	35.3	22.4	42.9	38.5	12.9	5.7
	1994	12.9	23.6	39.5	24.0	38.3	40.4	15.1	6.2
	2000	9.6	22.4	40.2	27.8	35.3	44.2	16.0	4.4
Colombia b/	1980	48.8	21.0	13.8	16.4
	1990	34.6	22.8	23.3	19.2
	1991	36.9	23.0	21.6	18.5	78.0	12.4	7.3	2.2
	1994	33.8	22.8	25.4	18.0	76.9	11.4	9.2	2.6
	1999	31.8	21.2	27.4	19.6	73.9	12.1	10.3	3.7
Costa Rica	1981	25.4	40.3	18.4	15.8	55.5	35.9	5.9	2.7
	1990	15.0	40.1	22.1	22.9	38.1	46.6	10.7	4.7
	1994	13.4	38.3	24.5	23.7	34.3	49.9	10.3	5.5
	2000	12.9	44.1	19.6	23.3	28.4	54.0	10.6	6.9
Ecuador	1990	14.0	43.4	20.6	22.1
	1994	10.1	39.7	23.7	26.5
	2000	11.4	39.2	23.9	25.5	36.2	50.2	8.9	4.8
El Salvador	1995	29.4	32.8	20.4	17.3	75.0	20.6	3.4	1.0
	2000	24.0	32.7	23.1	20.2	68.8	24.6	5.0	1.6
Guatemala	1989	45.3	29.9	13.9	10.9	87.9	9.9	1.6	0.6
	1998	34.2	34.6	17.9	13.3	82.2	14.1	3.1	0.6
Honduras	1990	39.7	32.9	17.2	10.2	81.0	16.5	2.2	0.3
	1994	32.3	34.3	21.9	11.5	69.0	26.8	3.6	0.6
	1999	29.3	38.2	18.7	13.8	71.2	23.1	4.7	1.0
Mexico a/	1989	25.3	43.9	10.7	20.1	66.8	25.7	3.6	3.9
	1994	19.8	45.5	12.3	22.4	59.7	33.0	4.4	2.9
	2000	15.4	41.8	19.4	23.4	46.6	39.3	7.2	7.0
Nicaragua	1993	36.6	37.4	15.3	10.6	80.3	15.9	2.1	1.6
	1998	32.3	38.0	13.9	15.8	75.8	17.5	3.4	3.3
Panama	1979	17.6	46.8	20.4	15.1	56.5	37.3	4.5	1.7
	1991	13.9	40.3	24.5	21.3	37.3	45.0	12.1	5.5
	1994	11.4	40.4	26.4	21.7	35.4	46.5	11.7	6.4
	1999	7.8	40.3	27.7	24.3	27.4	50.8	14.6	7.1

Table 28.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	17.4	37.6	23.7	21.3
	1990	15.1	40.6	28.3	16.0
	1994	15.7	42.2	23.3	18.8
	1999	11.1	44.4	26.0	18.4	56.3	36.1	5.3	2.2
Peru	1999	14.6	14.2	37.7	33.5	59.3	19.9	16.0	4.8
Dominican Republic	1997	31.6	27.9	25.8	14.7	60.2	27.0	9.8	2.9
	2000	25.9	30.1	23.2	20.8	56.9	28.2	9.9	5.0
Uruguay	1981	26.6	47.4	18.3	7.7
	1990	17.5	47.4	23.4	11.7
	1994	14.7	47.7	25.7	11.9
	2000	8.7	52.2	25.0	14.2
Venezuela c/	1981	26.0	50.9	12.1	11.1	70.9	25.0	2.9	1.2
	1990	17.5	49.6	17.4	15.5	58.9	34.5	5.1	1.6
	1994	17.3	46.5	19.7	16.4	53.6	37.4	6.2	2.8
	2000	19.4	46.4	19.6	14.5

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 28.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more	0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	22.3		68.3	9.4
	1990	13.5		69.1	17.4
	1994	11.4		69.7	19.0
	2000	9.2	37.2	28.2	25.4
Bolivia	1997	42.0	16.3	24.9	16.8	85.3	8.8	3.6	2.3
	2000	35.1	16.4	22.8	25.7	84.9	9.3	4.1	1.7
Brazil	1979	72.0	11.6	10.3	6.1	96.2	1.8	1.1	0.9
	1990	56.2	16.4	17.0	10.3	89.4	5.9	3.9	0.8
	1993	53.9	18.4	17.9	9.8	88.1	6.7	4.2	1.0
	1999	45.0	20.6	22.9	11.5	81.7	10.2	6.6	1.6
Chile	1990	17.4	30.1	34.0	18.5	44.5	36.4	13.4	5.8
	1994	15.0	24.7	38.5	21.8	40.9	37.0	16.5	5.6
	2000	10.4	24.3	40.4	24.9	34.8	42.7	17.6	5.0
Colombia b/	1980	55.5	23.5	13.7	7.4
	1990	39.9	23.9	22.9	13.3
	1991	42.3	23.0	21.1	13.6	78.4	12.4	7.3	2.0
	1994	37.6	23.0	25.3	14.2	75.5	12.6	9.7	2.2
	1999	34.6	21.8	27.7	16.0	71.5	12.9	11.5	4.1
Costa Rica	1981	28.7	42.6	17.3	11.4	60.9	31.1	5.6	2.5
	1990	18.2	40.9	22.1	18.9	42.0	43.0	10.6	4.4
	1994	14.8	40.4	25.3	19.5	35.3	48.5	11.1	5.1
	2000	14.2	42.4	21.5	21.9	30.0	52.5	10.5	7.0
Ecuador	1990	18.0	42.7	23.1	16.2
	1994	13.1	39.8	25.4	21.7
	2000	14.1	36.3	26.8	22.8	43.1	43.5	8.8	4.5
El Salvador	1995	40.7	28.2	19.1	12.0	84.7	12.6	1.9	0.7
	2000	33.8	29.4	20.7	16.0	78.7	16.5	3.3	1.5
Guatemala	1989	56.7	23.9	13.7	5.8	93.4	4.9	1.3	0.3
	1998	49.0	26.2	17.1	7.6	91.3	6.8	1.5	0.4
Honduras	1990	45.1	29.6	18.9	6.4	81.8	15.4	2.7	...
	1994	37.4	34.5	22.1	6.0	70.8	23.5	5.3	0.5
	1999	33.1	35.4	22.8	8.7	67.6	26.3	5.3	0.9
Mexico a/	1989	33.3	50.1	8.6	8.1	72.9	24.6	1.1	1.4
	1994	25.9	51.0	11.3	11.9	66.6	29.9	2.5	1.1
	2000	19.7	42.4	23.3	14.5	53.0	35.8	7.9	3.3
Nicaragua	1993	45.5	31.1	16.3	7.0	83.1	14.1	2.1	0.6
	1998	39.9	32.9	14.0	13.3	76.0	15.7	4.8	3.5
Panama	1979	18.6	48.6	20.6	12.1	58.3	35.9	4.2	1.6
	1991	13.7	39.0	25.6	21.8	37.9	42.7	12.6	6.7
	1994	10.9	39.5	26.8	22.8	34.6	43.1	14.7	7.5
	1999	8.3	37.3	27.9	26.5	26.9	45.9	17.6	9.5

Table 28.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): FEMALE POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	25.4	37.5	22.9	14.3
	1990	18.4	40.3	27.9	13.3
	1994	19.8	42.0	22.6	15.6
	1999	15.0	46.2	21.8	16.9	62.0	31.7	3.9	2.4
Peru	1999	27.2	13.6	33.1	26.2	78.5	11.8	6.1	3.6
Dominican Republic	1997	32.3	26.0	25.3	16.4	64.1	23.4	10.0	2.5
	2000	26.8	28.2	23.7	21.4	60.4	25.0	10.9	3.6
Uruguay	1981	26.6	45.6	18.1	9.7
	1990	17.0	45.4	23.9	13.7
	1994	14.4	45.2	25.0	15.4
	2000	8.6	46.2	26.7	18.4
Venezuela c/	1981	33.6	48.1	11.7	6.6	76.5	20.1	2.7	0.6
	1990	21.3	46.9	18.1	13.6	63.5	30.0	5.4	1.1
	1994	19.6	45.1	20.7	14.6	54.4	35.0	7.9	2.8
	2000	18.8	42.6	20.7	17.8

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 29

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more	0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	17.8	67.2		15.0
	1990	13.1	69.0		17.9
	1994	8.1	70.2		21.7
	2000	6.9	36.6	32.0	24.5
Bolivia	1997	31.7	19.7	30.8	17.8	74.5	15.9	6.7	2.8
	2000	25.6	19.7	31.4	23.3	73.1	17.0	7.8	2.2
Brazil	1979	60.9	19.2	12.4	7.6	93.2	4.0	1.3	1.4
	1990	47.5	24.3	18.4	9.8	85.0	10.3	3.9	0.8
	1993	53.6	23.0	16.2	7.2	86.5	9.2	3.6	0.7
	1999	39.5	25.4	24.5	10.6	79.3	13.1	6.5	1.1
Chile	1990	12.9	26.9	36.5	23.8	36.8	40.9	15.2	7.1
	1994	11.7	22.8	40.2	25.4	34.3	40.9	17.7	7.1
	2000	8.8	22.0	42.1	27.1	32.1	42.5	20.0	5.4
Colombia b/	1980	47.1	25.3	16.1	11.5
	1990	28.4	28.2	26.9	16.5
	1991	35.3	24.4	24.2	16.0	75.9	13.5	8.8	1.8
	1994	32.0	23.1	28.7	16.2	73.1	13.3	11.2	2.4
	1999	29.3	21.5	31.7	17.5	68.4	14.0	13.8	3.7
Costa Rica	1981	20.4	43.4	23.0	13.3	42.0	47.3	8.2	2.5
	1990	14.1	41.1	24.1	20.7	32.9	50.7	11.7	4.6
	1994	12.7	39.7	25.8	21.7	31.1	52.6	11.2	5.0
	2000	11.9	43.7	22.2	22.3	26.7	54.6	11.4	7.4
Ecuador	1990	14.5	43.1	24.1	18.2
	1994	11.1	39.5	27.0	22.4
	2000	12.0	37.7	27.4	23.0	36.6	49.8	9.7	3.8
El Salvador	1995	33.7	31.5	21.3	13.5	74.2	20.9	4.0	1.0
	2000	28.8	30.6	23.8	16.8	66.8	25.6	6.2	1.5
Guatemala	1989	45.5	29.9	16.2	8.4	84.1	13.5	1.9	0.5
	1998	39.5	31.8	19.0	9.7	80.2	16.8	2.6	0.4
Honduras	1990	38.2	36.7	18.2	7.0	74.8	22.2	2.8	0.2
	1994	32.0	38.9	20.5	8.7	62.3	32.2	4.9	0.6
	1999	29.3	41.0	20.3	9.4	63.1	30.9	5.2	0.9
Mexico a/	1989	21.7	50.4	13.2	14.6	59.8	34.1	3.5	2.6
	1994	19.0	50.0	14.0	16.9	54.6	39.4	4.0	2.0
	2000	15.3	41.8	23.0	19.8	44.1	41.8	8.9	5.1
Nicaragua	1993	33.5	41.0	18.1	7.4	74.1	21.4	3.5	1.1
	1998	33.8	38.0	15.3	12.9	70.9	21.8	4.4	2.9
Panama	1979	14.0	46.3	25.3	14.4	47.8	42.3	7.8	2.1
	1991	11.7	37.6	29.1	21.6	34.0	45.2	14.9	5.8
	1994	9.3	38.7	29.2	22.8	32.4	45.8	15.2	6.6
	1999	7.2	36.7	29.8	26.3	26.9	48.0	16.8	8.3

Table 29 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	18.7	40.8	24.8	15.7
	1990	14.7	41.6	29.3	14.4
	1994	15.7	42.1	25.8	16.4
	1999	11.9	42.2	28.1	17.7	52.6	38.5	6.4	2.4
Peru	1999	19.7	17.3	36.8	26.2	62.9	21.7	12.3	3.0
Dominican Republic	1997	28.3	29.0	26.4	16.2	57.0	27.5	12.4	3.2
	2000	22.7	29.0	26.2	22.1	54.6	27.7	12.6	5.0
Uruguay	1981	21.3	47.4	21.8	9.5
	1990	14.2	46.3	26.2	13.3
	1994	12.2	46.9	27.6	13.4
	2000	8.1	48.8	27.0	16.1
Venezuela c/	1981	24.3	52.3	14.7	8.7	67.0	28.8	3.5	0.8
	1990	16.6	49.6	19.7	14.1	56.7	36.1	5.8	1.4
	1994	16.3	45.9	22.1	15.7	51.4	37.8	7.9	2.9
	2000	17.8	44.1	21.6	16.5

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 29.1

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more	0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	18.6	68.1		13.3
	1990	12.5	71.1		16.3
	1994	8.3	73.7		18.0
	2000	7.1	40.9	31.7	20.3
Bolivia	1997	25.7	21.0	34.3	18.9	68.2	19.1	9.0	3.6
	2000	20.0	20.2	35.6	24.1	66.6	20.3	10.4	2.7
Brazil	1979	63.5	19.2	10.4	7.0	93.7	3.9	1.0	1.4
	1990	51.4	23.8	16.2	8.6	87.3	9.2	2.9	0.6
	1993	53.7	23.4	15.5	7.4	87.5	8.8	3.1	0.7
	1999	43.0	26.5	21.4	9.1	81.0	12.8	5.3	0.9
Chile	1990	13.2	28.7	37.3	20.8	39.2	42.0	13.8	5.0
	1994	12.2	24.2	40.7	22.8	36.4	42.0	16.0	5.5
	2000	9.6	23.3	42.0	25.1	34.9	43.6	17.6	4.0
Colombia b/	1980	46.8	25.3	15.3	12.7
	1990	29.8	28.6	25.4	16.1
	1991	36.8	25.5	22.5	15.2	78.4	13.0	7.2	1.4
	1994	33.8	24.1	27.0	15.1	77.0	12.8	8.4	1.8
	1999	31.1	22.0	30.1	16.7	73.3	13.2	10.9	2.6
Costa Rica	1981	21.7	45.6	20.5	12.2	44.9	46.3	6.9	2.0
	1990	15.7	43.1	22.4	18.8	35.7	50.9	10.0	3.4
	1994	13.9	41.7	24.7	19.7	33.9	52.7	9.5	3.9
	2000	13.3	46.9	20.5	19.3	29.0	55.4	9.9	5.7
Ecuador	1990	14.2	46.9	21.9	17.1
	1994	10.8	41.9	26.2	21.2
	2000	11.6	40.8	26.4	21.2	35.3	52.2	9.2	3.3
El Salvador	1995	31.7	34.4	20.6	13.3	74.6	21.1	3.6	0.7
	2000	26.2	32.9	24.3	16.6	66.6	26.6	5.8	1.0
Guatemala	1989	45.0	32.1	14.1	8.8	84.2	14.0	1.4	0.4
	1998	36.6	35.2	17.7	10.6	78.0	19.1	2.6	0.4
Honduras	1990	39.1	38.7	15.1	7.1	76.0	22.1	1.7	0.2
	1994	32.7	39.3	19.0	9.1	64.9	31.7	2.9	0.5
	1999	30.0	42.8	17.5	9.8	65.8	29.7	3.9	0.7
Mexico a/	1989	23.3	48.5	12.3	15.9	59.8	34.1	3.5	2.5
	1994	19.1	49.6	13.4	17.8	54.5	39.9	3.7	1.9
	2000	15.2	44.3	20.0	20.5	44.4	43.0	7.5	5.1
Nicaragua	1993	33.3	42.2	16.6	7.8	78.0	18.2	2.7	1.1
	1998	33.9	40.6	14.0	11.5	74.3	20.5	3.0	2.1
Panama	1979	16.2	48.3	22.8	12.8	50.6	42.3	5.8	1.3
	1991	14.2	42.0	26.4	17.5	38.3	46.0	11.9	3.8
	1994	11.5	42.2	27.5	18.7	36.5	47.2	11.8	4.4
	1999	8.8	40.9	28.8	21.5	30.6	50.2	13.6	5.5

Table 29.1 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE MALE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more	0 – 5	6 – 9	10 – 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	17.5	40.8	24.3	17.4
	1990	14.6	41.5	30.0	13.8
	1994	14.9	43.3	26.2	15.6
	1999	11.6	42.9	29.2	16.3	52.8	39.1	6.1	1.9
Peru	1999	15.7	17.3	40.1	26.9	54.4	25.9	16.5	3.1
Dominican Republic	1997	31.6	31.4	24.5	12.6	60.1	27.1	10.4	2.4
	2000	25.6	31.6	24.4	18.4	58.1	27.5	10.1	4.4
Uruguay	1981	22.9	49.6	20.4	7.2
	1990	16.0	49.4	24.3	10.3
	1994	13.8	50.5	25.7	10.0
	2000	9.0	53.9	25.0	12.1
Venezuela c/	1981	25.6	53.8	12.5	8.1	68.7	28.0	2.6	0.6
	1990	17.8	52.5	17.4	12.3	58.7	35.8	4.6	1.0
	1994	18.1	48.8	19.8	13.4	55.2	36.8	6.1	1.9
	2000	20.6	47.3	19.7	12.5

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 29.2

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more	0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	16.2		65.6	18.2
	1990	14.0		65.7	20.3
	1994	7.7		64.5	27.7
	2000	6.8	30.4	32.3	30.5
Bolivia	1997	39.6	17.9	26.3	16.2	82.4	12.0	3.8	1.9
	2000	32.4	19.1	26.2	22.3	81.2	12.8	4.5	1.5
Brazil	1979	55.7	19.1	16.3	9.0	91.8	4.5	2.0	1.6
	1990	41.6	25.0	21.7	11.7	80.0	12.7	6.3	1.1
	1993	53.4	22.7	16.7	7.1	85.4	9.7	4.2	0.7
	1999	34.9	23.8	28.6	12.7	76.7	13.5	8.3	1.4
Chile	1990	12.3	23.5	35.1	29.2	24.8	35.2	22.5	17.4
	1994	10.6	20.3	39.3	29.8	25.2	36.1	24.8	13.9
	2000	7.5	20.0	42.2	30.4	22.2	38.6	28.5	10.6
Colombia b/	1980	47.6	25.4	17.4	9.6
	1990	26.5	27.6	29.0	16.9
	1991	33.2	22.8	26.8	17.2	69.9	14.8	12.5	2.8
	1994	29.4	21.7	31.1	17.8	63.4	14.7	18.2	3.7
	1999	27.1	20.8	33.6	18.5	57.5	15.9	20.5	6.2
Costa Rica	1981	17.5	38.8	28.0	15.7	31.1	51.3	13.3	4.3
	1990	11.4	37.5	27.1	24.0	23.5	50.2	17.6	8.7
	1994	10.6	36.4	27.7	25.3	22.5	52.5	16.6	8.4
	2000	9.5	38.4	24.8	27.3	20.2	52.4	15.4	11.9
Ecuador	1990	15.1	36.6	28.0	20.2
	1994	11.6	35.8	28.3	24.3
	2000	12.4	33.1	28.8	25.6	39.4	45.0	10.8	4.9
El Salvador	1995	36.2	28.0	22.0	13.8	73.0	20.3	5.0	1.7
	2000	31.9	27.8	23.2	17.1	67.1	23.2	7.1	2.6
Guatemala	1989	46.3	26.3	19.8	7.6	83.8	11.2	4.0	1.0
	1998	43.3	27.6	20.6	8.5	85.0	11.6	2.8	0.6
Honduras	1990	36.8	33.7	22.7	6.8	69.6	22.7	7.3	0.4
	1994	31.0	38.2	22.8	8.0	53.6	33.9	11.4	1.1
	1999	28.4	38.8	23.8	9.0	56.3	33.8	8.6	1.4
Mexico a/	1989	18.5	54.4	15.0	12.0	60.0	33.8	3.2	2.9
	1994	18.9	50.6	15.1	15.3	54.9	38.4	4.5	2.2
	2000	15.6	37.5	28.2	18.6	43.5	39.3	12.0	5.2
Nicaragua	1993	33.6	39.5	20.0	6.9	62.3	30.8	5.7	1.2
	1998	33.6	34.6	17.0	14.8	60.5	25.6	8.5	5.3
Panama	1979	10.6	43.3	29.1	16.9	32.1	42.2	19.2	6.5
	1991	7.9	30.7	33.4	28.0	17.5	42.2	26.5	13.8
	1994	5.7	33.0	31.9	29.4	18.2	40.8	26.8	14.2
	1999	4.7	30.4	31.3	33.6	15.1	40.8	27.1	17.0

Table 29.2 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE FEMALE POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-1999 (Percentages)									
Country	Year	Urban areas				Rural areas			
		Years of schooling				Years of schooling			
		0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	20.2	40.9	25.4	13.5
	1990	14.7	41.8	28.3	15.2
	1994	16.8	40.4	25.3	17.5
	1999	12.4	41.4	26.7	19.5	52.1	37.1	7.2	3.6
Peru	1999	24.6	17.3	32.9	25.2	74.6	16.1	6.6	2.8
Dominican Republic	1997	23.5	25.6	29.3	21.6	48.7	28.6	17.5	5.2
	2000	18.7	25.3	28.7	27.3	45.3	28.4	19.5	6.8
Uruguay	1981	18.6	43.7	24.2	13.4
	1990	11.6	42.0	29.0	17.4
	1994	10.0	42.2	30.0	17.8
	2000	7.0	42.4	29.6	21.1
Venezuela c/	1981	21.2	48.9	19.9	9.9	56.9	33.5	8.2	1.5
	1990	14.0	43.9	24.3	17.8	46.7	38.0	12.1	3.2
	1994	12.8	40.2	26.6	20.4	37.1	41.6	14.7	6.6
	2000	13.0	38.5	25.0	23.5

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 30

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.8	7.8	7.7
	1990	9.0	8.9	9.2
	1994	9.1	8.8	9.4
	2000	10.1	9.7	10.5
Bolivia	1989	10.2	10.6	9.9
	1994	10.0	10.3	9.7
	2000	10.1	10.3	9.9	6.3	6.9	5.7
Brazil	1979	6.4	6.4	6.4	4.2	4.4	4.1
	1990	6.6	6.3	6.8	3.6	3.3	4.0
	1993	6.5	6.2	6.8	3.7	3.4	4.2
	1999	7.5	7.2	7.9	4.9	4.4	5.4
Chile	1987	9.9	9.9	10.0	7.4	7.1	7.6
	1990	10.1	10.0	10.2	7.9	7.6	8.1
	1994	10.4	10.4	10.5	8.2	8.0	8.4
	2000	10.6	10.6	10.7	8.9	8.7	9.2
Colombia b/	1980	7.5	7.6	7.5
	1990	8.5	8.5	8.5
	1991	8.5	8.4	8.7	5.5	5.2	5.8
	1994	8.7	8.6	8.8	5.8	5.5	6.2
	1999	9.2	9.0	9.3	6.5	6.2	6.8
Costa Rica	1981	8.8	8.7	8.9	6.7	6.6	6.8
	1990	9.1	8.9	9.3	6.9	6.7	7.2
	1994	8.8	8.8	8.8	6.6	6.5	6.7
	2000	8.6	8.4	8.8	7.0	6.8	7.1
Ecuador	1990	9.4	9.1	9.6
	1994	9.7	9.6	9.8
	2000	9.9	9.7	10.0	7.1	7.0	7.2
El Salvador	1997	8.8	8.7	8.9	5.2	5.2	5.1
	2000	9.1	9.1	9.1	5.7	5.7	5.7
Guatemala	1989	6.7	7.3	6.2	2.9	3.4	2.4
	1998	7.5	7.6	7.5	3.6	4.1	3.1
Honduras	1990	7.0	6.9	7.0	4.1	3.9	4.3
	1994	7.3	7.2	7.4	4.8	4.7	5.0
	1999	7.6	7.3	7.8	4.9	4.7	5.1
Mexico a/	1984	9.7	9.9	9.5	8.3	8.5	8.1
	1989	8.7	8.9	8.6	6.8	6.8	6.7
	1994	8.9	9.0	8.8	7.0	6.9	7.1
	2000	9.7	9.8	9.7	7.5	7.6	7.4
Nicaragua	1993	7.0	6.8	7.2	3.6	3.3	4.0
	1998	7.5	7.2	7.8	4.2	3.8	4.6

Table 30 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION BETWEEN 15 AND 24 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	9.2	9.0	9.3	6.9	6.8	7.0
	1991	9.6	9.2	9.9	7.6	7.3	8.0
	1994	9.6	9.3	9.9	7.6	7.3	8.1
	1999	10.0	9.8	10.3	8.0	7.6	8.4
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.7	9.0	8.5
	1990	9.3	9.5	9.1
	1994	9.1	9.1	9.0
	1999	9.4	9.5	9.4	6.5	6.4	6.5
Peru	1999	10.2	10.2	10.2	7.2	7.5	6.9
Dominican Republic	1997	8.4	8.0	8.8	6.3	6.0	6.7
	2000	9.4	8.8	9.9	6.7	6.3	7.2
Uruguay	1981	8.6	8.4	8.7
	1990	9.2	8.9	9.4
	1994	9.2	8.9	9.5
	2000	9.4	9.0	9.9
Venezuela c/	1981	8.0	7.7	8.2	5.1	4.9	5.4
	1990	8.4	8.2	8.7	5.7	5.2	6.2
	1994	8.7	8.4	9.1	6.0	5.7	6.4
	2000	8.8	8.2	9.3

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 31

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.4	7.0	7.7
	1990	8.8	8.9	8.8
	1994	9.0	9.0	9.0
	2000	10.2	10.2	10.3
Bolivia	1989	8.8	9.9	7.8
	1994	9.3	10.3	8.3
	2000	9.6	10.6	8.8	3.9	5.0	2.9
Brazil	1979	5.1	5.3	4.9	2.4	2.5	2.3
	1990	6.2	6.3	6.1	2.6	2.6	2.6
	1993	6.3	6.4	6.2	2.7	2.7	2.8
	1999	7.0	6.9	7.1	3.3	3.2	3.4
Chile	1987	9.3	9.7	9.0	5.5	5.6	5.5
	1990	9.7	10.1	9.5	6.2	6.3	6.2
	1994	10.2	10.4	10.0	6.6	6.7	6.5
	2000	10.8	11.0	10.6	6.8	6.7	6.8
Colombia b/	1980	6.8	7.4	6.2
	1990	8.2	8.6	7.8
	1991	8.1	8.5	7.8	4.1	4.1	4.1
	1994	8.3	8.6	8.1	4.4	4.3	4.4
	1999	8.6	8.9	8.4	4.8	4.7	4.9
Costa Rica	1981	7.5	7.9	7.3	4.6	4.7	4.5
	1990	9.6	10.0	9.3	6.3	6.6	6.0
	1994	9.1	9.3	8.9	6.0	6.0	6.0
	2000	9.1	9.1	9.0	6.4	6.4	6.3
Ecuador	1990	8.9	9.2	8.6
	1994	9.7	10.0	9.5
	2000	9.8	9.9	9.6	5.5	5.7	5.3
El Salvador	1997	7.9	8.7	7.4	2.9	3.3	2.6
	2000	8.3	8.9	7.8	3.3	3.7	2.9
Guatemala	1989	5.6	6.4	4.9	1.5	1.9	1.1
	1998	6.5	7.2	5.8	1.9	2.4	1.4
Honduras	1990	6.4	6.8	6.1	2.5	2.6	2.4
	1994	7.0	7.5	6.6	3.4	3.4	3.4
	1999	7.3	7.6	7.1	3.5	3.5	3.6
Mexico a/	1984	8.4	8.8	8.1	6.9	7.1	6.7
	1989	7.5	8.1	7.0	4.7	5.0	4.5
	1994	8.0	8.5	7.6	5.0	5.3	4.8
	2000	9.0	9.5	8.6	5.3	5.6	5.0
Nicaragua	1993	6.4	6.8	6.0	2.4	2.4	2.3
	1998	7.0	7.4	6.6	3.2	3.2	3.2

Table 31 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION BETWEEN 25 AND 59 YEARS OF AGE, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	8.5	8.6	8.3	4.4	4.4	4.3
	1991	9.6	9.6	9.7	6.1	6.1	6.2
	1994	9.9	9.9	10.0	6.4	6.3	6.6
	1999	10.4	10.4	10.5	7.1	6.9	7.2
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.8	9.4	8.3
	1990	9.0	9.3	8.8
	1994	8.9	9.2	8.6
	1999	9.3	9.6	9.0	4.8	5.0	4.5
Peru	1999	10.1	10.9	9.5	4.6	5.7	3.6
Dominican Republic	1997	8.2	8.2	8.2	4.7	4.8	4.6
	2000	8.9	8.9	8.9	5.1	5.2	5.0
Uruguay	1981	7.3	7.3	7.3
	1990	8.3	8.3	8.4
	1994	8.6	8.6	8.7
	2000	9.2	9.0	9.4
Venezuela c/	1981	6.8	7.3	6.4	3.1	3.3	2.7
	1990	8.2	8.4	8.0	4.0	4.2	3.8
	1994	8.3	8.4	8.1	4.7	4.7	4.6
	2000	8.3	8.1	8.5

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 32

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/ (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	7.4	7.0	8.2
	1990	8.7	8.6	8.9
	1994	9.3	9.0	9.7
	2000	10.5	10.1	11.0
Bolivia	1989	9.0	9.7	8.2
	1994	9.3	10.0	8.5
	2000	9.5	10.1	8.8	4.1	4.9	3.1
Brazil	1979	5.9	5.6	6.4	3.1	3.0	3.4
	1990	6.7	6.3	7.2	3.0	2.7	3.5
	1993	6.0	6.0	6.0	2.8	2.7	2.9
	1999	7.3	6.9	7.9	3.5	3.3	3.8
Chile	1987	9.9	9.7	10.3	6.2	5.9	7.6
	1990	10.2	10.0	10.6	6.8	6.4	8.5
	1994	10.6	10.4	10.9	7.1	6.8	8.3
	2000	11.0	10.8	11.3	7.2	6.8	8.4
Colombia b/	1980	7.1	7.2	6.9
	1990	8.7	8.6	8.8
	1991	8.4	8.2	8.6	4.3	4.1	4.9
	1994	8.6	8.4	8.9	4.7	4.3	5.6
	1999	8.9	8.7	9.1	5.1	4.7	6.1
Costa Rica	1981	8.1	7.8	8.6	5.4	5.2	6.3
	1990	10.1	9.7	10.6	6.7	6.4	7.8
	1994	9.2	9.0	9.7	6.2	5.9	7.1
	2000	9.2	8.8	9.9	6.6	6.3	7.5
Ecuador	1990	9.0	8.8	9.3
	1994	9.7	9.6	10.0
	2000	9.8	9.6	10.0	5.6	5.6	5.5
El Salvador	1997	8.1	8.2	7.9	3.5	3.5	3.6
	2000	8.3	8.5	8.1	3.9	3.9	4.0
Guatemala	1989	6.1	6.2	6.0	2.2	2.2	2.2
	1998	6.7	6.9	6.4	2.5	2.7	2.1
Honduras	1990	6.5	6.4	6.8	2.9	2.8	3.4
	1994	7.1	7.1	7.2	3.8	3.6	4.7
	1999	7.2	7.1	7.4	3.8	3.6	4.4
Mexico a/	1984	8.9	8.8	9.0	7.2	7.2	7.3
	1989	8.0	8.0	8.1	5.2	5.2	5.2
	1994	8.3	8.3	8.3	5.5	5.5	5.5
	2000	9.4	9.4	9.5	5.7	5.7	5.9
Nicaragua	1993	6.8	6.8	6.9	3.0	2.7	4.1
	1998	7.1	7.0	7.3	3.5	3.2	4.6

Table 32 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): AVERAGE YEARS OF SCHOOLING COMPLETED BY POPULATION OF 15 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		Average years of schooling			Average years of schooling		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	8.9	8.6	9.5	5.0	4.7	6.8
	1991	9.9	9.2	10.8	6.4	5.8	8.6
	1994	10.2	9.6	11.0	6.6	6.0	8.6
	1999	10.6	10.1	11.5	7.1	6.5	9.0
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	8.9	9.1	8.6
	1990	9.2	9.2	9.1
	1994	9.1	9.1	9.1
	1999	9.5	9.5	9.5	5.2	5.2	5.2
Peru	1999	10.0	10.4	9.4	4.8	5.6	3.7
Dominican Republic	1997	8.5	8.0	9.3	5.2	4.9	6.0
	2000	9.3	8.8	10.0	5.5	5.1	6.5
Uruguay	1981	7.8	7.5	8.2
	1990	8.6	8.2	9.2
	1994	8.8	8.4	9.3
	2000	9.3	8.9	9.8
Venezuela c/	1981	7.2	7.0	7.7	3.5	3.4	4.3
	1990	8.4	8.1	9.2	4.3	4.1	5.3
	1994	8.5	8.1	9.3	4.9	4.6	6.3
	2000	8.5	7.9	9.5

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

- a/ Information allowing the calculation of the number of years of schooling became available in 1996 in Mexico and 1997 in Argentina. Previous figures correspond to estimates based on the categories of incomplete primary schooling, complete primary and incomplete secondary, complete secondary, and higher education.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 33

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 ACCORDING TO THEIR STATUS IN THE SCHOOL CYCLE, NATIONAL TOTAL (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Status of studies										Total	
			School drop-outs					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter the educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Subtotal drop-outs	Students far behind	Students somewhat behind	Students at the appropriate level	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
Bolivia	1997	Both sexes	1.9	20.4	2.9	2.0	2.5	29.7	13.1	13.5	34.7	9.0	70.3	100.0
		Males	1.2	18.1	2.4	2.4	2.9	27.0	14.2	15.8	33.8	9.2	73.0	100.0
		Females	2.5	22.6	3.3	1.6	2.2	32.3	12.0	11.4	35.5	8.8	67.7	100.0
Brazil a/	1999	Both sexes	3.0	19.5	3.5	1.6	27.5	28.9	11.0	24.1	8.4	72.5	100.0	
		Males	3.8	20.0	3.4	1.4	28.6	32.7	11.0	20.8	6.7	71.4	100.0	
		Females	2.2	18.9	3.6	1.7	26.4	25.0	11.0	27.5	10.1	73.6	100.0	
Chile	2000	Both sexes	0.2	5.2	4.3	3.0	4.1	16.8	7.4	13.0	47.1	15.7	83.2	100.0
		Males	0.2	5.8	4.3	2.9	3.6	16.9	9.0	14.0	45.3	14.7	83.1	100.0
		Females	0.2	4.5	4.2	3.1	4.7	16.7	5.8	12.0	48.9	16.6	83.3	100.0
Colombia	1999	Both sexes	2.1	8.4	10.0	9.2	3.6	33.2	17.7	10.9	19.9	18.3	66.8	100.0
		Males	2.4	9.8	10.9	9.1	3.4	35.6	19.6	11.3	18.4	15.0	64.4	100.0
		Females	1.8	7.0	9.1	9.3	3.8	30.9	15.8	10.5	21.3	21.4	69.1	100.0
Costa Rica	1999	Both sexes	1.3	9.0	21.8	5.8	1.9	39.8	16.7	11.7	18.9	12.9	60.2	100.0
		Males	1.4	9.8	25.3	5.8	1.6	43.9	17.5	11.5	16.1	11.0	56.1	100.0
		Females	1.2	8.2	18.5	5.8	2.2	36.0	16.0	11.8	21.6	14.7	64.0	100.0
El Salvador a/	1999	Both sexes	6.3	30.8	6.5	1.7	45.4	10.0	7.3	27.2	10.2	54.6	100.0	
		Males	6.5	29.0	6.4	1.2	43.1	12.6	7.9	26.9	9.5	56.9	100.0	
		Females	6.1	32.7	6.6	2.3	47.6	7.3	6.7	27.5	10.9	52.4	100.0	
Honduras	1999	Both sexes	6.5	19.5	31.7	4.0	2.2	63.8	10.5	5.8	13.6	6.4	36.2	100.0
		Males	8.0	20.3	33.9	3.2	2.0	67.4	10.1	4.7	12.7	5.1	32.6	100.0
		Females	4.9	18.7	29.3	4.7	2.4	60.0	10.8	6.9	14.5	7.8	40.0	100.0
Guatemala	1998	Both sexes	16.7	26.6	16.4	5.5	0.9	66.0	9.9	5.0	16.2	2.8	34.0	100.0
		Males	13.6	25.9	18.5	5.7	0.4	64.1	11.2	5.3	16.5	2.9	35.9	100.0
		Females	19.8	27.3	14.3	5.2	1.3	68.0	8.6	4.7	16.0	2.7	32.0	100.0
Mexico	2000	Both sexes	2.6	6.8	14.1	20.3	2.5	46.4	5.6	5.6	31.4	11.0	53.6	100.0
		Males	1.9	7.4	14.0	20.5	2.0	45.8	6.2	6.7	30.8	10.5	54.2	100.0
		Females	3.3	6.1	14.2	20.2	3.0	46.8	5.0	4.7	32.1	11.5	53.2	100.0
Nicaragua	1998	Both sexes	12.4	21.5	11.0	6.9	1.9	53.6	13.6	7.0	18.6	7.2	46.4	100.0
		Males	13.8	23.2	11.5	6.3	1.8	56.6	15.2	6.2	15.7	6.3	43.4	100.0
		Females	11.0	19.8	10.5	7.5	2.0	50.7	12.0	7.7	21.5	8.0	49.3	100.0

Table 33 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (15 COUNTRIES): YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 ACCORDING TO THEIR STATUS IN THE SCHOOL CYCLE, NATIONAL TOTAL (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Status of studies										Total	
			School drop-outs					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter the educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Subtotal drop-outs	Students far behind	Students somewhat behind	Students at the appropriate level	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
Panama	1999	Both sexes	1.0	4.1	12.3	11.3	1.8	30.6	9.8	8.2	36.3	15.2	69.4	100.0
		Males	0.9	4.6	13.9	12.6	1.7	33.7	12.1	9.1	32.6	12.5	66.3	100.0
		Females	1.1	3.6	10.7	10.0	1.9	27.3	7.3	7.2	40.2	17.9	72.7	100.0
Paraguay	1999	Both sexes	1.8	12.0	21.0	7.5	1.5	44.0	6.5	7.3	36.5	5.6	56.0	100.0
		Males	1.6	14.2	20.8	7.6	1.7	45.8	7.3	7.2	36.2	3.6	54.2	100.0
		Females	2.1	10.1	21.3	7.5	1.4	42.4	5.9	7.4	36.8	7.5	57.6	100.0
Peru	1999	Both sexes	0.8	7.5	8.2	6.3	4.1	26.9	14.1	9.8	24.7	24.5	73.1	100.0
		Males	0.3	5.2	8.4	7.2	4.9	25.9	14.8	9.3	25.0	24.9	74.1	100.0
		Females	1.4	9.7	8.1	5.3	3.2	27.8	13.4	10.3	24.4	24.1	72.2	100.0
Dominican Republic	1997	Both sexes	5.6	16.4	2.7	1.0	1.5	27.3	25.7	10.9	30.4	5.8	72.7	100.0
		Males	5.7	18.0	2.9	1.1	1.7	29.4	31.0	10.1	25.1	4.4	70.6	100.0
		Females	5.5	14.9	2.6	1.0	1.3	25.3	20.9	11.6	35.2	7.0	74.7	100.0
Venezuela b/	1999	Both sexes	1.9	29.5	3.3	1.0		35.7	13.9	8.4	21.1	21.0	64.3	100.0
		Males	2.2	34.6	2.7	0.8		40.3	14.7	8.6	18.6	17.7	59.7	100.0
		Females	1.5	24.3	3.9	1.3		30.9	13.0	8.1	23.6	24.4	69.1	100.0
Simple average	1999	Both sexes	4.4	16.1	10.6	5.7	2.2	38.8	14.1	9.1	26.0	12.0	61.2	100.0
		Males	4.4	16.6	11.3	5.7	2.1	39.9	15.8	9.4	24.2	10.8	60.1	100.0
		Females	4.5	15.6	9.9	5.6	2.4	37.6	12.4	8.9	27.8	13.3	62.4	100.0

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

- a/ This country has a secondary cycle of only three years, and the category "drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle" is therefore included in "drop-outs at end of secondary cycle".
- b/ National total. This country has a secondary cycle of only two years, and the category "drop-outs at end of secondary cycle" is therefore restricted to those dropping out one year before completing the secondary cycle.

Table 34

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 ACCORDING TO THEIR STATUS IN THE SCHOOL CYCLE, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Status of studies										Total	
			School drop-outs					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter the educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Subtotal drop-outs	Students far behind	Students somewhat behind	Students at the appropriate level	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
Argentina a/	1999	Both sexes	0.4	1.4	12.1	6.7	2.3	22.9	8.8	11.2	40.8	16.4	77.1	100.0
		Males	0.4	1.7	14.1	5.9	2.6	24.7	10.0	12.3	39.1	13.9	75.3	100.0
		Females	0.4	1.1	10.2	7.5	2.0	21.2	7.6	10.1	42.4	18.7	78.8	100.0
Argentina	1999	Both sexes	0.4	1.9	12.1	6.4	2.3	23.1	9.4	11.1	39.4	16.9	76.9	100.0
		Males	0.5	2.4	13.6	6.3	2.3	25.1	10.9	12.0	37.5	14.5	74.9	100.0
		Females	0.3	1.5	10.6	6.5	2.2	21.1	8.0	10.2	41.3	19.3	78.9	100.0
Bolivia	1997	Both sexes	0.8	9.5	2.0	2.0	2.1	16.3	12.4	15.5	43.5	12.2	83.7	100.0
		Males	0.6	7.5	1.8	2.5	1.9	14.3	13.5	16.9	42.7	12.5	85.7	100.0
		Females	1.0	11.3	2.2	1.5	2.3	18.2	11.3	14.2	44.3	11.9	81.8	100.0
Brazil b/	1999	Both sexes	2.1	16.7	3.7	1.8	24.3	26.3	12.1	27.4	9.9	75.7	100.0	
		Males	2.6	17.6	3.7	1.7	25.6	30.0	12.3	24.0	8.1	74.4	100.0	
		Females	1.6	15.9	3.6	1.9	23.0	22.6	11.9	30.7	11.8	77.0	100.0	
Chile	2000	Both sexes	0.2	3.7	3.3	2.9	4.1	14.2	7.0	13.1	48.9	16.7	85.8	100.0
		Males	0.1	4.4	3.3	2.8	3.4	14.0	8.5	14.2	47.4	15.9	86.0	100.0
		Females	0.2	3.0	3.4	3.0	4.8	14.5	5.5	12.0	50.4	17.5	85.5	100.0
Colombia	1999	Both sexes	0.9	3.8	5.8	9.2	4.5	24.2	15.1	11.7	24.4	24.5	75.8	100.0
		Males	0.9	4.4	5.8	9.6	4.3	25.1	16.8	12.7	24.0	21.4	74.9	100.0
		Females	0.8	3.2	5.9	8.8	4.6	23.3	13.7	10.8	24.8	27.4	76.7	100.0
Costa Rica	1999	Both sexes	1.5	10.2	24.7	5.6	2.0	44.1	16.1	10.8	17.4	11.6	55.9	100.0
		Males	1.5	11.2	28.3	5.6	1.7	48.3	16.5	10.6	14.7	9.9	51.7	100.0
		Females	1.5	9.2	21.3	5.7	2.3	40.0	15.7	10.9	20.1	13.3	60.0	100.0
Ecuador	1999	Both sexes	1.1	3.3	14.4	8.1	2.0	28.9	8.7	7.7	36.7	18.1	71.1	100.0
		Males	1.0	3.9	14.3	9.0	1.7	29.8	9.7	8.2	35.0	17.3	70.2	100.0
		Females	1.1	2.8	14.6	7.2	2.4	28.0	7.7	7.2	38.2	18.8	72.0	100.0
El Salvador b/1999	1999	Both sexes	2.7	20.1	6.9	2.4	32.1	8.0	7.5	36.3	16.1	67.9	100.0	
		Males	2.9	19.7	6.9	1.6	31.1	9.8	7.6	36.4	15.1	68.9	100.0	
		Females	2.6	20.4	6.8	3.3	33.1	6.3	7.4	36.1	17.0	66.9	100.0	
Honduras	1999	Both sexes	2.4	10.5	27.8	4.9	2.5	48.1	11.3	7.6	21.9	11.0	51.9	100.0
		Males	2.8	11.8	30.6	4.4	2.3	51.9	10.9	6.7	21.8	8.8	48.1	100.0
		Females	2.0	9.2	25.2	5.5	2.7	44.6	11.8	8.6	22.0	13.0	55.4	100.0

Table 34 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 ACCORDING TO THEIR STATUS IN THE SCHOOL CYCLE, URBAN AREAS (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Status of studies										Total	
			School drop-outs					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter the educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Subtotal drop-outs	Students far behind	Students somewhat behind	Students at the appropriate level	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
Guatemala	1998	Both sexes	6.1	15.1	12.7	8.0	2.0	43.9	10.3	7.9	31.7	6.2	56.1	100.0
		Males	5.8	14.2	12.5	9.5	1.0	43.0	10.7	9.2	30.8	6.4	57.0	100.0
		Females	6.4	16.0	12.9	6.5	2.8	44.8	9.9	6.7	32.7	6.0	55.2	100.0
Mexico	2000	Both sexes	2.4	3.4	9.7	17.9	3.3	36.8	4.8	5.3	39.2	14.0	63.2	100.0
		Males	1.2	4.1	9.3	18.1	2.6	35.4	5.0	6.8	38.5	14.2	64.6	100.0
		Females	3.5	2.8	10.0	17.7	3.9	37.9	4.6	4.0	39.8	13.8	62.1	100.0
Nicaragua	1998	Both sexes	4.7	12.4	8.8	8.4	2.6	36.9	14.7	9.6	26.7	12.0	63.1	100.0
		Males	5.7	13.7	9.3	8.3	2.0	39.0	15.7	9.2	25.0	11.1	61.0	100.0
		Females	3.7	11.1	8.4	8.5	3.3	35.0	13.8	9.9	28.4	12.9	65.0	100.0
Panama	1999	Both sexes	0.7	2.9	8.3	12.1	1.9	25.9	9.4	8.5	38.8	17.4	74.1	100.0
		Males	0.5	2.9	8.8	13.9	1.9	28.0	11.1	9.8	36.5	14.6	72.0	100.0
		Females	0.9	2.8	7.7	10.4	2.0	23.8	7.8	7.1	41.2	20.2	76.2	100.0
Paraguay ^{c/}	1999	Both sexes	0.6	3.3	12.5	8.5	2.6	27.5	3.9	6.6	52.3	9.6	72.5	100.0
		Males	0.7	2.9	11.0	7.4	2.7	24.7	4.3	5.5	57.8	7.6	75.3	100.0
		Females	0.6	3.7	13.8	9.4	2.5	30.0	3.6	7.5	47.7	11.3	70.0	100.0
Paraguay	1999	Both sexes	1.1	5.9	14.9	8.4	2.5	32.7	5.1	6.9	46.6	8.6	67.3	100.0
		Males	1.3	5.7	14.6	8.0	2.6	32.2	4.5	7.4	50.1	5.9	67.8	100.0
		Females	0.9	6.0	15.0	8.8	2.3	33.0	5.7	6.6	43.9	10.8	67.0	100.0
Peru	1999	Both sexes	0.1	1.7	3.7	6.3	4.4	16.1	11.0	10.4	29.4	33.2	83.9	100.0
		Males	0.0	1.3	3.3	6.3	5.8	16.7	11.1	9.8	29.5	33.0	83.3	100.0
		Females	0.1	2.0	4.0	6.3	3.1	15.6	10.9	10.9	29.2	33.4	84.4	100.0
Dominican Republic	1997	Both sexes	3.2	11.9	3.5	1.3	2.0	21.9	23.1	10.6	36.5	7.9	78.1	100.0
		Males	3.9	13.3	4.1	1.7	2.6	25.7	26.3	11.3	31.3	5.4	74.3	100.0
		Females	2.6	10.8	3.1	1.0	1.5	18.9	20.7	10.0	40.5	9.9	81.1	100.0
Uruguay	1999	Both sexes	0.2	2.4	11.8	16.2	3.2	33.8	9.7	7.5	28.6	20.4	66.2	100.0
		Males	0.2	2.8	13.3	18.5	3.5	38.4	11.2	7.9	26.1	16.4	61.7	100.0
		Females	0.2	2.0	10.2	13.8	2.8	29.1	8.2	6.9	31.3	24.5	70.9	100.0
Venezuela ^{d/}	1999	Both sexes	1.9	29.5	3.3	1.0		35.7	13.9	8.4	21.1	21.0	64.3	100.0
		Males	2.2	34.6	2.7	0.8		40.3	14.7	8.6	18.6	17.7	59.7	100.0
		Females	1.5	24.3	3.9	1.3		30.9	13.0	8.1	23.6	24.4	69.1	100.0
Simple average ^{e/}	1999	Both sexes	1.8	8.0	10.2	7.2	2.7	29.6	11.9	9.6	33.7	15.1	70.4	100.0
		Males	1.9	8.3	10.8	7.5	2.5	30.8	13.1	10.2	32.4	13.6	69.2	100.0
		Females	1.7	7.7	9.7	6.9	2.8	28.5	10.8	9.1	35.0	16.6	71.5	100.0

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ This country has a secondary cycle of only three years, and the category "drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle" is therefore included in "drop-outs at end of secondary cycle".

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

d/ This country has a secondary cycle of only two years, and the category "drop-outs at end of secondary cycle" is therefore restricted to those dropping out one year before completing the secondary cycle.

e/ Excludes Venezuela and includes the urban total for Argentina and Paraguay.

Table 35

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 ACCORDING TO THEIR STATUS IN THE SCHOOL CYCLE, RURAL AREAS (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Status of studies										Total	
			School drop-outs					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter the educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Subtotal drop-outs	Students far behind	Students somewhat behind	Students at the appropriate level	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
Bolivia	1997	Both sexes	4.2	44.4	4.9	2.0	3.5	59.1	14.6	9.1	15.2	2.0	40.9	100.0
		Males	2.4	40.1	3.8	2.3	4.9	53.4	15.5	13.4	15.3	2.3	46.6	100.0
		Females	6.1	49.0	6.0	1.8	2.0	65.0	13.7	4.7	15.1	1.6	35.0	100.0
Brazil a/	1999	Both sexes	6.3	29.9	2.7	0.7		39.6	38.8	6.9	11.8	2.7	60.4	100.0
		Males	7.9	28.9	2.2	0.5		39.4	42.6	6.5	9.5	2.0	60.6	100.0
		Females	4.7	31.0	3.3	0.8		39.9	34.7	7.4	14.5	3.6	60.1	100.0
Chile	2000	Both sexes	0.6	13.9	10.1	3.4	4.3	32.3	10.0	12.3	36.3	9.1	67.7	100.0
		Males	0.8	14.4	10.3	3.5	4.8	33.8	12.4	13.1	33.1	7.6	66.2	100.0
		Females	0.4	13.4	9.8	3.3	3.7	30.6	7.5	11.4	39.7	10.7	69.4	100.0
Colombia	1999	Both sexes	4.0	15.7	16.8	9.2	2.1	47.8	21.8	9.7	12.6	8.2	52.2	100.0
		Males	4.4	17.7	18.4	8.2	1.9	50.7	23.8	9.3	10.3	5.9	49.3	100.0
		Females	3.5	13.6	14.9	10.3	2.2	44.5	19.7	10.0	15.1	10.7	55.5	100.0
Costa Rica	1999	Both sexes	0.8	6.4	15.7	6.1	1.7	30.7	18.1	13.6	22.0	15.6	69.3	100.0
		Males	1.0	6.8	18.9	6.1	1.4	34.3	19.7	13.5	19.2	13.4	65.7	100.0
		Females	0.5	6.0	12.9	6.2	2.0	27.6	16.7	13.6	24.5	17.5	72.4	100.0
El Salvador a/	1999	Both sexes	10.8	44.4	6.0	0.9		62.0	12.4	7.0	15.8	2.7	38.0	100.0
		Males	10.9	40.2	5.7	0.8		57.6	16.1	8.2	15.4	2.7	42.4	100.0
		Females	10.7	48.8	6.2	1.0		66.7	8.6	5.8	16.2	2.7	33.3	100.0
Honduras	1999	Both sexes	10.2	27.8	35.3	3.1	1.9	78.1	9.7	4.0	6.0	2.2	21.9	100.0
		Males	12.3	27.3	36.8	2.3	1.6	80.3	9.5	3.1	5.2	1.9	19.7	100.0
		Females	7.7	28.3	33.6	3.9	2.1	75.6	9.9	5.1	6.9	2.5	24.4	100.0
Guatemala	1998	Both sexes	24.0	34.6	19.0	3.7	0.1	81.5	9.7	3.0	5.4	0.5	18.5	100.0
		Males	18.8	33.8	22.7	3.1	0.0	78.4	11.5	2.7	6.8	0.6	21.6	100.0
		Females	29.5	35.3	15.3	4.3	0.2	84.6	7.7	3.2	4.0	0.4	15.4	100.0
Mexico	2000	Both sexes	2.9	11.8	20.9	24.1	1.3	60.9	6.7	6.1	19.7	6.5	39.1	100.0
		Males	2.8	12.0	20.6	24.0	1.1	60.5	7.7	6.6	19.9	5.4	39.5	100.0
		Females	3.0	11.6	21.2	24.2	1.5	61.4	5.7	5.7	19.5	7.7	38.6	100.0
Nicaragua	1998	Both sexes	21.7	32.6	13.6	5.1	0.9	73.9	12.2	3.9	8.8	1.3	26.1	100.0
		Males	23.1	34.2	14.0	4.0	1.5	76.8	14.6	2.9	4.9	0.8	23.2	100.0
		Females	20.2	31.0	13.2	6.1	0.3	70.9	9.7	4.9	12.7	1.7	29.1	100.0

Table 35 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (14 COUNTRIES): YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 ACCORDING TO THEIR STATUS IN THE SCHOOL CYCLE, RURAL AREAS (Percentages)														
Country	Year	Sex	Status of studies										Total	
			School drop-outs					Students and graduates						
			Did not enter the educational system	Early drop-outs (during primary cycle)	Drop-outs at end of primary cycle	Drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle	Drop-outs at end of secondary cycle	Subtotal drop-outs	Students far behind	Students somewhat behind	Students at the appropriate level	Graduates		Subtotal students and graduates
Panama	1999	Both sexes	1.8	7.4	23.2	9.2	1.4	43.1	10.6	7.4	29.6	9.3	56.9	100.0
		Males	1.8	8.8	26.4	9.4	1.4	47.8	14.6	7.2	23.0	7.4	52.2	100.0
		Females	1.8	5.7	19.5	9.1	1.6	37.6	6.0	7.6	37.3	11.4	62.4	100.0
Paraguay	1999	Both sexes	2.8	19.3	28.4	6.5	0.5	57.4	8.2	7.7	24.6	2.0	42.6	100.0
		Males	1.9	22.3	26.8	7.2	0.8	58.9	10.0	6.9	22.8	1.4	41.1	100.0
		Females	3.8	15.8	30.2	5.7	0.1	55.7	6.2	8.6	26.7	2.8	44.3	100.0
Peru	1999	Both sexes	2.2	17.9	16.5	6.2	3.5	46.3	19.7	8.7	16.4	8.9	53.7	100.0
		Males	0.7	11.8	17.2	8.8	3.4	41.9	21.3	8.3	17.4	11.1	58.1	100.0
		Females	3.7	24.4	15.8	3.5	3.5	50.8	18.0	9.1	15.4	6.7	49.2	100.0
Dominican Republic	1997	Both sexes	8.8	22.4	1.6	0.7	0.9	34.4	29.2	11.3	22.2	2.9	65.6	100.0
		Males	7.8	23.3	1.4	0.4	0.7	33.6	36.4	8.8	18.0	3.2	66.4	100.0
		Females	9.9	21.3	1.8	1.1	1.1	35.3	21.3	14.0	26.8	2.6	64.7	100.0
Simple average	1999	Both sexes	7.2	23.5	15.3	5.8	1.7	53.4	15.8	7.9	17.6	5.3	46.6	100.0
		Males	6.9	23.0	16.1	5.8	1.8	53.4	18.3	7.9	15.8	4.7	46.6	100.0
		Females	7.5	23.9	14.5	5.8	1.6	53.3	13.2	7.9	19.6	5.9	46.7	100.0

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

a/ This country has a secondary cycle of only three years, and the category "drop-outs at beginning of secondary cycle" is therefore included in "drop-outs at end of secondary cycle".

Table 36

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): GLOBAL DROP-OUT RATE FOR YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	National			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/	1990	36	38	33
	1999	23	24	21
Argentina	1999	23	25	21
Bolivia b/	1989	17	13	20
	1997	9	7	11
Bolivia	1997	28	26	31	16	14	17	57	52	63
Brazil	1990	46	49	43	40	43	37	65	67	62
	1999	25	26	25	23	24	22	36	34	37
Chile	1990	27	27	28	21	20	21	56	57	56
	2000	17	17	17	14	14	14	32	33	30
Colombia	1991	43	45	40	30	30	30	59	63	55
	1999	32	34	30	24	24	23	46	49	43
Costa Rica	1990	53	53	53	33	32	34	69	69	68
	1999	43	48	39	30	34	27	55	59	51
Ecuador	1990	24	28	21
	1999	28	29	27
El Salvador	1995	45	44	46	32	31	34	63	61	65
	1999	42	39	44	30	29	31	57	53	63
Honduras	1990	66	69	63	49	52	46	81	84	79
	1999	61	65	58	47	51	44	76	78	74
Guatemala	1998	59	59	60	40	40	41	76	73	78
Mexico	2000	45	45	45	35	35	36	60	59	60
Nicaragua	1993	44	43	45	32	31	33	65	63	67
	1998	47	50	45	34	35	33	67	70	64
Panama	1991	35	39	32	28	31	26	53	58	48
	1999	30	33	27	25	28	23	42	47	37
Paraguay c/	1994	34	26	41
	1999	27	24	30
Paraguay	1994	40	36	43
	1999	43	45	41	32	31	33	56	58	54
Peru	1999	26	26	27	16	17	16	45	42	49
Dominican Republic	1997	23	25	21	19	23	17	28	28	28
Uruguay	1990	37	41	32
	1999	34	38	29
Venezuela	1990	44	46	41	40	42	38	65	69	61
	1999	35	39	30
Simple average d/	1990	45	46	43	32	33	31	64	65	62
	1999	37	39	35	27	28	26	51	53	50

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Eight departmental capitals and El Alto.

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

d/ The simple average refers to all countries that have comparable figures for both years. The average for the national total refers to Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama and Venezuela. The average for urban areas refers to Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay (urban total) and Uruguay. The average for rural areas refers to Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama.

Table 37

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): EARLY DROP-OUT RATE FOR YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	National			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/	1990	2	2	2
	1999	1	2	1
Argentina	1999	2	2	2
Bolivia b/	1989	10	7	13
	1997	6	3	8
Bolivia	1997	21	18	23	10	8	11	46	41	52
Brazil	1990	40	44	38	34	36	31	61	64	58
	1999	20	21	19	17	18	16	32	31	33
Chile	1990	11	12	10	7	7	6	30	32	28
	2000	5	6	5	4	4	3	14	15	14
Colombia	1991	16	18	13	7	8	7	26	30	22
	1999	9	10	7	4	5	3	16	19	14
Costa Rica	1990	12	13	11	5	5	4	18	19	16
	1999	10	11	9	6	7	6	14	15	13
Ecuador	1990	4	4	3
	1999	3	4	3
El Salvador	1995	37	36	38	23	22	24	56	54	58
	1999	33	31	35	21	20	21	50	45	55
Honduras	1990	27	30	25	15	16	15	38	42	35
	1999	21	22	20	11	12	9	31	31	31
Guatemala	1998	32	30	34	16	15	17	46	42	50
Mexico	2000	7	8	6	4	4	3	12	12	12
Nicaragua	1993	24	25	22	12	14	10	44	45	42
	1998	25	27	22	13	15	12	42	44	39
Panama	1991	6	7	5	4	5	3	11	13	9
	1999	4	5	4	3	3	3	8	9	6
Paraguay c/	1994	7	6	7
	1999	3	3	4
Paraguay	1994	12	13	12
	1999	12	14	10	6	6	6	20	23	17
Peru	1999	8	5	10	2	1	2	18	12	25
Dominican Republic	1997	17	19	16	12	14	11	25	25	24
Uruguay	1990	2	3	2
	1999	2	3	2
Venezuela	1990	36	40	31	32	35	28	61	66	55
	1999	30	35	25
Simple average d/	1990	23	25	21	11	11	10	35	37	34
	1999	17	19	16	7	8	7	26	26	25

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Eight departmental capitals and El Alto.

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

d/ The simple average refers to all countries that have comparable figures for both years. The average for the national total refers to Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama and Venezuela. The average for urban areas refers to Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay (urban total) and Uruguay. The average for rural areas refers to Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama.

Table 38

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DROP-OUT RATE AT THE END OF THE PRIMARY CYCLE FOR YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	National			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina <i>a/</i>	1990	20	20	20
	1999	12	14	10
Argentina	1999	12	14	11
Bolivia <i>b/</i>	1989	3	3	3
	1997	2	2	2
Bolivia	1997	4	3	4	2	2	2	10	7	13
Brazil	1990	7	7	6	7	7	6	7	8	7
	1999	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	3	5
Chile	1990	8	7	8	5	4	5	24	23	25
	2000	5	5	4	4	3	4	12	12	11
Colombia	1991	18	19	17	10	9	10	32	34	29
	1999	11	12	10	6	6	6	21	24	18
Costa Rica	1990	36	35	36	19	17	20	51	52	50
	1999	28	32	24	17	21	14	39	43	34
Ecuador	1990	12	14	10
	1999	15	15	15
El Salvador	1995	11	11	11	10	10	9	14	14	14
	1999	10	10	11	9	9	9	13	12	15
Honduras	1990	46	49	44	31	35	28	65	67	64
	1999	43	47	38	32	36	28	57	61	52
Guatemala	1998	29	31	27	16	16	17	46	48	43
Mexico	2000	16	15	16	10	10	11	24	24	25
Nicaragua	1993	16	17	15	12	14	11	25	25	26
	1998	17	18	15	11	12	10	30	33	27
Panama	1991	19	22	15	12	15	10	36	41	30
	1999	13	15	11	9	9	8	26	30	21
Paraguay <i>c/</i>	1994	15	7	20
	1999	13	11	14
Paraguay	1994	17	12	20
	1999	24	25	24	16	16	16	36	35	38
Peru	1999	9	9	9	4	3	4	21	20	22
Dominican Republic	1997	3	4	3	4	5	4	2	2	3
Uruguay	1990	13	14	12
	1999	12	14	10
Venezuela	1990	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	4	5
	1999	5	4	5
Simple average <i>d/</i>	1990	18	19	17	13	13	13	32	33	31
	1999	15	16	14	11	12	11	25	27	23

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Eight departmental capitals and El Alto.

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

d/ The simple average refers to all countries that have comparable figures for both years. The average for the national total refers to Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama and Venezuela. The average for urban areas refers to Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay (urban total) and Uruguay. The average for rural areas refers to Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama.

Table 39

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): DROP-OUT RATE IN THE SECONDARY CYCLE FOR YOUNG PEOPLE AGED 15 TO 19 (Percentages)										
Country	Year	National			Urban			Rural		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina a/	1990	17	20	15
	1999	10	10	11
Argentina	1999	10	10	10
Bolivia b/	1989	5	4	5
	1997	2	2	2
Bolivia	1997	6	7	5	5	5	4	12	13	10
Brazil	1990	3	2	3	3	3	3	1	2	1
	1999	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
Chile	1990	11	11	12	11	10	11	19	18	19
	2000	8	7	9	8	7	8	10	11	9
Colombia	1991	17	17	17	16	16	16	19	20	19
	1999	16	16	16	15	16	15	18	17	18
Costa Rica	1990	17	16	18	14	14	13	22	21	24
	1999	12	12	12	10	10	10	15	15	14
Ecuador	1990	11	13	9
	1999	12	13	12
El Salvador	1995	3	2	3	3	2	4	2	1	3
	1999	3	2	4	3	2	5	2	2	3
Honduras	1990	13	14	12	12	12	12	14	17	12
	1999	15	14	15	13	12	13	18	17	20
Guatemala	1998	16	15	17	15	16	15	17	13	23
Mexico	2000	30	29	30	25	24	26	39	39	40
Nicaragua	1993	13	8	18	12	7	16	17	10	23
	1998	16	16	16	15	14	15	19	19	18
Panama	1991	16	16	15	15	15	15	19	20	18
	1999	16	18	14	16	18	14	16	17	15
Paraguay c/	1994	18	15	20
	1999	13	12	15
Paraguay	1994	18	16	19
	1999	14	15	14	14	14	14	14	16	12
Peru	1999	12	14	11	11	13	10	15	17	13
Dominican Republic	1997	3	4	3	4	6	3	2	2	3
Uruguay	1990	25	30	21
	1999	23	26	19
Venezuela	1990	8	6	9	8	6	9	7	5	9
	1999	2	1	2
Simple average d/	1990	11	10	12	12	12	12	14	13	15
	1999	10	10	10	11	11	11	12	12	12

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

a/ Greater Buenos Aires.

b/ Eight departmental capitals and El Alto.

c/ Asunción and Departamento Central.

d/ The simple average refers to all countries that have comparable figures for both years. The average for the national total refers to Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama and Venezuela. The average for urban areas refers to Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires), Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay (urban total) and Uruguay. The average for rural areas refers to Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama.

Table 40

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) ^{a/} OF 15 TO 24 YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		CEMIT average			CEMIT average		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	5.1	5.3	4.8
	1990	2.7	2.6	2.7
	1994	5.2	5.2	5.2
	1999	4.1	3.9	4.4
Bolivia	1989	2.4	2.8	2.0
	1994	2.0	2.3	1.6
	1999	2.4	2.6	2.1	2.1	2.3	1.3
Brazil	1979	2.8	3.1	2.2	1.8	2.0	1.5
	1990	2.3	2.5	2.0	2.1	2.2	1.7
	1993	2.3	2.5	2.1	1.8	1.9	1.5
	1999	2.4	2.6	2.3	2.0	2.1	1.8
Chile	1990	2.2	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.3
	1994	3.1	3.3	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.7
	1998	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.2
	2000	3.5	3.6	3.2	3.5	3.5	3.4
Colombia ^{b/}	1980	2.2	2.3	2.2
	1990	2.3	2.3	2.2
	1991	1.8	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.4	1.7
	1994	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.7
	1999	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.8	2.9	2.4
Costa Rica	1981	3.8	3.7	4.0	3.3	3.4	2.8
	1990	3.5	3.6	3.4	4.2	4.3	3.6
	1994	3.6	3.7	3.4	4.2	4.4	3.7
	1999	3.9	3.9	3.9	4.5	4.6	4.4
Ecuador	1990	2.2	2.3	2.0
	1994	2.1	2.3	1.9
	1999	1.7	1.8	1.7
El Salvador	1997	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.4
	1999	2.8	2.9	2.5	3.1	3.2	2.9
Guatemala	1989	2.3	2.5	2.1	2.2	2.2	1.9
	1998	2.0	2.1	2.0	1.5	1.6	1.1
Honduras	1990	1.6	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
	1994	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.7	1.7	1.5
	1999	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.7
Mexico	1984	3.2	3.1	3.3	2.6	2.6	2.8
	1989	2.4	2.6	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.7
	1994	2.0	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.2	1.6
	1998	1.7	1.4	2.1	1.1	1.0	1.5
	2000	2.1	2.2	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.7
Nicaragua	1993	2.6	2.4	2.8	2.3	2.2	2.9
	1998	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.8

Table 40 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) ^{a/} OF 15 TO 24 YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2000 (Averages)							
Country	Year	Urban areas			Rural areas		
		CEMIT average			CEMIT average		
		Both sexes	Males	Females	Both sexes	Males	Females
Panama	1979	3.9	4.3	3.4	4.1	3.9	4.7
	1991	2.8	3.1	2.3	2.8	3.0	2.1
	1994	2.8	2.9	2.4	2.7	2.8	2.4
	1999	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.2	3.2	3.1
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	1.4	1.7	1.1
	1990	1.6	1.9	1.2
	1994	2.1	2.4	1.8
	1999	1.6	1.5	1.8
Peru	1997	2.1	2.3	2.0	1.9	2.0	1.7
	1999	2.1	2.2	2.0	1.8	1.9	1.3
Dominican Republic	1997	3.2	3.1	3.3	4.0	4.2	3.5
Uruguay	1981	3.1	3.3	2.8
	1990	2.3	2.4	2.1
	1994	2.8	2.9	2.7
	1999	3.2	3.3	3.0
Venezuela ^{c/}	1981	5.7	5.9	5.3	5.9	6.0	5.3
	1990	3.3	3.4	2.9	3.2	3.3	2.9
	1994	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.8	3.0	2.2
	1999	2.6	2.6	2.6

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

- a/ CEMIT represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per hour worked, expressed as multiples of the poverty line. Does not include unpaid family workers.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 41

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) a/ OF 25 TO 59 YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980–2000 (Averages)											
Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		CEMIT average					CEMIT average				
		Total	0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more	Total	0–5	6–9	10–12	13 or more
Argentina (Greater Buenos Aires)	1980	9.0	5.7	7.4	12.2	16.3
	1990	4.6	2.9	3.4	4.6	7.9
	1994	9.7	6.0	6.8	10.0	16.4
	1999	7.6	4.2	4.6	7.2	12.6
Bolivia	1989	4.8	3.2	3.6	4.7	7.6
	1994	4.6	2.5	3.2	4.0	8.4
	1999	4.0	2.4	2.7	3.7	6.5	1.7	1.2	2.1	3.1	6.4
Brazil	1979	7.0	4.2	7.4	10.8	20.7	3.1	2.9	6.6	9.6	11.0
	1990	5.7	3.0	4.5	7.1	15.2	3.4	2.9	5.3	7.2	16.8
	1993	5.7	2.9	4.4	7.1	15.8	3.3	2.7	5.4	7.1	17.5
	1999	5.6	2.8	3.9	6.2	14.8	3.2	2.4	4.0	6.4	18.1
Chile	1990	4.1	2.1	2.4	3.2	7.5	3.3	2.5	2.6	3.7	8.8
	1994	6.5	3.2	3.5	5.1	12.1	4.6	3.0	3.4	5.3	15.9
	1998	7.9	3.3	4.0	6.0	14.3	5.5	3.9	4.1	7.7	16.1
	2000	7.9	3.2	3.8	5.4	14.7	5.2	3.7	4.3	6.2	15.3
Colombia b/	1980	4.6	2.3	3.7	5.9	12.3
	1990	4.3	2.3	3.0	4.6	8.6
	1991	3.1	1.9	2.4	3.3	5.8	3.7	3.0	4.7	6.4	10.1
	1994	4.1	2.1	2.7	4.1	8.9	2.9	2.4	3.1	4.2	8.2
	1999	3.6	1.9	2.1	3.4	7.6	3.4	2.6	3.4	5.1	8.5
Costa Rica	1981	7.8	5.2	6.1	8.8	13.9	8.0	7.1	7.5	11.4	18.3
	1990	5.7	3.2	4.0	5.9	9.4	5.9	4.9	5.4	7.4	11.6
	1994	6.3	3.6	4.3	6.2	10.1	6.5	5.2	5.8	8.0	13.7
	1999	6.4	3.4	4.3	6.2	10.3	7.0	5.2	6.1	8.2	14.1
Ecuador	1990	3.5	2.1	2.7	3.8	5.7
	1994	3.4	1.8	2.4	3.5	5.2
	1999	3.5	1.6	2.0	3.2	6.0
El Salvador	1997	4.8	2.2	3.3	5.7	9.9	3.2	2.8	4.9	2.9	13.8
	1999	5.2	2.8	3.7	5.3	10.1	4.4	4.0	4.8	5.7	10.9
Guatemala	1989	4.4	2.6	3.8	6.3	10.5	3.4	3.1	4.6	8.5	15.9
	1998	4.1	2.2	3.0	5.8	9.4	3.3	2.8	5.1	6.3	14.1
Honduras	1990	3.4	1.6	2.5	5.2	10.0	2.3	1.9	3.3	7.4	8.4
	1994	2.6	1.4	1.8	3.1	7.0	2.7	2.0	3.7	5.2	6.6
	1999	2.9	1.5	2.1	3.5	6.6	2.5	2.0	2.5	7.1	6.0
Mexico	1984	5.4	2.4	4.6	6.4	8.8	4.0	2.5	3.9	8.0	10.6
	1989	4.8	3.1	3.8	5.8	8.8	3.7	3.0	4.5	6.0	7.9
	1994	5.1	2.3	3.6	5.8	10.1	3.4	2.6	3.8	6.3	8.8
	1998	5.8	1.9	3.3	5.4	12.0	3.8	2.1	3.1	26.0	10.2
	2000	4.8	2.3	3.1	4.6	9.6	4.4	2.4	3.5	6.7	17.6
Nicaragua	1993	3.7	2.8	3.4	4.0	6.9	2.7	2.3	3.7	4.6	9.1
	1998	4.0	2.0	3.1	4.0	9.6	2.9	2.2	3.6	4.2	8.5
Panama	1979	7.0	3.8	5.0	8.0	13.2	4.7	3.4	5.1	8.6	14.3
	1991	6.5	3.3	4.1	5.9	10.7	6.1	3.8	5.1	7.5	12.2
	1994	6.2	3.4	3.8	5.7	10.3	5.4	3.4	4.7	6.7	10.1
	1999	6.7	3.1	3.9	6.1	10.8	5.8	3.4	4.4	7.1	11.6

Table 41 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (18 COUNTRIES): MONTHLY LABOUR INCOME CAPACITY EQUIVALENT (CEMIT) ^{a/} OF 25 TO 59 YEAR-OLDS WHO WORK 20 HOURS OR MORE PER WEEK, BY YEARS OF SCHOOLING, URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, 1980-2000 (Averages)											
Country	Year	Urban areas					Rural areas				
		CEMIT average					CEMIT average				
		Total	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more	Total	0 - 5	6 - 9	10 - 12	13 or more
Paraguay (Asunción)	1986	3.7	1.5	2.3	4.1	7.4
	1990	3.7	2.0	2.7	4.0	7.1
	1994	4.0	1.9	2.7	4.1	8.3
	1999	4.7	1.9	4.8	3.4	9.5
Peru	1997	3.6	2.2	2.6	3.3	5.6	2.4	2.0	2.8	3.3	5.9
	1999	3.6	2.0	2.2	2.9	5.6	2.3	1.9	2.0	3.6	4.7
Dominican Republic	1997	5.2	3.5	4.4	5.1	9.0	5.2	4.6	5.6	6.1	8.8
Uruguay	1981	6.3	4.3	5.4	7.2	12.1
	1990	4.3	2.8	3.4	5.0	6.8
	1994	5.3	3.4	4.1	5.9	8.8
	1999	6.0	3.7	4.4	6.5	10.2
Venezuela ^{c/}	1981	9.1	6.1	8.1	11.4	17.8	7.4	6.2	9.3	14.2	23.3
	1990	5.4	3.9	4.6	5.8	8.5	5.1	4.4	5.8	6.8	9.4
	1994	4.3	3.1	3.7	4.5	6.7	4.1	3.5	4.6	4.7	7.1
	1999	4.3	2.7	3.5	4.4	7.2

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

- a/ CEMIT represents monthly income calculated on the basis of value per hour worked, expressed as multiples of the poverty line. Does not include unpaid family workers.
- b/ As of 1993, the geographical coverage of the survey was extended to nearly the entire urban population of the country. Up to 1992, the survey covered approximately half the urban population, with the exception of 1991, when a nationwide survey was conducted. Therefore, the figures for 1980 and 1990 refer to eight major cities only.
- c/ The design of the sample used in surveys conducted since 1997 does not provide for urban/rural disaggregation, and the figures therefore refer to the national total.

Table 42

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING INDICATORS, a/								
1990–1991 AND 1998–1999								
Country and coverage c/	Period	Public social spending			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending b/		
		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As percentage of GDP	As percentage of total public spending		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As percentage of GDP	As percentage of total public spending
Argentina d/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	1211	17.7	62.2	1990/1991–1994/1995	30.7	3.3	3.1
	1994/1995	1583	21.0	65.3	1994/1995–1998/1999	6.6	-0.5	-1.7
	1998/1999	1687	20.5	63.6	1990/1991–1998/1999	39.4	2.8	1.4
Bolivia (GG)	1990/1991	1990/1991–1994/1995
	1994/1995	121	12.4	49.4	1994/1995–1998/1999	38.4	3.7	7.1
	1998/1999	168	16.1	56.5	1990/1991–1998/1999
Brazil e/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	786	18.1	48.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	18.6	1.9	11.2
	1994/1995	932	20.0	60.0	1994/1995–1998/1999	8.5	1.0	0.4
	1998/1999	1011	21.0	60.4	1990/1991–1998/1999	28.6	2.9	11.6
Chile (CG)	1990/1991	440	13.0	60.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	35.7	0.6	3.9
	1994/1995	597	13.6	64.7	1994/1995–1998/1999	38.6	2.4	2.1
	1998/1999	827	16.0	66.8	1990/1991–1998/1999	88.2	3.0	6.0
Colombia (NFPS)	1990/1991	158	8.0	28.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	88.0	3.5	11.1
	1994/1995	297	11.5	39.9	1994/1995–1998/1999	28.3	3.5	-4.4
	1998/1999	381	15.0	35.5	1990/1991–1998/1999	141.1	7.0	6.7
Costa Rica (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	476	15.7	38.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	12.6	0.3	-0.6
	1994/1995	536	16.0	38.3	1994/1995–1998/1999	16.2	0.8	4.8
	1998/1999	622	16.8	43.1	1990/1991–1998/1999	30.8	1.1	4.2
El Salvador (CG)	1990/1991	1990/1991–1994/1995
	1994/1995	60	3.3	21.3	1994/1995–1998/1999	37.8	1.0	5.7
	1998/1999	82	4.3	27.0	1990/1991–1998/1999
Guatemala (CG)	1990/1991	52	3.4	29.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	27.2	0.7	8.7
	1994/1995	66	4.1	38.5	1994/1995–1998/1999	63.4	2.1	7.7
	1998/1999	107	6.2	46.2	1990/1991–1998/1999	107.8	2.8	16.4
Honduras (CG)	1990/1991	60	7.9	36.5	1990/1991–1994/1995	-0.8	-0.2	-3.8
	1994/1995	59	7.7	32.7	1994/1995–1998/1999	-3.4	-0.3	1.6
	1998/1999	57	7.4	34.3	1990/1991–1998/1999	-4.2	-0.5	-2.2
Mexico (Public sector budget)	1990/1991	259	6.5	40.8	1990/1991–1994/1995	38.0	2.3	11.6
	1994/1995	358	8.8	52.4	1994/1995–1998/1999	12.4	0.3	6.1
	1998/1999	402	9.1	58.5	1990/1991–1998/1999	55.2	2.6	17.7
Nicaragua (CG budget)	1990/1991	48	10.8	35.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	8.4	1.8	5.5
	1994/1995	52	12.6	40.9	1994/1995–1998/1999	10.7	0.1	-3.9
	1998/1999	57	12.7	37.0	1990/1991–1998/1999	20.0	1.9	1.6
Panama (NFPS)	1990/1991	497	18.6	40.0	1990/1991–1994/1995	22.0	1.2	3.2
	1994/1995	606	19.8	43.2	1994/1995–1998/1999	5.9	-0.4	-4.7
	1998/1999	642	19.4	38.6	1990/1991–1998/1999	29.2	0.8	-1.5

Table 42 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING INDICATORS, a/								
1990–1991 AND 1998–1999								
Country and coverage c/	Period	Public social spending			Period	Percentage variations in public social spending b/		
		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As percentage of GDP	As percentage of total public spending		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As percentage of GDP	As percentage of total public spending
Paraguay (CG budget)	1990/1991	56	3.1	39.9	1990/1991–1994/1995	133.9	3.9	3.5
	1994/1995	131	7.0	43.4	1994/1995–1998/1999	0.4	0.5	2.8
	1998/1999	132	7.4	46.2	1990/1991–1998/1999	134.8	4.4	6.3
Peru (CG)	1990/1991	69	3.3	31.1	1990/1991–1994/1995	104.4	2.5	3.7
	1994/1995	140	5.8	34.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	37.1	1.1	3.6
	1998/1999	192	6.8	38.3	1990/1991–1998/1999	180.3	3.5	7.2
Dominican Republic (CG)	1990/1991	64	4.3	38.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	56.3	1.8	2.8
	1994/1995	100	6.1	41.2	1994/1995–1998/1999	34.5	0.5	-1.5
	1998/1999	135	6.6	39.7	1990/1991–1998/1999	110.2	2.3	1.3
Uruguay (CG)	1990/1991	888	16.8	62.4	1990/1991–1994/1995	40.5	3.5	8.5
	1994/1995	1248	20.3	70.8	1994/1995–1998/1999	23.3	2.5	1.7
	1998/1999	1539	22.8	72.5	1990/1991–1998/1999	73.3	6.0	10.1
Venezuela (CG)	1990/1991	337	9.0	34.0	1990/1991–1994/1995	-14.9	-1.4	1.3
	1994/1995	287	7.6	35.3	1994/1995–1998/1999	9.2	1.1	2.0
	1998/1999	313	8.6	37.3	1990/1991–1998/1999	-7.0	-0.4	3.3

Source: ECLAC, database on social spending, Social Development Division.

a/ Includes public spending on education, health and nutrition, social security, employment and social assistance, and housing and sewerage systems.

b/ The last two columns show the differences between the percentages for the final period and the initial period.

c/ NFPS: non-financial public sector; GG: general government; CG: central government.

d/ Includes expenditure of the national government, the provincial governments and the Central Government of Buenos Aires, and also the municipal governments.

e/ Estimate of consolidated social spending, including federal, state and municipal expenditure.

Table 43

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS FOR PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION AND HEALTH, 1990–1991 AND 1998–1999							
Country and coverage a/	Period	Public social spending on education			Public social spending on health		
		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As percentage of GDP	As percentage of total public spending	Per capita (1997 dollars)	As percentage of GDP	As percentage of total public spending
Argentina b/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	226	3.3	11.6	271	4.0	14.0
	1994/1995	318	4.2	13.1	373	5.0	15.4
	1998/1999	383	4.7	14.4	380	4.6	14.3
Bolivia (GG)	1990/1991
	1994/1995	52	5.3	21.1	31	3.1	12.5
	1998/1999	62	6.0	20.9	34	3.3	11.4
Brazil c/ (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	162	3.7	9.9	156	3.6	9.6
	1994/1995	226	4.9	14.6	158	3.4	10.2
	1998/1999	187	3.9	11.2	163	3.4	9.7
Chile (CG)	1990/1991	87	2.6	12.0	70	2.1	9.6
	1994/1995	129	2.9	13.9	108	2.5	11.8
	1998/1999	202	3.9	16.3	145	2.8	11.7
Colombia (NFPS)	1990/1991	63	3.2	11.5	23	1.2	4.2
	1994/1995	86	3.4	11.6	75	2.9	10.1
	1998/1999	120	4.7	11.2	104	4.1	9.7
Costa Rica (Consolidated NFPS)	1990/1991	115	3.8	9.4	150	5.0	12.3
	1994/1995	136	4.1	9.8	159	4.7	11.4
	1998/1999	163	4.4	11.3	181	4.9	12.5
El Salvador (CG)	1990/1991
	1994/1995	35	2.0	12.6	23	1.3	8.3
	1998/1999	52	2.7	17.0	29	1.5	9.4
Guatemala (CG)	1990/1991	25	1.6	14.3	14	0.9	8.1
	1994/1995	29	1.8	16.6	15	0.9	8.8
	1998/1999	40	2.3	17.3	22	1.3	9.6
Honduras (CG)	1990/1991	32	4.3	19.9	20	2.6	12.0
	1994/1995	31	4.1	17.2	21	2.8	11.7
	1998/1999	32	4.1	18.9	16	2.0	9.4
Mexico (Public sector budget)	1990/1991	104	2.6	16.4	118	3.0	18.6
	1994/1995	157	3.8	23.0	96	2.4	14.0
	1998/1999	167	3.8	24.4	93	2.1	13.5
Nicaragua (CG budget)	1990/1991	22	5.0	16.3	20	4.6	15.0
	1994/1995	20	4.9	15.8	20	4.7	15.2
	1998/1999	26	5.7	16.7	20	4.5	13.2
Panama (NFPS)	1990/1991	125	4.7	10.2	164	6.1	13.3
	1994/1995	151	5.0	10.8	204	6.7	14.5
	1998/1999	198	6.0	11.9	223	6.8	13.5

Table 43 (concluded)

LATIN AMERICA (17 COUNTRIES): INDICATORS FOR PUBLIC SOCIAL SPENDING ON EDUCATION AND HEALTH, 1990–1991 AND 1998–1999							
Country and coverage ^{a/}	Period	Public social spending on education			Public social spending on health		
		Per capita (1997 dollars)	As percentage of GDP	As percentage of total public spending	Per capita (1997 dollars)	As percentage of GDP	As percentage of total public spending
Paraguay (CG budget)	1990/1991	22	1.2	15.8	6	0.3	3.8
	1994/1995	61	3.2	20.0	20	1.1	6.7
	1998/1999	66	3.7	23.0	19	1.1	6.5
Peru (CG)	1990/1991	28	1.3	12.7	15	0.7	6.8
	1994/1995	56	2.3	13.9	27	1.1	6.5
	1998/1999	62	2.2	12.3	38	1.3	7.5
Dominican Republic (CG)	1990/1991	18	1.2	10.5	15	1.0	8.7
	1994/1995	34	2.1	13.9	21	1.3	8.7
	1998/1999	57	2.8	16.9	31	1.5	9.0
Uruguay (CG)	1990/1991	130	2.5	9.1	154	2.9	10.8
	1994/1995	151	2.5	8.6	212	3.5	12.1
	1998/1999	218	3.3	10.3	187	2.8	8.8
Venezuela (CG)	1990/1991	129	3.5	13.1	57	1.6	5.8
	1994/1995	139	3.7	17.1	41	1.1	5.0
	1998/1999	140	3.8	16.7	49	1.4	5.9

Source: ECLAC, database on social spending, Social Development Division.

a/ NFPS: non-financial public sector; GG: general government; CG: central government.

b/ Includes expenditure of the national government, the provincial governments and the Central Government of Buenos Aires, and the municipal governments.

c/ Estimate of consolidated social spending, including federal, state and municipal expenditure.