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Facultad Latinoamericana
de Ciencias Sociales

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**LATIN AMERICAN
WOMEN
COMPARED
FIGURES**

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Latin American Women. Compared Figures

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FOREWORD

I am very pleased to present this Comparative Volume that forms part of the series on "Latin American Women in Numbers". It signals the completion of a vast process of data collection dealing with eight different subjects on the situation of Latin American women. For the first time a systematic and complete panorama of the women of this Continent is now available.

The study, conducted by FLACSO in collaboration with the Instituto de la Mujer (Spain) will fill a void in terms of information on the actual situation of women in the 19 Latin American countries. It is therefore destined to turn into a vital source of reference for all organizations, institutions and people who are committed to improving the status of Latin American women.

Through this Comparative Volume, which will undoubtedly be a valuable contribution to the Fourth World Conference on Women to be held in Beijing this coming September, the Instituto de la Mujer (Women's Institute, Spain) has achieved the aim it set out to accomplish: to help raise the profile of women in the region and to make available accurate information on their situation.

The information included in this volume has, in addition, allowed us to identify those situations that Latin American and Spanish women have in common.

I wish to express my satisfaction at the warm welcome extended to the collection by International Organizations, National Agencies for Equality, Non-Governmental Organizations and academic spheres.

The project "Latin American Women in Numbers" is a sizeable initiative in the field of Cooperation for Development, an area in which Latin America continues to be an action priority as far as Spain's cooperation policy is concerned.

We know that cooperation and mutual understanding are essential to discover what we have in common and also to exchange information on the differences that form the basis of women's cultural wealth.



Marina Subirats
Directora
Instituto de la Mujer
Ministerio de Asuntos Sociales de España

Madrid, July, 1995.

INTRODUCTION



Latin American Women. Compared Figures is the final result of the first systematic attempt to make available an integral picture of the situation of Latin American women, in comparison to that of men. This is a multivariied Continent in terms of colors and geographies although it is crossed by painful political, social, ethnic, cultural and economic conflicts.

Women's subordinate status, which has been amply discussed all over the world and which has been the reason for women's struggles for a long time, has its own peculiar features and deep roots in Latin America. These are linked to the way in which the region acquired its current configuration through the processes involved in the conquest, mixing of races, the colonial times and subsequent independence of the national States. The way that society has forged different "ways of being" for women and men, and the codes that regulate their relationships, are rooted in a combination of races -"us" and "the others"- the imprint of which determines the symbolic spaces and identities assigned to each gender. This game of identities courses through Latin American history and is made manifest in the discrimination and subordination of women and in the different actions of political and social protagonism carried out by women, particularly in recent decades.

Latin American women -and their lifestyles- have undergone deep changes in recent times. These include increased life expectancy, reduced average number of children, improved educational levels and decreased illiteracy rates, growing involvement in the labor market, improved health indicators and the use of modern contraceptives, larger numbers of women who are heads of households, among others. Nevertheless, large differences still persist from one country to another, and in each country among urban and rural areas, social sectors and ethnic groups. Although national averages sometimes create the image of countries that resemble European nations, a closer look based on the factors mentioned above -and others- reveals an image of polarities, heterogeneity and vast differences among women themselves.

So-called "modernization" has been an unequal experience in Latin America. The economic crises experienced in the past decades, particularly during the eighties, caused severe damage in the different countries. Governments reacted by making economic adjustments which helped to extend indigence, emphasized the differences between rich and poor and made it necessary to seek new ways to survive, a situation in which women participated in large numbers. Women have had to replace, to a significant extent, the role of the State in the provision of services and have shouldered the cost of economic crises by forming organizations and developing new survival strategies. On the other hand, the emergence of authoritarian or dictatorial regimes -with their attendant consequences of insecurity, repression, death and exile- affected the overall social and political situation and the collective action of women in particular. When these regimes were in power, women had to search for their relatives and defend human rights thereby actively helping to restore democracy.

Inequality, discrimination, "invisibility" and undervaluation of the contribution made by women to society are, therefore, situations that still exist -with similar features- in all Latin American countries. The gender system prevailing in the region, which serves to perpetuate existing inequalities between men and women, is reflected in the different indicators. Indeed, as the figures show, the contribution made by women to economic development and the different spheres of social life is not equally reflected in their presence in power spheres, even though there has been a discreetly sustained growth in their involvement there. Further down the social and economic scale, this situation gets worse, and the same applies to the case of indigenous women. Discrimination based on social class and race must therefore be added to traditional gender discrimination.

Women's access to the labor market is determined by the segmentation which develops already in the educational system, where sexist practices are reproduced. These are an early reinforcement of socialization procedures that relegate women to traditional "feminine" roles. Better educational levels among economically active women have not helped

to bridge the wage gap, nor have they improved the access of women to higher ranking jobs. Rather, the result of higher qualifications is that differences with men have become even more substantial. Furthermore, large female contingents have joined the informal labor market, that is noted for its instability, low wages and lack of social security.

Indicators on women's social and political participation fail to reflect -in proportion- their growing contribution to society. Political and institutional structures strongly resist the arrival of women. A rare occurrence is for three women to be members of the same Cabinet, their presence in Parliament exceptionally amounts to 22.8% (Cuba) and, in the Judicial branch of government, in almost half the countries, no woman has ever been appointed Minister to the Supreme Court of Justice.

Political parties seem to pose a solid barrier for women's access to representative positions and to government. Only new parties or those undergoing renewal have a significant number of women in leadership positions. A similar situation prevails in labor union related organizations.

This may appear to be a pessimistic outlook. Nevertheless, it is precisely in the action of women themselves where progress can be observed. The establishment of a collective social actor struggling to eliminate all forms of discrimination, to attain equal opportunities for women, fighting to overcome poverty and to have public policies drawn-up specifically for women, striving for respect for their human rights has gradually defined -year after year- a political agenda. On the other hand, in the framework of the action conducted by the United Nations, almost all the countries in the region have established a government agency or national mechanism for the advancement of women. With the participation of non-governmental organizations, women's social organizations, professionals and experts, and based on a debate with government agencies dedicated to women, the countries have promoted legislative amendments and have implemented programs, many of which explicitly include a gender approach and seek to enhance democracy.

Organized women have gradually penetrated, in different ways and degrees, the public debate in their corresponding countries; they are developing practices that anticipate changes for future generations. At the same time, the preparatory process for the Fourth World Conference of Women (Beijing, 1995) has made it possible to make significant headway in the coordination and convergence of groups of women towards a common proposal as a platform for action.

This book offers compared data on the nineteen countries in the region included in the project "Latin American Women in Numbers" thus bringing to its culmination the series of books published under the same title. The book is being published in English and Spanish at the same time in time for the United Nations Conference on Women to be held in Beijing.

This effort has been possible thanks to the acceptance, sensitivity and sponsorship of the authorities of the Instituto de la Mujer, attached to the Spanish Ministry of Social Affairs. Support was also provided by the United Nations Fund for the Advancement of Women, UNIFEM, the Latin American chapter of the United Nations Children's Fund, UNICEF, the Canadian International Development Agency, CIDA, and the Swedish International Development Authority, SIDA.

Coordinated by the Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales (FLACSO) from its headquarters in Chile, and with the involvement of a vast network of researchers (both male and female) throughout the region, the results of this project are a contribution to the institutions, organizations and individuals interested in improving the status of Latin American women and, especially, that of women themselves and their organizations.

LATIN AMERICA



LATIN AMERICA BRIEF

(19 COUNTRIES)

COUNTRY	AREA (KM2)	POPULATION ⁽¹⁾ (BOTH SEXES)	CAPITAL	INDEPENDENCE DAY	PRESIDENT/DURATION
ARGENTINA	2.766.889	34.586.637	Buenos Aires	09-07-1816	Carlos Saúl Menem 07/1995 - 07/1999
BOLIVIA	1.098.581	7.413.832	Sucre ⁽²⁾	06-08-1825	Gonzalo Sánchez de Lozada 08/1993 - 08/1997
BRAZIL	8.511.965	161.789.708	Brasilia	07-09-1822	Fernando Enrique Cardoso 01/1995 - 01/1999
CHILE	756.945	14.210.429	Santiago	18-09-1810	Eduardo Frei Ruiz-Tagle 03/1994 - 03/2000
COLOMBIA	1.138.914	35.100.589	Bogotá	20-07-1810	Ernesto Samper Pizarro 08/1994 - 08/1998
COSTA RICA	50.700	3.423.787	San José	15-09-1821	José María Figueres Olsen 05/1994 - 05/1998
CUBA	114.524	11.041.263	La Habana	1-01-1959 (20-05-1902)	Fidel Castro 1959 —
ECUADOR	283.561	11.460.117	Quito	10-08-1809	Sixto Durán-Ballén Cordovez 08/1992 - 08/1996
EL SALVADOR	21.476	5.767.824	San Salvador	15-09-1822	Armando Calderón Sol 06/1994 - 06/1999
GUATEMALA	108.889	10.621.228	Ciudad de Guatemala	15-09-1821	Ramiro de León Carpio 01/1993 - 01/1996
HONDURAS	112.492	5.653.532	Tegucigalpa	15-09-1821	Carlos Roberto Reina 01/1994 - 01/1998
MEXICO	1.972.547	91.145.292	Ciudad de México	16-09-1810	Ernesto Zedillo Ponce de León 12/1994 - 12/2000
NICARAGUA	120.349	5.169.457	Managua	15-09-1821	Violeta Barrios Vda. de Chamorro 04/1990 - 11/1996
PANAMA	75.650	2.631.013	Ciudad de Panamá	03-11-1903	Ernesto Pérez Valladares 09/1994 - 08/1999
PARAGUAY	406.752	4.959.713	Asunción	14-05-1811	Juan Carlos Wasmosy 08/1993 - 07/1998
PERU	1.285.216	23.780.034	Lima	28-07-1821	Alberto Fujimori 07/1995 - 07/2000
DOMINICAN R.	48.734	7.823.318	Santo Domingo	27-02-1865	Joaquín Balaguer 05/1994 - 05/1998
URUGUAY	176.215	3.185.728	Montevideo	25-08-1825	Julio María Sanguinetti 03/1995 - 02/2000
VENEZUELA	912.050	21.844.496	Caracas	05-07-1811	Rafael Caldera Rodríguez 02/1994 - 02/1999

Notes: (1) Population estimates of the Centro Latinoamericano de Demografía, CELADE (Latin American Demographic Center, LADC), published in Boletín Demográfico, Year 28, Nº 55, Santiago, January 1995. (2) The seat of Government is in La Paz.

Although Latin America may be considered a region with an income level that is intermediate within the world context, it includes countries that are very different in size and economic potential, with widely differing per capita income levels. A significant percentage of Latin Americans live in countries with very low per capita income, comparable to income levels in less developed regions.

Figures recorded in the early 1990s indicate that three countries -Argentina, Brazil and Mexico- generated 72% of the regional product in 1992, a percentage which increased over the past two decades.

Differences in the average levels of well-being enjoyed by Latin Americans can be illustrated by observing the distances between the levels of per capita GDP in different countries. The per capita GDP of Argentina or Venezuela is more than six times the per capita GDP of Bolivia or Guatemala.

In regard to income, the most noteworthy aspect is the enormous economic regression that Latin America as a whole suffered during the past decade. The 1980s were labeled "the lost decade" because -as a result of the debt crisis in the early 1980s and the policies adopted in its wake- per capita income dropped considerably and inequalities in income distribution increased, as did poverty and extreme poverty in most countries.

The above can be summarized in the fact that, despite the improvements achieved by several countries after the crisis, the per capita product in Latin America in 1992 was still 7% lower than in 1980. In the same period, the percentage of poor people increased from 41% to roughly 46%, with an even grimmer record for most Latin American urban residents. In urban areas, poverty rose from 30% to 39% of the population.

Those changes undoubtedly had a severe impact on women. The decline in household income among broad sectors of the population encouraged women to join the labor force in order to supplement family income and make ends meet. This accelerated the longer-term growing trend in the rate of women's involvement in economic activities.

At the same time, income levels in families with women heads-of-household -characterized by the absence of a male spouse- deteriorated even faster. Women in lower economic strata were the most seriously affected by this situation, as they have fewer possibilities of taking on the double role of domestic worker and breadwinner for the family group. Accordingly, this has led several gender studies to point out that the "feminization of poverty" has taken place progressively in many Latin American countries.

Changes in the structure of employment and product in several

economic activities have also had a significant impact on the condition of women. During the 1970s and more acutely during the 1980s, the percentage of jobs and product generated by the service sector continued to increase in relative terms as compared with agriculture and industry. In most countries, the service sector absorbs roughly one-half of all jobs and generates an even larger share of the GDP.

It is a well known fact that the service industry employs a very large percentage of women, and this has increasingly been the case in Latin America. However, this sector covers a wide variety of activities which range from the lower end of the productivity scale -e.g. people who work as street vendors and domestic workers- to activities where productivity and income are much higher than the country's average levels. The latter include more highly qualified jobs in the public sector, banking, and financial services in general.

Background data on job distribution among different economic sectors shows that a considerable portion of the increase in employed women in the 1980s was generated by low-productivity service jobs, with the resulting increase in employed individuals of both genders in the informal urban sector, in both absolute and relative terms.

Despite the fact that the above was quite a widespread trend in the region, marked differences still persist among countries regarding the

sectoral structure of their GDP and, consequently, the employment and income profile of economically active women.

In El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua, for example, roughly one-fourth of the product is generated by agriculture or, generally speaking, by the primary sector of the economy. In Argentina, Chile, Mexico and Uruguay, however, agriculture contributes less than 10% to GDP.

There is a correlation between these differences and the size of the rural population, the countries' income levels, and women's participation in economic activities. They determine, to a great extent, the status of Latin American women in the labor force.

The most meaningful indicators of the change in Latin American economies over the past few years include the increase in the share of exports in GDP. Exports increased from 23.7% in 1980 to 29% of the regional product in 1992.

The effort to export and the opening up of international markets, with the resulting increase in domestic product, have also influenced female employment. This is especially true in the case of commodities and farming/agribusiness products. These activities have increased the supply of jobs available to women, particularly in picking, sorting and packing fruit.

In recent years, one of the main achievements in most Latin American countries has been a substantial decrease in inflation, within a general

framework of progress in efforts to achieve macroeconomic stability.

The policies that characterize these efforts frequently include control of monetary expansion, cutbacks in public spending, tax increases and the use of nominal exchange rates as an anchoring device.

Lower inflation, improved production levels and, in some cases, increased productivity -against a backdrop of democratization processes that broadened the possibilities of collective bargaining and the use of pressure tactics- have led in recent years to some improvements in real wages in most countries.

These improvements have chiefly benefited wage earners in the private sector, because the public sector has based most of its belt-tightening strategies on reducing its employees' real wages, which are by far the main component of public spending in general and social spending in particular.

In most cases, cuts in public spending have led to fewer resources for social sectors and, consequently, to a drop in the real wages of public officials in those sectors. This raises serious questions about changes in the quality of social services such as health care and education.

On the other hand, the increased targeting of social public spending through programs aimed at helping the neediest sectors has buffered the negative impact of general

cutbacks. Furthermore, the social spending received by these sectors carries significant weight with regard to the total independent income generated by the households themselves.

Moreover, Latin America is one of the regions of the world with the most glaring inequalities in income distribution among its inhabitants. Although in the early 1990s income distribution in many countries stabilized and it started to improve in others, there is still a predominance of structures of distribution that are more unequal than they were in the late 1970s.

In terms of the share in aggregate income, 40% of the lower income urban households in Latin America essentially receive between 13% and 16% of earnings, whereas 10% of urban households with the highest income often receive more than 34% of aggregate urban earnings.

Current regional figures indicate that, in most countries, the percentage of households living below the poverty line is still higher than in the 1970s.

In the early 1990s, in 13 Latin American countries almost 40% of households lived in poverty, i.e. 46% of the population, because poorer households are also larger. Likewise, 34% of urban households are poor, whereas in rural areas this figure increases to 53%.

In regard to indigent households, i.e. those which cannot even afford the basic basket of goods, the percentage

is 18% for the region as a whole, 13% of which live in urban areas and 30% in rural areas.

DOMESTIC PRODUCTION

Figures on the total gross domestic product show marked differences in size and economic potential among Latin American countries. Three of the 18 countries - Argentina, Brazil and Mexico - generated 72% of the regional product in 1992. In 1970, the percentage amounted to 68%.

Three other middle-sized countries - Chile, Colombia and Venezuela - contributed roughly 19% of the regional product in 1992. The remaining 12 countries generated

barely 9% of Latin America's domestic product.

This diversity among countries is repeated in terms of per capita product, which is an indicator of the average level of development and degree of economic well-being of the people living in those countries.

Argentina, Chile, Mexico, Uruguay and Venezuela are the countries with the highest per capita income or product, with figures in excess of US\$ 2,400 (in 1980 purchasing power).

Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica and Panama are considered middle-income countries in regional terms,

with a per capita product ranging from US\$ 1,500 to US\$ 2,500 per year. A third group is made up of Ecuador, Guatemala, Peru and the Dominican Republic, with a per capita product ranging from US\$ 800 to US\$ 1,500 per year. Finally, Bolivia, Honduras and Nicaragua record the lowest product in the region, with less than US\$ 700 in per capita terms.

Therefore, although Latin America may be considered a region with an intermediate level of income in the global context, a significant part of its population lives in countries with very low per capita income levels, comparable to the levels of less developed regions.

GROWTH OF TOTAL AND PER CAPITA GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (GDP), 1970-1992

Country	TOTAL GDP (In 1980 US\$ millions)						PER CAPITA GDP (In 1980 US\$)					
	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1992	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1992
ARGENTINA	88,247.2	101,258.9	116,067.0	104,559.0	105,958.2	125,348.1	3,683	3,887	4,110	3,447	3,278	3,787
BOLIVIA	2,986.7	3,957.4	4,380.0	3,976.1	4,402.5	4,728.4	691	809	785	627	614	628
BRAZIL	106,328.1	171,777.5	243,500.5	257,327.7	283,638.2	283,466.5	1,109	1,590	2,008	1,898	1,903	1,839
CHILE	19,603.0	17,501.1	25,295.7	24,296.3	32,709.0	37,722.6	2,063	1,691	2,270	2,004	2,483	2,774
COLOMBIA	19,149.2	25,162.0	32,479.0	36,821.2	46,639.0	49,229.8	896	1,058	1,224	1,249	1,444	1,473
COSTA RICA	2,078.6	2,761.1	3,545.0	3,578.9	4,434.7	4,839.0	1,201	1,403	1,552	1,355	1,461	1,516
CUBA
DOMINICAN R.	3,310.3	5,103.6	6,437.6	7,007.7	7,864.1	8,314.0	748	1,011	1,130	1,092	1,097	1,113
ECUADOR	4,919.0	8,344.0	11,489.9	12,705.4	13,829.4	14,964.5	824	1,208	1,443	1,396	1,347	1,393
EL SALVADOR	2,581.9	3,353.6	3,496.7	3,162.3	3,457.9	3,741.3	720	821	773	667	669	693
GUATEMALA	4,491.9	5,893.2	7,801.4	7,362.3	8,490.6	9,205.9	856	979	1,128	925	923	945
HONDURAS	1,455.0	1,778.0	2,515.7	2,691.0	3,156.8	3,404.3	561	589	705	643	647	657
MEXICO	92,119.3	124,809.3	175,918.0	193,641.5	207,459.2	221,013.6	1,830	2,120	2,624	2,562	2,456	2,507
NICARAGUA	1,998.6	2,560.8	2,069.5	2,136.2	1,778.8	1,777.4	969	1,056	738	662	484	449
PANAMA	2,083.4	2,584.2	3,488.0	3,975.9	3,707.5	4,394.3	1,383	1,500	1,789	1,835	1,546	1,764
PARAGUAY	1,768.3	2,501.0	4,067.5	4,575.4	5,554.3	5,782.8	752	933	1,293	1,239	1,299	1,279
PERU	14,062.3	17,896.9	20,581.0	20,297.5	18,235.1	18,109.6	1,066	1,180	1,190	1,045	846	807
URUGUAY	5,083.7	5,325.0	6,661.4	5,787.9	6,873.7	7,594.5	1,810	1,883	2,286	1,924	2,221	2,426
VENEZUELA	51,309.4	55,443.1	61,597.4	55,648.5	64,184.8	74,983.3	4,839	4,378	4,100	3,242	3,322	3,714
LATIN AMERICA (18 countries)	424,440.7	559,053.9	732,764.6	750,857.5	823,695.4	879,809.9	1,596	1,855	2,160	1,981	1,966	2,022



A fact worth mentioning is the major economic setback that Latin America as a whole experienced in the past decade. This is vividly illustrated by the fact that despite the improvements in several countries after the crisis, the Latin American per capita product in 1992 amounted to US\$ 2,022, almost 7% lower than it was in 1980 when it amounted to US\$ 2,160. By 1992, only three countries -Chile, Colombia and Uruguay- had managed to generate a per capita product significantly higher than in the late 1970s.

The stark contrast between the economic momentum of the region in the 1970s and the setbacks suffered by most countries in the 1980s are clearly evident in the average annual growth rates of per capita gross domestic product.

With few exceptions -Chile and Venezuela in the period 1970-75 and Bolivia, El Salvador, Nicaragua and Venezuela in the following five years- in the 1970s Latin America posted relatively high growth rates close to an average of 3% per year, which compare favorably with those recorded in the five post-war decades.

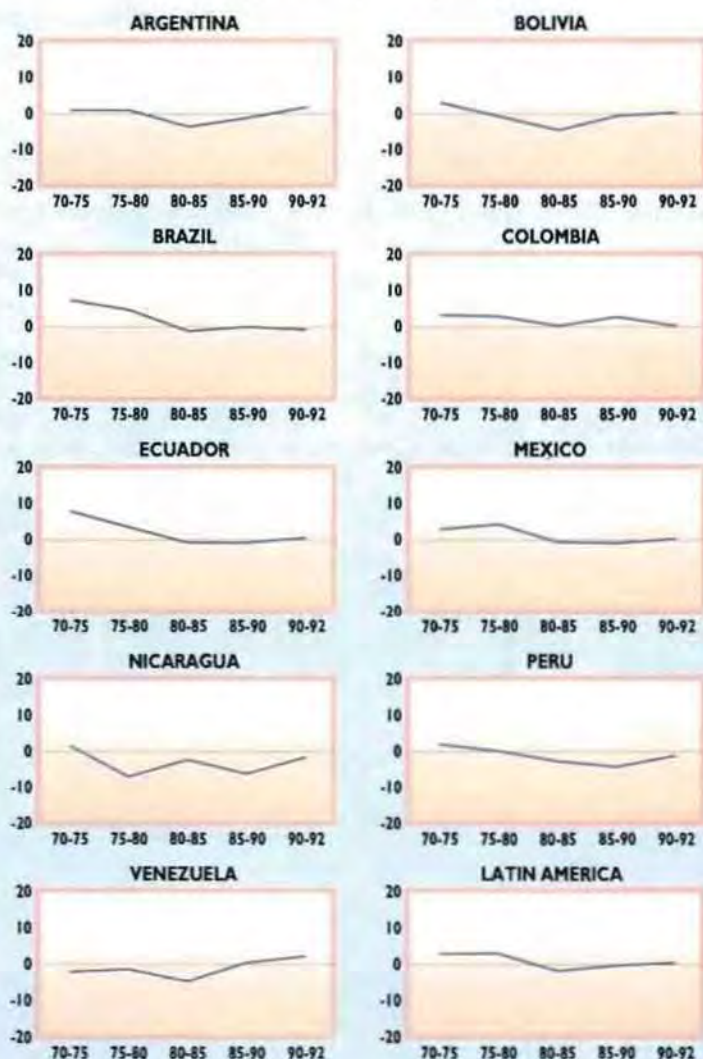
In the past decade, however, most countries suffered a decline in their per capita output as a result of the regional debt crisis and the structural adjustment policies that followed. Thus, in the period 1980-1985, only Colombia and Panama were able to record modest increases in their per capita product. The next five years also proved negative for the region, although to a lesser extent due to the recovery in growth of Chile, Colombia and Uruguay.

GROWTH OF PER CAPITA GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT, 1970-1992

(Average annual rates expressed as a percentage)

Country	1970-1975	1975-1980	1980-1985	1985-1990	1990-1992
ARGENTINA	1.1	1.1	-3.5	-1.0	2.9
BOLIVIA	3.2	-0.6	-4.4	-0.4	0.5
BRAZIL	7.5	4.8	-1.1	0.1	-0.7
CHILE	-3.9	6.1	-2.5	4.4	2.2
COLOMBIA	3.4	3.0	0.4	2.9	0.4
COSTA RICA	3.2	2.0	-2.7	1.5	0.7
CUBA
DOMINICAN R.	6.2	2.3	-0.7	0.1	0.3
ECUADOR	8.0	3.6	-0.7	-0.7	0.7
EL SALVADOR	2.7	-1.2	-2.9	0.0	0.7
GUATEMALA	2.7	2.9	-3.9	0.0	0.5
HONDURAS	1.0	3.6	-1.8	0.1	0.3
MEXICO	3.0	4.4	-0.5	-0.8	0.4
NICARAGUA	1.7	-6.9	-2.2	-6.1	-1.5
PANAMA	1.6	3.6	0.5	-3.4	2.7
PARAGUAY	4.4	6.7	-0.8	0.9	-0.3
PERU	2.1	0.2	-2.6	-4.1	-1.0
URUGUAY	0.8	4.0	-3.4	2.9	1.8
VENEZUELA	-2.0	-1.3	-4.6	0.5	2.3
LATIN AMERICA (18 countries)	3.0	3.1	-1.7	-0.2	0.6

(Average annual rates expressed as a percentage)



Source : ECLAC, based on official figures, Santiago, Chile, 1995.

It was only in the first two years of this decade that Latin America as a whole attained a positive growth rate, 0.6%, between 1990 and 1992.

Nevertheless, four countries (Brazil, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Peru) still showed negative figures.

As a result, the average income of Latin Americans in 1992 was 7% lower than in 1980 and more unequally distributed among the households of different strata. This confirms that the 1980s has been a "lost decade" for the region.

Gross Domestic Product by Production Sector

The sectoral structure of the gross domestic product in Latin America

differs from the sectoral structure of the GDP of developed countries when their per capita income levels were similar to those that prevail in Latin America.

The most salient fact is the extremely high share that services represent with regard to the GDP in Latin America. As early as 1970, the service sector (trade, transportation, financial services, personal and domestic services) contributed one-half of the regional product, whereas industry barely accounted for 30% of the total. The remaining 20% was generated by the primary sector (agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing).

Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, the service sector continued to expand its

share in most countries, while agriculture lost ground and the industrial sector held its own. To a great extent this phenomenon is accounted for by the rapid growth of employment in the tertiary sector -which includes a substantial fraction of the informal urban sector- and the meager absorption of productive employment by the manufacturing sector.

Nonetheless, very pronounced differences persist among countries in the sectoral structure of their GDP. These differences can be appreciated in the relative importance of the product generated by the primary sector, as compared with the product generated by the industrial sector. They also reflect the level of

GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT BY PRODUCTION SECTOR, 1970-1990

(Percentages)

Country	Agriculture ⁽¹⁾			Industry ⁽²⁾			Services ⁽³⁾		
	1970	1980	1990	1970	1980	1990	1970	1980	1990
ARGENTINA	13.2	6.9	8.9	38.1	40.0	35.7	48.8	53.1	55.4
BOLIVIA	19.0	18.6	17.8	38.4	35.1	32.1	42.6	46.3	50.1
BRAZIL	11.6	10.2	9.3	35.9	41.0	34.3	52.6	48.9	56.4
CHILE	8.8	8.4	9.5	41.9	36.6	36.2	49.3	55.0	54.3
COLOMBIA	25.5	22.8	21.8	28.4	28.2	30.2	46.1	49.0	48.0
COSTA RICA	24.1	18.0	19.3	24.6	30.5	28.7	51.3	51.5	52.0
CUBA ⁽⁴⁾	13.5	13.0	9.8	48.6	36.7	44.4	37.9	50.3	45.7
DOMINICAN R.	23.2	16.7	14.7	26.1	31.0	28.9	50.6	52.3	56.4
ECUADOR	25.9	14.6	17.9	21.2	34.3	32.1	52.9	51.2	50.0
EL SALVADOR	26.2	25.6	23.9	23.0	24.5	25.1	50.8	49.9	51.0
GUATEMALA	27.3	24.8	25.9	18.7	22.0	19.8	54.0	53.2	54.3
HONDURAS	34.8	26.9	27.5	21.7	23.2	24.1	43.5	49.9	48.4
MEXICO	11.1	8.1	7.6	32.3	32.4	32.5	59.5	59.4	59.8
NICARAGUA	24.1	23.2	24.7	29.6	31.4	28.7	46.4	45.4	46.5
PANAMA	14.6	9.4	11.1	22.1	20.7	15.1	63.3	70.0	73.8
PARAGUAY	30.4	25.2	27.5	21.8	26.6	25.0	47.8	48.2	47.5
PERU	16.3	10.5	14.3	40.4	43.5	38.3	43.3	46.0	47.4
URUGUAY	14.6	11.5	10.9	28.1	31.4	30.8	57.3	57.0	58.3
VENEZUELA	7.1	6.1	5.3	41.7	33.7	46.3	51.2	60.2	48.4
LATIN AMERICA (Simple average)	19.5	15.8	16.2	30.7	31.7	31.0	50.0	52.4	52.8



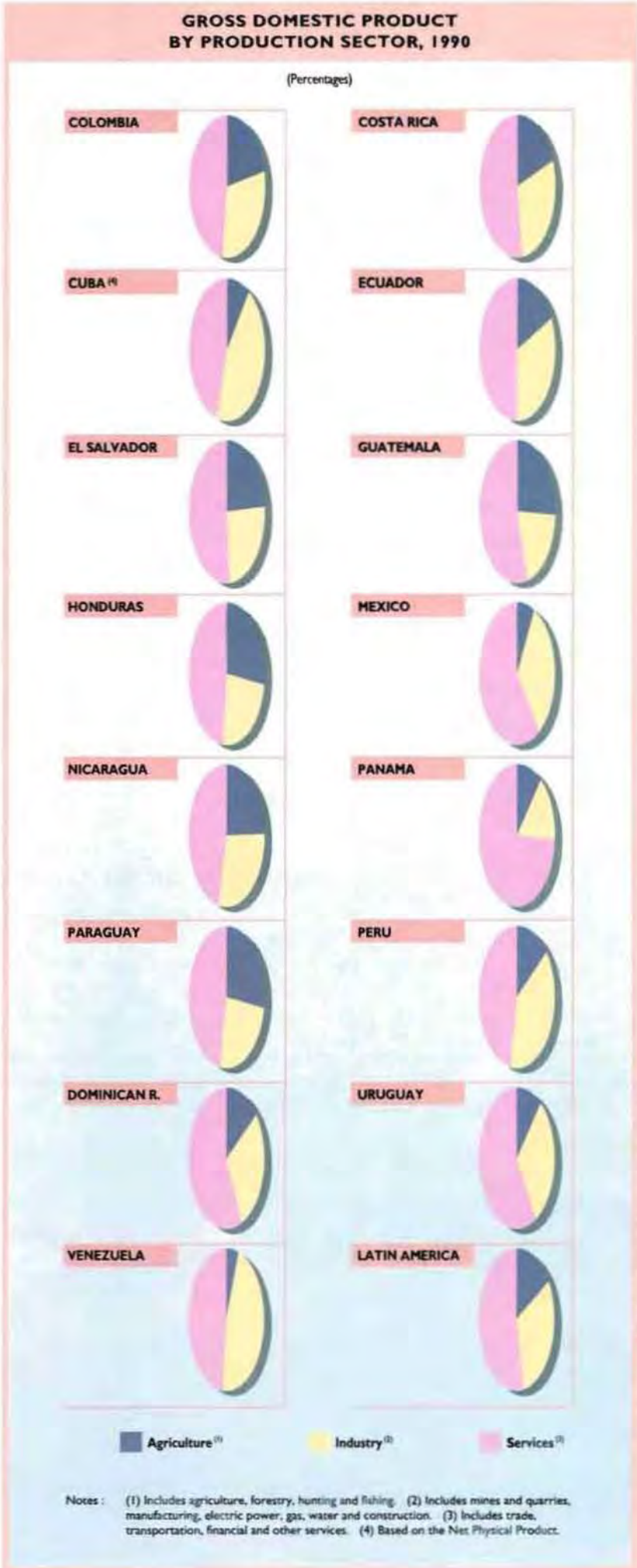
Notes : (1) Includes agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing. (2) Includes mines and quarries, manufacturing, electric power, gas water and construction. (3) Includes trade, transportation, financial and other services. (4) Based on the Net Physical Product.

urbanization and industrialization achieved by each country.

Thus, for example, in 1990, agriculture contributed less than 10% of the output in Argentina, Chile, Mexico and Uruguay, but it accounted for almost one-fourth of the domestic product in El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua.

The product generated by the secondary sector, primarily in industrial/manufacturing and construction activities, also varies widely in relative significance from one country to another. In Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico and Peru, one-third or more of the domestic product originates in this sector, whereas in relatively less industrialized countries of the region such as El Salvador, Guatemala, Panama and Paraguay, the industrial product accounts for less than one-fourth of the total.

These differences are related to the degree of development of each country and help explain the status of women, particularly with regard to their well-being and participation in economic activities.



Source: ECLAC, based on official figures, Santiago, Chile, 1995.

EXTERNAL SECTOR

The increase in the share of exports in the GDP is one of the clearest indicators of the major changes experienced by regional economies in the aftermath of the debt crisis. This is clearly evident in the contrasting behavior of this indicator over the past two decades.

In the 1970s, Latin American exports grew at a much lower rate than the GDP, so much so that the percentage value of exports in terms of product dropped from 25.3% in 1970 to 23.7% in 1980.

In the following decade, and particularly from 1985 onward -when economic growth started to recover-

exports became one of the most dynamic components of growth. The importance of exports in the GDP thus increased significantly, amounting to 29% of the regional product by 1992.

In the 1985-1992 period, the share of exports in the GDP rose by eight or more percentage points in six Latin American countries (Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Paraguay). This is a remarkable amount, considering that almost all of these countries had not recorded similar figures in the past 15 years.

Several factors contributed to the increase in the magnitude of exports. In some countries, macroeconomic policies and export incentives played an important role and were also coupled with improved terms of trade. In Chile, for example, rising

copper prices (Chile's main export product) increased the value obtained for total exports of that commodity.

The most striking factor, however, is that the increased impact of exports on the product reflects a remarkable effort in exports to place new products on international markets or to improve the export of products that were unimportant before in Latin American foreign trade.

PERCENTAGE OF EXPORTS
IN TERMS OF THE GDP, 1970-1992

(Percentages)

Country	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1992
ARGENTINA	9.2	6.6	8.5	14.0	18.0	13.8
BOLIVIA	38.6	33.0	23.5	18.6	24.7	23.7
BRAZIL	9.2	8.8	9.0	13.6	13.6	16.8
CHILE	13.0	20.1	23.6	30.0	35.1	40.6
COLOMBIA	17.0	17.7	16.4	13.5	21.3	25.3
COSTA RICA	38.1	38.5	33.8	41.5	51.8	62.0
CUBA	-	-	-	-	-	-
DOMINICAN R.	21.2	20.9	19.7	17.2	21.1	22.1
ECUADOR	14.4	30.5	25.1	31.4	35.6	39.8
EL SALVADOR	28.8	32.0	34.8	28.4	27.6	27.3
GUATEMALA	21.1	23.6	22.2	19.2	19.8	18.7
HONDURAS	41.9	34.6	37.4	36.0	30.6	30.4
MEXICO	10.2	8.3	11.8	17.5	21.8	23.1
NICARAGUA	29.4	31.5	23.9	16.7	20.7	14.9
PANAMA	38.2	37.0	44.9	41.1	45.8	53.2
PARAGUAY	15.7	12.4	13.9	15.5	38.7	27.0
PERU	24.8	16.1	22.5	23.4	18.5	18.0
URUGUAY	16.9	21.1	22.9	30.5	32.6	30.8
VENEZUELA	68.4	39.3	32.4	29.4	39.2	34.7
LATIN AMERICA (Simple average)	25.3	24.0	23.7	24.3	28.7	29.0

**FIVE MAJOR EXPORT PRODUCTS
AND THEIR SHARE IN TOTAL EXPORTS
1990**

The opening up of new markets and the resulting increase in the GDP has had major repercussions on employment. The most significant ones, as far as their impact on women is concerned, are the expansion and diversification in the production of commodities. This has raised employment rates for women in export-oriented agriculture and agribusiness, as is the case with fruit picking, sorting and packing where a large proportion of women are employed.

The expansion of exports has been accompanied by a significant decrease in the "single export product" characteristic of Latin American economies. In 1970, the five leading Latin American export products accounted for almost half the total value of exports (45.5%). Twenty years later, the share of these five main products in total exports had dropped to 33.8%.

A more diversified export structure has been created, and this makes the economies less vulnerable to, and relatively less dependent on, the prices and fluctuations of foreign demand and international market conditions.

Ecuador, Mexico, Nicaragua and Paraguay stand out as exceptions in the region. Exports were not diversified in those countries over the past two decades, at least with regard to the five main export products. In the cases of Ecuador and Mexico, this is due to the greater importance of crude oil exports. In 1990, oil accounted for a higher percentage of Mexico's exports than the five major products exported in 1970 all together.

ARGENTINA	%
Oilcakes and oilseeds	9.2
Unmilled wheat and rye	7.1
Oil byproducts	6.5
Soybean (exc. flour)	5.6
Sunflower oil	4.4
Total above in 1990	32.8
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	47.8

BOLIVIA	%
Natural gas	24.6
Zinc and concentrate	15.9
Tin in bars, etc.	9.1
Silver and platinum ore	6.7
Cattle	5.4
Total above for 1990	61.7
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	76.1

BRAZIL	%
Iron and concentrate	7.7
Oilcakes and oilseeds	5.3
Fruit and Veg. juice	4.8
Footwear	3.5
Coffee and coffee Subs.	3.5
Total above for 1990	24.8
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	55.7

CHILE	%
Refined copper	36.7
Copper and concentrate	6.1
Bonemeal and fishmeal	4.5
Fresh grapes	4.1
Fresh fish	3.8
Total above for 1990	55.2
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	85.9

COLOMBIA	%
Crude oil	22.8
Coffee and coffee Subs.	20.9
Coal	7.9
Oil byproducts	6.1
Bananas	4.7
Total above for 1990	62.4
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	81.0

COSTA RICA	%
Bananas	21.9
Coffee and coffee Subs.	17.0
Beef	3.3
Fresh fish	2.8
Fresh tropical fruit	2.6
Total above for 1990	47.6
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	75.6

ECUADOR	%
Crude oil	46.4
Bananas	17.4
Crustaceans and mollusks	12.6
Oil byproducts	5.5
Coffee and coffee Subs.	4.4
Total above for 1990	86.3
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	87.6

EL SALVADOR	%
Coffee and coffee Subs.	45.9
Raw sugar	3.7
Medicines	3.4
Knits & cotton yarn	3.2
Crustaceans and mollusks	2.4
Total above for 1990	58.6
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	66.9

GUATEMALA	%
Coffee and coffee Subs.	27.8
Raw sugar	10.4
Bananas	6.1
Medicines	4.5
Nutmeg, mace & cardamon	3.0
Total above for 1990	51.8
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	56.3

HONDURAS	%
Bananas	32.4
Coffee and coffee Subs.	26.2
Crustaceans and mollusks	5.8
Beef	4.5
Zinc and alloys	3.5
Total above for 1990	72.4
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	76.0

MEXICO	%
Crude oil	33.8
Motor vehicles	9.9
Combustion engines	5.3
Oil byproducts	2.4
Other fresh legumes	1.7
Total above for 1990	53.1
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	30.1

NICARAGUA	%
Coffee and coffee Subs.	22.4
Beef	19.8
Sugar	11.3
Raw cotton	10.9
Bananas	8.1
Total above for 1990	72.5
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	61.0

(Cont.)

In Paraguay, cotton and soybeans increased their share of the total, representing about 62% of the amount exported by 1990, whereas in 1970 the five leading exports only accounted for 47% of the total.

Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Panama and Uruguay are the countries where, considering their five main export products, diversification was the most significant. Without any exceptions, the importance of those goods in total exports dropped by 20 to 30 percentage points between 1970 and 1990.

In the other countries (Argentina, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Peru), the decrease amounted to 15 percentage points or less.

Nevertheless, it must be kept in mind that the current export structure of

most Latin American countries is not very diversified, in addition to the fact that commodities are the predominant products. In 10 of the 17 countries examined, the main export product accounts for no less than 25% of the total value of exports. In all such cases the product is a commodity, with little added value compared to industrial goods.

Foreign Debt Service

One of the most significant economic changes that has taken place in Latin America since the 1970s has been overindebtedness and the impact of the growing volume of resources countries have had to transfer abroad to service the debt.

Throughout the 1970s, and more openly in the first half of the 1980s, service of the Latin America debt grew due to a very sharp and rapid

increase in foreign loans, which were easy to obtain because of abundant financial surpluses in the private banking sector.

Overindebtedness in almost every Latin American country (with Colombia as the prominent exception) emerged in the midst of sweeping changes on the international financial scene in the 1970s. The changes began with the nonconvertibility of the dollar, followed by the expansion of financial flows as a result of the boom in the Eurodollar market and surpluses from the oil crises, culminating in the deregulation of interest rates in the U.S. market.

In turn, Latin American countries that needed credit found themselves in an unusual scenario, where financial funds could be obtained with astounding ease. Thus, in most

FIVE MAJOR EXPORT PRODUCTS AND THEIR SHARE IN TOTAL EXPORTS, 1990

PANAMA	%
Bananas	28.1
Crustaceans and mollusks	15.6
Sugar	11.5
Coffee and coffee Subs.	4.4
Fresh fish	3.5
Total above for 1990	63.1
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	90.5

PARAGUAY	%
Raw cotton	34.3
Soybean (exc. flour)	27.9
Beef	13.7
Round logs (sawable)	2.5
Hides and furs	2.3
Total above for 1990	80.7
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	46.9

PERU	%
Refined copper	13.5
Bonemeal and fishmeal	11.0
Zinc and concentrate	9.8
Oil byproducts	9.5
Blister & unrefined copper	5.7
Total above for 1990	49.5
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	63.2

URUGUAY	%
Beef	12.6
Wool hides	11.2
Horse hides and furs	6.9
Rice	5.3
Sheep nor lamb wool	5.1
Total above for 1990	41.1
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	70.6

VENEZUELA	%
Crude oil	50.8
Oil byproducts	29.7
Aluminum and alloys	4.2
Aluminum bars, etc.	0.8
Steel/iron plates	0.7
Total above for 1990	86.2
(Total 5 prods. in 1970)	97.5

LATIN AMERICA	%
Total 5 products 1990	33.8
(Total 5 products in 1970)	45.5

countries, both the public and the private sector accumulated excess loans, without taking into account a potential -and sudden- financial squeeze. This did occur, in the early 1980s, with the onset of the crisis and the resulting increase in service of the debt as of 1982.

Because of the fact that if funds are not provided by new loans, debt service competes with other potential uses of domestic product, like consumption and investment, the percentage of domestic product absorbed by debt service is an indicator of the degree to which development opportunities and policies tend to be affected.

Those opportunities are limited by the heavy and rapidly increasing debt burden, which postpones or prevents economic growth, making it hard to relieve poverty, or exaggerating it. This was the case in most countries during the 1980s.

Figures on foreign debt service as a percentage of GDP are very telling and differ only slightly from country to country in the 1970-1990 period.

On the average for Latin America this percentage rose from 2.9% in 1970 to 5.5% in 1980. It increased rapidly again in the following five years to 7.2% of the regional product and then dropped to 6.1%, partly due to a recovery in the growth of the product in some countries.

Despite some similarities in its pattern, the burden the foreign debt service represents at present differs greatly for each country. In Brazil, El Salvador, Guatemala, Paraguay, Peru and the Dominican Republic, it accounts for less than four percentage points of the product, whereas in

Colombia, Ecuador, Honduras and Uruguay it represents 9% or more. In 1990, Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Costa

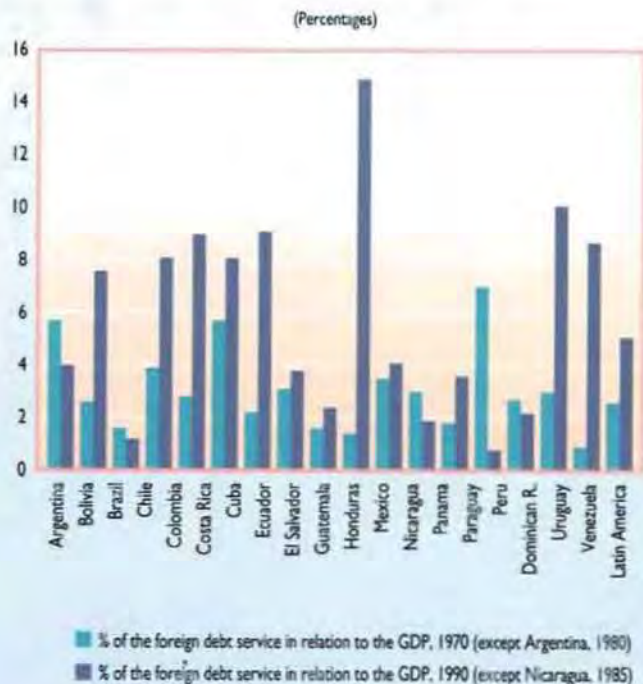
Rica, Mexico and Venezuela had a moderate burden for debt service ranging from 4% to 9% of GDP.

FOREIGN DEBT SERVICE: PERCENTAGE WITH REGARD TO THE GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT, 1970-1990

(Percentages)

Country	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990
ARGENTINA	---	---	5.7	9.0	4.0
BOLIVIA	2.6	4.7	11.0	12.2	7.6
BRAZIL	1.6	3.5	5.8	4.4	1.2
CHILE	3.9	8.9	8.9	13.8	8.1
COLOMBIA	2.8	2.4	1.7	4.9	9.0
COSTA RICA	5.7	7.3	7.3	13.4	8.1
DOMINICAN R.	2.7	2.7	4.0	5.3	2.2
ECUADOR	2.2	2.3	8.1	9.1	9.1
EL SALVADOR	3.1	5.6	2.0	5.8	3.8
GUATEMALA	1.6	1.0	1.8	2.8	2.4
HONDURAS	1.4	4.1	7.1	5.5	14.9
MEXICO	3.5	2.9	5.0	8.2	4.1
NICARAGUA	3.0	3.7	4.5	1.9	---
PANAMA	3.1	4.0	(1)	(1)	(1)
PARAGUAY	1.8	2.0	2.7	5.0	3.6
PERU	7.0	5.2	9.0	6.2	0.8
URUGUAY	3.0	10.4	2.6	11.1	10.1
VENEZUELA	0.9	1.8	6.4	4.6	8.7
LATIN AMERICA ⁽²⁾ (Simple average)	2.9	4.3	5.5	7.2	6.1

Note: (1) Publication error. (2) No information on Cuba was available.



PRICES, WAGES AND SOCIAL PUBLIC SPENDING

One of the main achievements of most Latin American countries over the past few years has been in regard to prices in general, and in particular to consumer prices.

Widespread progress of efforts to achieve macroeconomic stability have reduced the staggering variety of policies seen in the 1980s. Some of the ones most frequently used were the control of monetary expansion, cutbacks in public spending, tax increases and the use of a nominal exchange rate as an anchoring device.

By the early 1990s, inflation was drastically reduced in countries that had suffered from hyperinflation in

the second half of the 1980s. Moreover, inflation continued to drop in most countries which had been successful previously or where inflation was moderate.

Countries which, despite having managed to improve their inflation still have annual rates of 30%-50%, include Ecuador, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela. The remaining countries have inflation rates below 20% per year, with several countries already attaining rates of approximately 10%. Some are even reaching single digit figures, like Argentina, Bolivia, Costa Rica, Mexico, Panama and the Dominican Republic.

Lower inflation, improved production levels and, in some cases, increased productivity -against a backdrop of democratization processes which broadened the

possibilities of collective bargaining and the use of pressure tactics- have led in recent years to modest but consistent improvements in real wages in most countries.

These improvements have chiefly benefited wage earners in the private sector. This is due to the fact that the public sector has based most of its belt-tightening strategies on reducing the real wages of its employees, which are by far the main component of public spending in general and social spending in particular.

INFLATION: AVERAGE ANNUAL INCREASE IN THE CONSUMER PRICE INDEX, 1980-1993

(Percentages)

Country	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993
ARGENTINA	100.8	104.5	164.8	343.8	626.7	672.2	90.1	131.3	343.0	3,079.5	2,314.0	171.7	24.9	10.6
BOLIVIA	47.2	32.1	123.5	275.6	1,281.3	11,749.2	276.3	14.6	16.0	15.2	17.1	21.4	12.1	8.4
BRAZIL	78.0	95.6	89.6	135.5	172.4	301.8	129.9	220.9	585.9	1,200.0	2,900.7	410.6	965.2	...
CHILE	35.1	19.7	9.9	27.3	19.9	30.7	19.6	19.9	14.7	17.0	26.0	21.8	15.4	19.4
COLOMBIA	26.6	27.5	24.9	19.6	16.2	24.1	18.8	23.4	28.0	25.9	29.1	30.4	27.0	22.4
COSTA RICA	18.1	37.0	90.1	32.6	11.9	15.1	11.8	16.9	20.8	16.5	19.0	28.7	21.8	9.8
CUBA
DOMINICAN R.	16.7	7.5	7.3	5.1	27.0	37.5	9.7	15.9	44.4	45.4	59.4	53.9	4.6	4.7
ECUADOR	13.0	16.3	16.3	48.4	31.2	28.0	21.1	29.5	58.2	75.6	48.5	46.4	48.5	45.0
EL SALVADOR	17.4	14.9	11.7	13.2	11.6	22.3	32.6	24.2	19.8	17.6	24.0	14.5	11.1	18.5
GUATEMALA	10.7	11.4	0.5	5.6	1.2	19.2	32.7	10.9	10.3	12.9	41.0	35.1	10.2	13.4
HONDURAS	18.2	9.3	9.1	8.3	4.6	3.4	4.4	2.5	4.5	9.8	23.3	34.0	8.8	10.7
MEXICO	26.3	28.0	58.8	101.9	65.5	57.7	86.2	131.8	114.2	20.0	26.7	22.7	15.5	9.8
NICARAGUA	35.3	23.9	24.8	31.3	35.2	220.3	681.9	911.9	14,451.6	4,709.3	7,485.2	2,742.2	20.3	20.4
PANAMA	13.8	7.3	4.3	2.1	1.6	1.1	...	0.9	0.6	0.1	0.8	1.3	1.8	0.5
PARAGUAY	22.4	14.0	6.8	13.5	20.3	25.2	31.7	21.8	23.0	26.0	38.2	24.3	15.1	18.2
PERU	59.2	75.2	64.4	111.2	110.2	163.4	77.9	85.8	666.9	3,398.4	7,481.7	409.5	75.5	48.6
URUGUAY	63.5	34.0	19.0	49.2	55.3	72.1	76.4	63.6	62.2	80.5	112.5	102.0	68.5	54.1
VENEZUELA	21.5	16.1	9.6	6.4	12.1	11.4	11.6	28.1	29.5	84.5	40.7	34.2	31.4	35.6
LATIN AMERICA (Simple average)	34.7	31.9	40.9	68.4	139.1	747.5	94.9	97.4	916.3	713.0	1,149.3	233.6	76.5	20.6

Source: ECLAC, based on official figures, Santiago, Chile, 1995.

Between 1990 and 1993, the different situations that took place in the private and public sectors resulted in a net positive balance of between 2 to 15 percentage points in the real wage indexes of several countries.

On the other hand, one of the main components of stabilization programs is cutting public spending, particularly in social services. In turn, cutbacks in social spending implemented primarily by slashing the real wages of public officials raise serious questions about changes in the quality of social services.

Between the 1980s and early 1990s, more than half of the countries substantially reduced their real per capita public spending on education and health care. This is in stark contrast to what happened in the 1970s and 1980s, when only three out of 14 countries cut their real per capita spending in these sectors, whereas most countries increased their expenditures significantly.

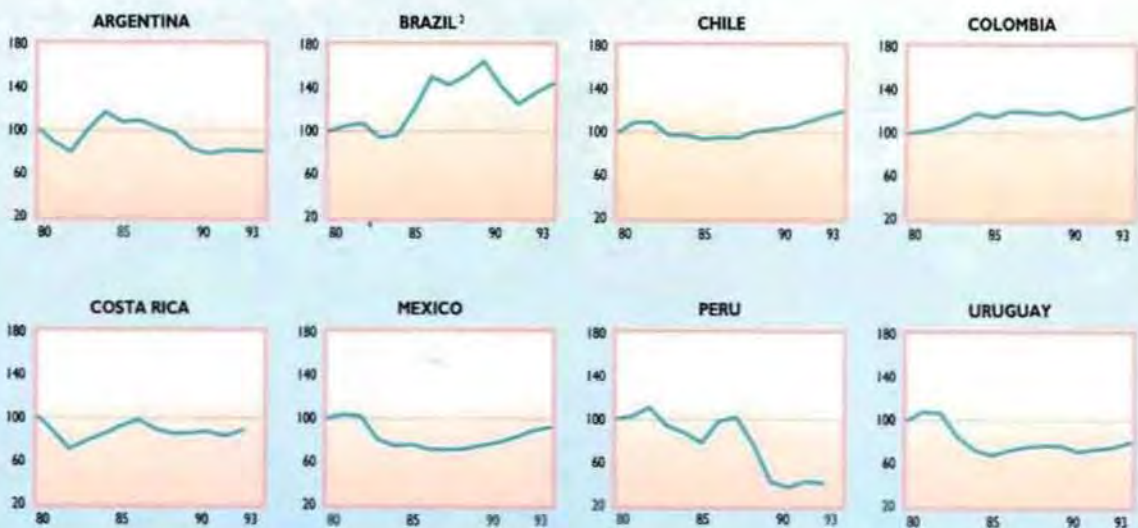
Recent public spending slashes in areas which are so important for the development of human resources offset the gains in well-being

gradually achieved by fixed-income sectors through higher real wages, which are mostly the result of the reduction in the inflationary tax.

REAL WAGE INDEX⁽¹⁾ SELECTED COUNTRIES, 1980-1993

(1980 = 100)

Country	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993
ARGENTINA	100.0	89.4	80.1	101.1	116.9	107.8	109.5	103.0	97.3	83.3	78.7	81.8	81.4	81.0
BRAZIL ⁽²⁾	100.0	104.7	107.2	94.0	96.7	120.4	150.7	143.2	152.1	165.2	142.1	125.4	135.7	144.6
CHILE	100.0	108.9	109.1	97.2	97.2	93.5	95.1	94.7	101.0	102.9	104.8	109.9	114.9	119.2
COLOMBIA	100.0	101.3	104.7	110.1	118.1	114.6	120.1	119.2	117.7	119.4	113.4	115.3	119.1	124.0
COSTA RICA	100.0	88.3	70.8	78.5	84.7	92.2	97.8	89.2	85.2	85.7	87.2	83.1	88.5	...
MEXICO	100.0	103.6	102.2	80.7	74.8	75.9	71.5	71.3	71.7	75.2	77.9	83.0	89.0	92.1
PERU	100.0	101.8	110.2	93.4	87.2	77.6	97.5	101.3	76.1	41.5	36.2	41.8	40.4	...
URUGUAY	100.0	107.5	106.5	84.5	72.2	67.3	71.9	75.2	76.3	76.1	70.6	73.2	74.8	79.7



■ Real Wage index: 1980 = 100

Notes: (1) This refers to average nominal wages, deflated according to the CPI. (2) City of Sao Paulo.

Source: ECLAC, based on official figures, Santiago, Chile, 1995.

The most underprivileged sectors have seen the negative impact of public social spending cutbacks only partially offset by policies that target such spending toward those sectors of the population. In most countries, decreases in social public spending have been coupled with increased targeting.

It should be kept in mind that spending on health care, first, and education, second, are the most progressive in the region, i.e. most of it goes to lower income sectors. As a reference, 20% of poorest households receive, in most countries, from 30% to 40% of spending on public health care, from 25% to 30% of total spending on education, and more than 35% on elementary education.

As far as total social public spending is concerned, in almost all cases it has been slightly regressive, and its decline in recent years has generally had a stronger impact on countries with lower spending levels. This has widened the differences among Latin American countries.

PUBLIC SPENDING IN EDUCATION, 1970-1990

Country	As a percentage of the GDP			Per capita spending in 1980 US\$			Variation of real per capita spending in education (%)		
	1970	1980	c.1990	1970	1980	c.1990	80/70	90/80	90/70
ARGENTINA	1.0	1.9	1.7	37	78	63	112.1	-19.3	71.2
BOLIVIA	3.7	3.8	3.1	26	30	19	16.7	-36.2	-25.5
BRAZIL	1.2	0.7	3.7	13	14	70	5.6	401.0	428.9
CHILE	3.9	4.1	3.9	80	93	89	15.7	-4.8	10.1
COLOMBIA	...	2.5	2.4	...	31	34	...	10.8	...
COSTA RICA	3.4	6.2	6.0	41	96	88	135.7	-8.9	114.7
CUBA
DOMINICAN R.	...	1.8	2.1	...	20	25	...	21.6	...
ECUADOR	...	5.3	4.2	...	76	57	...	74.0	...
EL SALVADOR	2.9	3.4	2.0	21	26	13	25.9	-49.1	-35.9
GUATEMALA	2.0	1.8	1.3	17	20	12	18.5	-40.9	-29.9
HONDURAS	3.3	3.0	4.5	19	21	29	14.2	37.9	57.5
MEXICO	...	3.1	3.9	...	81	85	...	104.6	...
NICARAGUA	2.3	3.5	6.1	22	26	38	16.0	46.1	69.5
PANAMA	4.2	4.5	4.9	58	80	76	38.6	-5.9	30.4
PARAGUAY	1.6	1.3	1.7	12	17	22	39.7	31.4	83.5
PERU	3.2	2.5	2.5	34	30	21	-12.8	-28.9	-38.0
URUGUAY	3.6	1.9	1.9	65	43	42	-33.4	-2.8	-35.2
VENEZUELA	3.5	4.1	2.5	169	168	83	-0.7	-50.6	-51.0

Note: c. = Circa.

In any event, the marked regressiveness of income distribution in the region means that social spending also has a significant redistributive effect. This is because its regressiveness is significantly lower than that of income distribution. It should be kept in mind that the impact of social programs on the absolute income levels of the poorest households is very substantial, regardless of how progressive spending may be.

With few exceptions, there is a strong correlation between the level of socioeconomic development in Latin American countries and their levels of social spending. For example, Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica, Chile and Uruguay had levels of social spending of over 10% of GDP in the early 1990s, which is equal to over US\$ 200 per capita at 1985 prices.

At the opposite end of the scale, countries like Bolivia, Paraguay and

Peru spend less than 5% of their GDP, which is less than US\$ 50 per capita. Countries like Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico and Venezuela spend from 5% to 10% of GDP, which is between US\$ 100 and US\$ 200 per capita.

PUBLIC SPENDING ON HEALTH CARE, 1970-1990

Country	As a percentage of the GDP			Per capita spending in 1980 US\$			Variation of real per capita spending on health care (%)		
	1970	1980	c.1990	1970	1980	c.1990	80/70	90/80	90/70
ARGENTINA	0.3	0.5	0.3	11	21	10	86.0	-52.1	-11.0
BOLIVIA	0.9	1.7	0.3	6	13	2	114.7	-86.2	-70.4
BRAZIL	1.3	1.3	2.9	14	26	55	81.0	111.5	282.7
CHILE	1.7	2.1	1.8	35	48	45	35.9	-6.2	27.5
COLOMBIA	...	4.8	3.6	...	59	52	...	-11.6	...
COSTA RICA	0.4	0.9	1.3	5	14	19	197.2	30.0	286.3
CUBA
DOMINICAN R.	...	2.0	1.1	...	23	12	...	-46.6	...
ECUADOR	0.5	1.8	1.6	4	26	22	530.6	-17.0	423.3
EL SALVADOR	1.3	1.5	0.8	9	12	5	23.9	-53.9	-42.8
GUATEMALA	...	1.2	1.2	...	14	11	...	81.9	...
HONDURAS	1.5	2.2	2.4	8	16	16	84.2	0.1	84.4
MEXICO	...	0.4	0.3	...	10	7	...	62.3	...
NICARAGUA	0.7	4.4	5.8	7	33	28	379.2	-13.6	313.8
PANAMA	1.8	1.6	2.0	25	29	31	15.0	8.1	24.2
PARAGUAY	2.0	0.4	0.4	15	5	5	-65.6	0.5	-65.5
PERU	0.9	0.8	0.6	10	10	5	-0.8	-46.7	-47.1
URUGUAY	...	1.0	1.2	...	23	27	...	16.6	...
VENEZUELA	1.7	1.3	1.1	82	53	37	-35.2	-31.4	-55.6

Note: c. = Circa.

INCOME DISTRIBUTION AND POVERTY

Latin America is one of the regions of the world with the most glaring inequalities in income distribution among its inhabitants. Although in the early 1990s income distribution in many countries stabilized and it started to improve in others, there is still a predominance of structures of distribution that are more unequal than they were in the late 1970s.

Considering that the Gini Index - a global measure of inequality in income distribution, which varies from zero for egalitarian distribution to one for total inequality - is below 0.35 in the world's most egalitarian countries. In Latin America, Uruguay is the only country that is clearly

below this figure at present, with Costa Rica slightly above it. Figures for the remaining countries are close to 0.40 or significantly higher values on the Gini Index, with Brazil heading the list at 0.54.

In terms of share of total urban income, this means that the poorest 40% of Latin American households only receive 13% to 16% of income, with a maximum of 22% in Uruguay and less than 10% in Brazil.

Moreover, 10% of urban households with the highest income - with a few exceptions - receive more than 34% of total urban income. This figure is 42% for Brazil and drops to 26% for Uruguay.

Countries that reduced the level of inequality in the 1980-1992 period include Colombia and Uruguay. Meanwhile, the degree of inequality

heightened in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Panama and Venezuela.

A balance of the current magnitude of poverty in the region shows that, in most countries, the percentage of households affected is even higher than in the 1970s.

In the early 1990s, almost 40% of the households in 13 Latin American countries lived in poverty, i.e. 46% of the population, because poorer households are composed of more people. Likewise, 34% of urban households are poor, whereas in rural areas this figure increases to 53%.

URBAN INCOME DISTRIBUTION IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, 1980-1992

Country	circa 1980		circa 1986		circa 1992				
	Gini coefficient	Share of the:		Gini coefficient	Share of the:		Gini coefficient	Share of the:	
		Poorest 40%	Wealthiest 10%		Poorest 40%	Wealthiest 10%		Poorest 40%	Wealthiest 10%
ARGENTINA ⁽¹⁾	0.365	18.0	29.8	0.406	16.2	34.5	0.408	15.2	31.6
BOLIVIA	0.478	13.0	40.0
BRAZIL	0.493	11.7	39.1	0.543	9.7	44.3	0.535	9.6	41.7
CHILE	0.459	13.9	37.2	0.452	14.6	38.2
COLOMBIA ⁽²⁾	0.518	11.0	41.3	0.455	13.0	35.3	0.454	12.9	34.5
COSTA RICA	0.328	18.9	23.2	0.364	17.2	27.6	0.363	17.0	27.0
GUATEMALA	0.464	12.5	36.4	0.479	12.1	37.9
HONDURAS	0.487	12.2	38.9	0.461	13.2	35.4
MEXICO	0.432	14.9	33.2	0.414	16.5	34.7
PANAMA	0.399	15.5	29.1	0.430	14.2	33.0	0.448	13.3	34.2
PARAGUAY ⁽³⁾	0.404	16.3	31.8	0.391	16.2	29.2
URUGUAY	0.379	17.7	31.2	0.385	17.3	32.4	0.301	21.9	25.9
VENEZUELA	0.306	20.2	21.8	0.384	16.3	28.9	0.387	16.3	28.9

Notes: (1) Greater Buenos Aires area. (2) Eight largest cities. (3) Asunción.



Eighteen percent of the households in the region are indigent, which means they can not even afford the basic basket of goods. In urban areas the figure for indigent households is 13%, and in rural areas it is 30%.

As in the case of income distribution, there are different situations in the various Latin American countries. Some have poverty levels near 10% and others have levels over 50%.

As a result of the significant economic and social changes that have taken place in the region over the past 15 years, the heterogeneity of the structure of poverty has increased. The households that are structurally poorest have been joined by others whose insufficient incomes are caused mainly by the lack of employment of some of their main breadwinners.

Other factors that have helped intensify poverty are the loss of purchasing power of some wage-earning sectors and of retirement pensions and others due to inflation and/or changes in the socioeconomic valuation of joining the labor force.

Some households have also become more vulnerable because of structural changes, like the significant increase in single-parent households.

POOR AND INDIGENT HOUSEHOLDS BY AREA, IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, 1970-1986

(Percentages)

Country		Poor			Indigent		
		Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
ARGENTINA	1970	8	5	19	1	1	1
	1980	9	7	16	2	2	4
	1986	13	12	17	4	3	6
BOLIVIA	1989	...	50	22	...
	1992	...	46	18	...
BRAZIL	1970	49	35	73	25	15	42
	1979	39	30	62	17	10	35
	1990	43	39	56	...	22	...
CHILE	1970	17	12	25	6	3	11
	1987	38	37	45	14	13	16
	1990	35	34	36	12	11	15
	1992	28	27	29	7	7	9
COLOMBIA	1970	45	38	54	18	14	223
	1980	39	36	45	16	13	22
	1990	...	35	12	...
COSTA RICA	1970	24	15	30	6	5	7
	1981	22	16	28	6	5	8
	1990	24	22	25	10	7	12
	1992	25	25	25	10	8	12
GUATEMALA	1980	65	41	79	33	13	44
	1986	68	54	75	43	28	53
	1990	72	45
HONDURAS	1970	65	40	75	45	15	57
	1990	75	65	84	54	38	6
	1992	73	66	79	50	38	59
MEXICO	1970	34	20	49	12	6	18
	1989	39	34	49	14	9	23
	1992	36	30	46	12	7	20
PANAMA	1979	36	31	45	19	14	27
	1991	36	34	43	16	14	21
PERU	1970	50	28	68	25	8	39
	1979	46	35	65	21	12	37
	1986	52	45	64	25	16	39
URUGUAY	1970	...	10	...	4
	1981	11	9	21	3	2	7
	1990	...	12	2	...
	1992	...	8	1	...
VENEZUELA	1970	25	20	36	10	6	19
	1981	22	18	35	7	5	15
	1990	34	33	38	12	11	17
	1992	33	32	36	11	10	10
LATIN AMERICA	1970	40	26	62	19	10	34
	1980	35	25	54	15	9	28
	1990	39	34	53	18	13	30

As to the type of household, the ones that are headed by women are more likely to be poor, whether they are nuclear, extended or mixed families.

Especially among nuclear families, in most countries more than 10% of the indigent households are headed by women, whereas fewer than 7% of the ones that are not poor are headed by women.

In Venezuela, for example, nuclear families headed by women make up 18% of indigent households and 7%

of the ones that are not poor, whereas in Costa Rica they correspond to 19% for the former and 9% for the latter. The situation is similar in Bolivia, Colombia, Honduras, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay.

The percentage of families headed by women is also higher among nonindigent poor than among families that are not poor, although the differences are not so striking.

The trends described above are also similar among extended families.

Differences are much less significant among mixed families, especially due to the low incidence of this type.

DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS BY FAMILY TYPE AND POVERTY CATEGORY IN URBAN AREAS, 1992

(Percentages)

Country	Poverty category	Total	Family Type							
			One individual	Childless	Nuclear Complete	Headed by woman	Extended Complete	Headed by woman	Mixed Complete	Headed by woman
ARGENTINA	Indigent	100.0	...	2.2	64.0	6.4	16.9	6.4
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	0.8	22.5	48.9	8.8	10.0	6.4	...	0.4
	Nonpoor	100.0	14.4	14.9	45.6	6.7	9.6	4.2	0.5	0.5
BOLIVIA	Indigent	100.0	4.3	3.5	62.9	11.1	11.1	6.1	0.5	0.1
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	3.5	3.6	66.0	8.8	10.9	5.8	0.4	0.6
	Nonpoor	100.0	9.0	7.8	53.0	7.2	15.2	5.4	1.8	0.4
BRAZIL	Indigent	100.0	1.0	4.2	71.6	5.4	12.6	4.0	1.0	0.2
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	7.6	8.8	58.4	5.1	15.0	3.8	1.2	0.1
	Nonpoor	100.0	8.8	12.8	53.9	4.8	14.0	3.0	2.4	0.3
CHILE	Indigent	100.0	4.0	3.3	56.6	9.2	16.0	9.1	1.1	0.8
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	2.2	2.6	57.7	7.9	17.6	9.9	1.4	0.7
	Nonpoor	100.0	9.5	10.9	46.1	7.3	16.5	7.4	1.5	0.9
COLOMBIA	Indigent	100.0	2.8	2.6	56.2	11.4	14.7	10.3	1.4	0.8
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	0.9	2.1	54.6	9.8	19.3	10.9	1.9	0.6
	Nonpoor	100.0	6.7	6.7	48.0	8.8	17.4	8.3	2.7	1.2
COSTA RICA	Indigent	100.0	13.6	6.4	33.5	19.1	10.1	16.5	0.7	0.2
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	2.0	4.6	56.0	9.8	14.2	11.5	1.2	0.8
	Nonpoor	100.0	5.5	7.5	52.8	9.2	15.2	7.4	1.4	1.1
HONDURAS	Indigent	100.0	2.0	1.6	42.7	14.6	18.5	15.3	3.3	2.2
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	0.7	4.0	43.5	10.9	20.1	15.8	3.6	1.4
	Nonpoor	100.0	10.8	4.7	42.6	6.3	21.2	7.9	4.8	1.7
MEXICO	Indigent	100.0	0.1	0.9	64.6	6.9	21.2	5.8	0.4	0.2
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	0.6	3.0	63.9	5.0	21.5	5.5	0.2	0.3
	Nonpoor	100.0	7.3	8.9	54.0	8.5	15.6	5.7	0.5	0.2
PANAMA	Indigent	100.0	10.8	3.5	61.0	19.6	1.0	0.8	0.1	0.7
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	5.6	5.1	65.2	17.1	1.1	0.4	1.6	0.7
	Nonpoor	100.0	13.6	12.5	55.5	11.1	1.5	1.0	1.3	0.5
PARAGUAY	Indigent	100.0	5.7	0.7	44.6	12.2	13.4	15.0	4.2	4.2
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	4.7	3.6	46.9	5.7	17.1	11.5	9.0	1.7
	Nonpoor	100.0	7.9	10.2	36.7	6.4	18.1	8.5	9.5	2.7
URUGUAY	Indigent	100.0	1.8	1.7	66.0	11.3	8.5	8.3	2.5	0.0
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	1.9	3.5	60.1	7.5	16.6	7.9	1.6	1.1
	Nonpoor	100.0	16.5	18.8	39.6	6.9	10.0	6.6	0.7	0.8
VENEZUELA ⁽¹⁾	Indigent	100.0	0.5	2.7	36.0	18.0	19.5	23.4
	Nonindigent poor	100.0	6.3	3.0	44.4	7.6	24.4	14.5
	Nonpoor	100.0	5.1	5.4	45.8	6.9	26.0	10.7

Notes : (1) Includes mixed and extended families.



The demographic profile of Latin American women, which account for half of the region's population (50.2% in 1990), has changed considerably over the past forty years, and they have played a significant role in the global socio-demographic dynamics.

Some of the main modifications include a sharp drop in the number of children that women have during their childbearing years; within a framework of migration from rural to urban areas, women show higher rates of urban migration; their status as partners in consensual unions, separated women or widows, as well as their role as heads of household, which combined with the last two marital statuses mentioned above implies an increasing proportion of women as heads of single-parental and single-person households.

Latin America's population almost tripled between 1950 and 1990 from 156 to 421 million inhabitants for the 19 countries where more than 95% of Latin Americans live.

Growth was somewhat sharper in the case of women, whose proportion raised from 49.7% of the total population in 1950 to the current 50.2%. Projections for the year 2000 indicate that women will continue to account for a similar or slightly higher percentage.

The population dynamic can be explained almost entirely by the evolution of birth and death rates,

because net migration to and from the region has had very little weight.

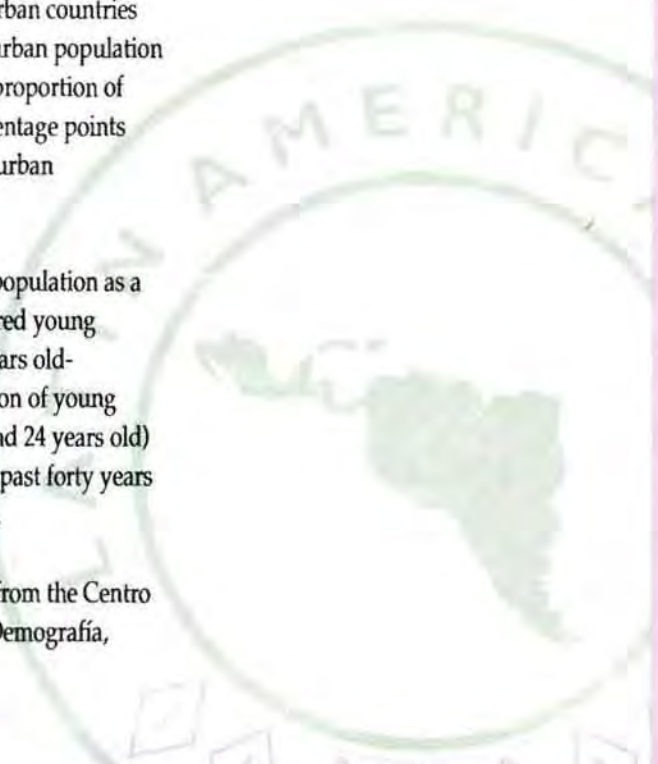
Until the mid-seventies the natural growth rate increased (births minus deaths) because of the rise in fertility rates and the significant reduction in death rates. After that the population's natural growth started to slow down, decreasing from 27 to 20 per thousand in the early nineties as a result of significant simultaneous drops in fertility and mortality.

Physical distribution is extremely uneven. Seventy percent of the region's total population as well as an equal proportion of women live in Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, and Mexico. Fifteen percent of the region's total population is concentrated in southeast Brazil, which accounts for 44% of Brazil's population.

Both predominantly rural countries with less than 50% urban population, and predominantly urban countries with more than 80% urban population have a female urban proportion of between 2 and 4 percentage points higher than the male urban proportion.

The Latin American population as a whole can be considered young - 35.8% is under 15 years old - although the proportion of young people (between 15 and 24 years old) has declined over the past forty years (it was 40.3% in 1950).

According to studies from the Centro Latinoamericano de Demografía,



CELADE, countries may be grouped by the characteristics that determine their stage of demographic transition.

Bolivia is in an early stage of demographic transition and El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay have reached a moderate transition stage because of a high birth rate and a moderate death rate, which results in high natural growth of about 3% per year.

Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, Peru, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela are undergoing full demographic transition with a moderate birth rate and moderate-to-low mortality, which implies moderate natural growth of about 2% per year.

Argentina, Chile, Cuba and Uruguay are in an advanced stage of demographic transition, showing a trend towards a mature population and slower growth, with low birth and low or moderate death rates, which results in low natural growth of about 1% per year.

Latin American women have substantially reduced their fertility. The average number of children per woman during childbearing years was reduced to 3 in the early nineties, from an average of 5 in the early seventies and nearly 6 in the early fifties.

However, the countries that are in an early or moderate stage of demographic transition still have an average global fertility rate of more than 4 children per woman, which is

still much lower than the average of 7 children per woman that those countries used to have in the fifties.

The countries that are undergoing full demographic transition currently have an average of between 2.7 and 3.5 children per woman, and the countries in an advanced stage of demographic transition show the lowest global fertility rates, reaching an average of between 2 and 2.8 children per woman in the 1990-95 period.

These global fertility rates are the result of a series of factors, like the woman's age at the birth of her first child, education level, socioeconomic level and whether she lives in a rural or urban area.

The higher the level of woman's schooling the older they are when they have their first child. This implies that 50% of the women in the region without schooling have their first child before they are 20 years old, whereas this age rises to more than 23 years old in the case of women with a high-school education.

Education has an influence on the age when women have their first child, and it also has a direct effect on the global fertility rate.

At present Latin American women without schooling have an average of 6 to 7 children per woman, whereas women with an incomplete primary education have an average of between 5 and 6 children. The average number of children falls to between 3 and 4.5 children per

woman of childbearing age in women with a full primary education, and it drops to between 2 and 3 in women with some level of high-school education.

The fertility rate has fallen in all age groups. The most remarkable drop occurred in women 30 years old or more, which increased the relative weight of young mothers. This determined that the region's most fertile age group in the 1990-95 period was women in the 20-24 age group with 173 births per one thousand women compared to 162 births per thousand woman in the 25-29 age group. During the 1970-75 period, the same age groups had 233 and 249 births per thousand women, respectively.

Women who live in rural areas have a higher fertility rate, exceeding the urban average by more than 2 children in most of the countries. Whereas in urban areas women have an average of between 3 and 4 children per woman, in rural areas the average rises to between 5 and 6 children.

In Latin America there is an indigenous population of approximately 40 million people, which represents almost 10% of the total population. The indigenous population is highly concentrated in some countries in the region like Bolivia, Guatemala, Peru, Ecuador and Mexico, which account for 35 million of the total.

In the different ethnic groups that predominate among the Latin

American indigenous population, women represent between 48% and 50.5%.

With regard to marital status, most Latin American women live with a significant other, when considering married women and unmarried women living in consensual unions as a whole, although marriage is declining as shown in eight of the thirteen countries analyzed.

Married men and women were a majority in fewer than half of the countries in the late eighties, showing a downward trend when compared to the situation in the early seventies. The proportion of married women ranges between 52% in Argentina and 22% in Cuba.

The marital status categories that increased over the period were women living in consensual unions, and separated or divorced women.

Women in consensual unions account for more than one out of every five in Cuba, Nicaragua, Panama and the Dominican Republic.

The region shows a growing trend toward divorce; seven out of ten countries in the region increased the divorce rate between 1980 and 1990.

In the separated or widowed category, women account for a higher proportion than men. The percentages of separated women double or triple those of men in all the countries in the region. Widows, on the other hand, triple or quadruple the percentage of widowers.

Besides some problems in stating the correct marital status, the most plausible reasons for this are that women stay separated longer than men do, and there are more widows than widowers because women live longer.

When analyzing the population's marital status by age, we clearly see the trend among women to enter into a marital or consensual union at a younger age than men, and the significantly higher number of widows after 60 years of age.

In most Latin American countries, there is a clear downward trend in the size of family. This is the result of several factors like the reduction in the number of children and multigenerational households, as well as the increase in single-parent families and people who live alone.

Family composition shows a marked predominance of nuclear households, although their heterogeneity increased due to the proliferation of single-parent families and families made up of both spouses but with no children, although complete nuclear families, with both spouses and children, continue to predominate in this category.

There is growing proportion of Latin American households with women heads of household, reaching almost one out of every four in the region's urban areas. This proportion increased from approximately 21% in 1980 to about 23% in 1990.

Among the factors that cause an increase in households headed by women, we can mention the increase in single-parent families, which usually are headed by young or more mature women, and the growth of single-person households due to the aging population, together with women's greater longevity and their lower propensity compared to men to enter into a marital or consensual union again.

In terms of marital status, women heads of household are mainly divorced, widowed or single, whereas males are predominantly married or living in consensual union.

POPULATION

According to estimates from the Centro Latinoamericano de Demografía, CELADE (Latin American Demography Center), women accounted for approximately half (50.2%) of the total population in 1990 in 19 Latin American countries.

From this percentage we can derive that 211.2 million women and 209.8 million men lived in those countries in 1990.

In nine of the 19 countries mentioned above the proportion of women was more than 50% in 1990, whereas in the remaining 10 countries the percentage was between 49% and 50%.

The proportion reached by women in 1990 is slightly higher than it was in 1950, when for the same group of countries, women accounted for 49.7% of the total population.

Projections for the year 2000 indicate that women will continue to represent between 50.2% and 50.3% of the total population.

Distribution among countries and within the countries themselves is extremely uneven. The four countries with the highest population, Argentina, Brazil, Colombia and Mexico concentrate 70% of the region's total population and an equal proportion of women. The southeast of Brazil alone accounts for 15% of the region's total population and 44% of the country's population.

During the 1950-90 period the total number of women in the region

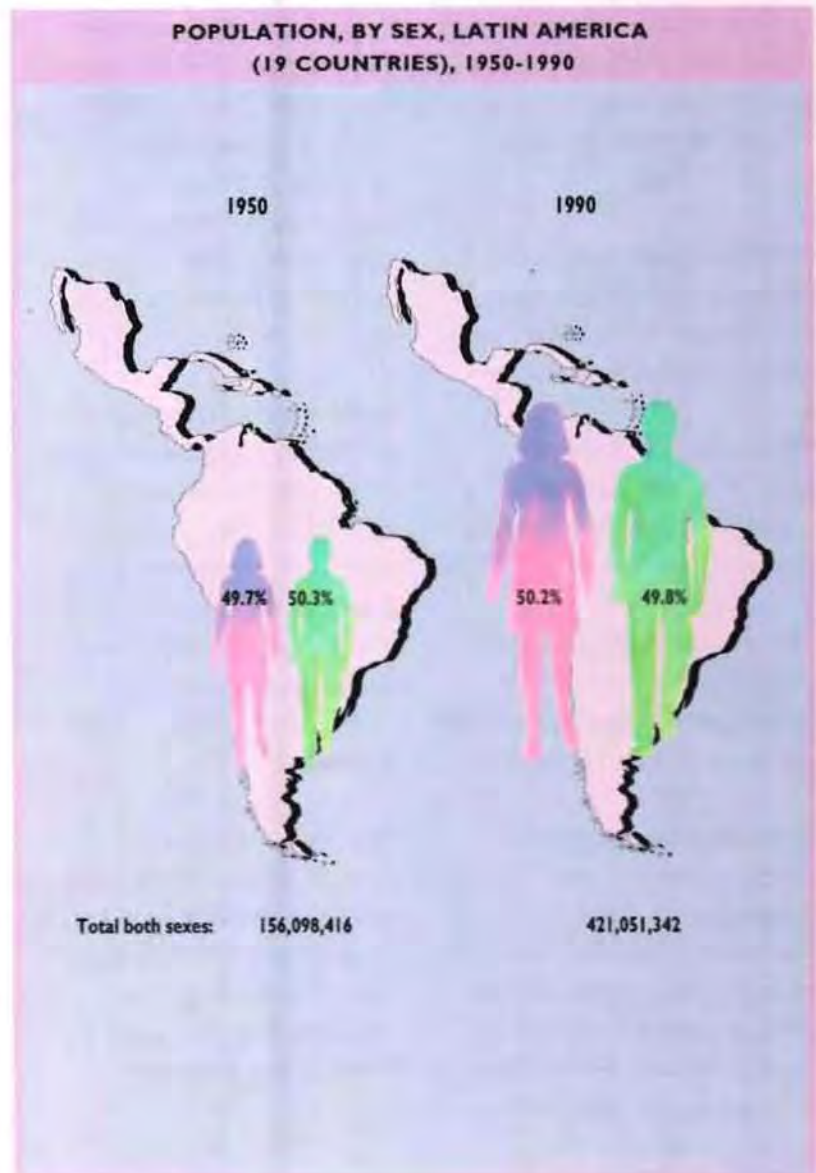
almost tripled, from 77.6 million to 211.2 million. The situation was similar for the total population of those Latin American countries which increased from 156.1 million to 421.1 million.

The growth of the total population can be explained almost entirely by the evolution of birth and death rates. Net migration to and from the region has very little weight.

Since the mid-fifties migration from the region to other parts of the world has been about 7 per every ten thousand inhabitants.

Until the mid-seventies there was an increase in the natural growth rate (births minus deaths) in Latin America due to an increase in fertility rates and a significant reduction in death rates.

As of that decade the population's natural growth started to decline from a level of 27 per thousand to 20 per thousand at the beginning of the nineties, as a result of significant simultaneous reductions in fertility and mortality.



The drop in the demographic growth rate for Latin America as a whole was seen mainly in the 0-14 age group, which is affected more rapidly by a decline in fertility. At the beginning of the fifties this age group was growing at a rate of 33.2 per thousand inhabitants whereas in the nineties the rate has dropped to 6.1 per thousand.

There was an increase in the growth rate of the 15-49 age group between the fifties (23.1 per thousand) and the seventies (29.8 per thousand) followed by a decline in the nineties to a rate similar to the early fifties (23.8 per thousand).

In the 50 and over age group there was a slight decrease in the growth rate between the early fifties (29.2 per thousand) and the nineties (28.3 per thousand).

The level and the dynamics of the growth rate are similar for men and women for the three age groups.

When analyzing the different countries, the most outstanding exceptions are, on the one hand, Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay, where the growth rate of the nineties continues to be over 20 per thousand inhabitants for the three age groups. On the other hand, Argentina and Uruguay show a decline in the growth rate of the 0-14 age group as of the nineties.

POPULATION, BY SEX, 1950-1990

Country		Both sexes	Men	Women	♀/Total %
ARGENTINA	1950	17,150,336	8,826,955	8,323,381	48.5
	1970	23,962,314	12,018,839	11,943,475	49.8
	1990	32,546,517	15,988,014	16,558,503	50.9
BOLIVIA	1950	2,713,630	1,353,350	1,360,280	50.1
	1970	4,211,625	2,077,461	2,134,164	50.7
	1990	6,572,770	3,253,722	3,319,048	50.5
BRAZIL	1950	53,443,762	26,734,993	26,708,769	50.0
	1970	95,846,509	47,983,848	47,862,661	49.9
	1990	148,477,269	74,102,047	74,375,222	50.1
CHILE	1950	6,081,931	3,012,460	3,069,471	50.5
	1970	9,496,014	4,686,065	4,809,949	50.7
	1990	13,099,513	6,471,912	6,627,601	50.6
COLOMBIA	1950	11,946,422	5,933,104	6,013,318	50.3
	1970	21,360,253	10,620,510	10,739,743	50.3
	1990	32,299,842	16,028,402	16,271,440	50.4
COSTA RICA	1950	861,780	432,538	429,242	49.8
	1970	1,730,778	872,934	857,844	49.6
	1990	3,034,629	1,534,364	1,500,265	49.4
CUBA	1950	5,850,365	3,053,395	2,796,970	47.8
	1970	8,519,577	4,341,457	4,178,120	49.0
	1990	10,598,083	5,327,034	5,271,049	49.7
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	1950	2,352,968	1,199,314	1,153,654	49.0
	1970	4,422,757	2,244,637	2,178,120	49.2
	1990	7,110,389	3,612,874	3,497,515	49.2
ECUADOR	1950	3,387,358	1,683,615	1,703,743	50.3
	1970	5,969,918	2,996,812	2,973,106	49.8
	1990	10,264,137	5,159,900	5,104,237	49.7
EL SALVADOR	1950	1,939,800	968,168	971,632	50.1
	1970	3,588,423	1,804,137	1,784,286	49.7
	1990	5,171,581	2,532,790	2,638,791	51.0
GUATEMALA	1950	2,968,976	1,499,898	1,469,078	49.5
	1970	5,246,186	2,657,682	2,588,504	49.3
	1990	9,197,345	4,646,725	4,550,620	49.5
HONDURAS	1950	1,379,793	694,715	685,078	49.7
	1970	2,592,184	1,302,523	1,289,661	49.8
	1990	4,878,769	2,456,096	2,422,673	49.7
MEXICO	1950	27,737,102	13,860,231	13,876,871	50.0
	1970	50,596,206	25,304,847	25,291,359	50.0
	1990	83,226,037	41,334,575	41,891,462	50.3
NICARAGUA	1950	1,108,894	551,106	557,788	50.3
	1970	2,063,195	1,027,384	1,035,811	50.2
	1990	3,676,167	1,757,031	1,919,136	52.2
PANAMA	1950	860,091	440,643	419,448	48.8
	1970	1,506,307	768,905	737,402	49.0
	1990	2,397,535	1,214,525	1,183,010	49.3
PARAGUAY	1950	1,350,535	668,365	682,170	50.5
	1970	2,351,484	1,175,631	1,175,853	50.0
	1990	4,316,515	2,187,118	2,129,397	49.3
PERU	1950	7,632,460	3,842,187	3,790,273	49.7
	1970	13,192,780	6,648,759	6,544,021	49.6
	1990	21,588,181	10,865,528	10,722,653	49.7
URUGUAY	1950	2,238,505	1,132,284	1,106,221	49.4
	1970	2,808,426	1,396,407	1,412,019	50.3
	1990	3,094,214	1,508,425	1,585,789	51.3
VENEZUELA	1950	5,093,708	2,579,313	2,514,395	49.4
	1970	10,721,092	5,428,664	5,292,428	49.4
	1990	19,501,849	9,833,408	9,668,441	49.6
LATIN AMERICA (19 countries)	1950	156,098,416	78,466,434	77,631,982	49.7
	1970	270,186,028	135,357,502	134,828,526	49.9
	1990	421,051,342	209,814,490	211,236,852	50.2

Source: CELADE Data Base, Santiago, Chile, September 1994.

AGES OF THE POPULATION

Latin America's population as a whole can be classified as young -35.8% is under 15 years of age- although the 0-14 age group has declined over the past forty years (it was 40.3% in 1950).

Differences according to sex are minimal and are observed at both ends of the population's age structure. There are more men in the youngest age group -36.4% compared to 35.2% for women- whereas women outnumber men in the 50 or over age group (14% compared to 12.8% for men).

When analyzing the different countries, there is a higher proportion of young people in Bolivia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay, where more than 40% of the population was still in the 0-14 age group in 1990, compared to a regional percentage of 35.8%.

According to CELADE, these countries are still in a stage of incipient demographic transition (Bolivia) or moderate transition (El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay), as a result of a high birth rate and moderate death rate, which results in high natural growth of 3% per year.

Countries that are less young include Cuba and Uruguay, where the 0-14 age group did not exceed 26% in 1990, compared to 35.8% for the region as a whole, and children between 0-4 years old were only slightly over 8% compared to the regional figure of 12.5%. Also, in

those countries and in Argentina, the population in the 50 or over age group was more than 20% in 1990 compared to the region's percentage of only 13.4%.

Those countries together with Chile are in an advanced demographic transition stage, which means that they are evolving toward a mature population with a lower growth rate as a result of low birth rates and low-to-moderate death rates, which implies a low natural growth rate of about 1% per year.

The rest of the region's countries, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela are classified in what CELADE calls a full demographic transition stage, with a moderate birth rate and a moderate or low death rate, which results in moderate natural growth of approximately 2% per year.

AGE STRUCTURE, BY SEX LATIN AMERICA (19 COUNTRIES), 1950-1990

(Percentages with respect to total population)



AGE STRUCTURE, BY SEX, 1950-1990

(Percentages with respect to total population)⁽¹⁾

Country		Both sexes				Women				Men			
		0-4 age group	5-14 age group	15-49 age group	50 years and older	0-4 age group	5-14 age group	15-49 age group	50 years and older	0-4 age group	5-14 age group	15-49 age group	50 years and older
ARGENTINA	1950	11.4	19.2	54.1	15.4	11.5	19.5	54.1	15.0	11.2	18.9	54.1	15.7
	1970	10.3	19.1	50.3	20.3	10.1	18.9	49.9	21.0	10.4	19.3	50.6	19.7
	1990	10.3	20.3	47.6	21.8	9.9	19.7	46.9	23.4	10.6	21.0	48.2	20.2
BOLIVIA	1950	16.9	24.5	46.8	11.8	16.7	24.3	46.7	12.3	17.1	24.7	46.9	11.3
	1970	17.0	25.9	45.8	11.3	16.7	25.7	45.9	11.8	17.4	26.2	45.7	10.8
	1990	15.5	25.7	47.1	11.7	15.1	25.2	47.4	12.3	15.9	26.2	46.8	11.1
BRAZIL	1950	16.9	25.1	48.4	9.6	16.7	24.8	48.4	10.1	17.1	25.4	48.3	9.2
	1970	15.2	27.1	46.6	11.1	15.0	27.0	46.5	11.5	15.3	27.2	46.7	10.8
	1990	11.8	22.6	52.0	13.6	11.7	22.4	51.9	13.9	12.0	22.7	52.0	13.3
CHILE	1950	14.3	22.5	48.8	14.5	14.0	22.1	48.9	15.1	14.5	22.9	48.7	13.9
	1970	13.6	25.6	46.4	14.4	13.3	25.1	46.1	15.5	13.9	26.2	46.6	13.3
	1990	11.0	19.1	53.7	16.3	10.6	18.6	53.0	17.8	11.3	19.7	54.3	14.7
COLOMBIA	1950	17.9	24.7	46.2	11.1	17.6	24.4	46.1	11.9	18.3	25.1	46.2	10.4
	1970	17.5	28.5	43.5	10.6	17.2	28.0	43.8	11.1	17.9	29.0	43.2	10.0
	1990	11.9	23.4	53.1	11.7	11.6	22.9	53.2	12.3	12.2	24.0	52.9	11.0
COSTA RICA	1950	18.1	25.2	45.7	11.0	17.9	25.0	45.7	11.5	18.4	25.4	45.7	10.5
	1970	16.5	29.6	44.0	10.0	16.3	29.4	44.0	10.3	16.6	29.8	44.0	9.6
	1990	13.4	23.1	51.4	12.2	13.2	22.9	51.2	12.7	13.5	23.4	51.5	11.6
CUBA	1950	13.4	22.4	49.7	14.5	14.1	23.4	49.8	12.8	12.8	21.5	49.6	16.1
	1970	14.3	22.7	45.8	17.2	14.2	23.0	46.5	16.4	14.3	22.5	45.1	18.1
	1990	8.2	14.6	56.9	20.2	8.1	14.4	57.0	20.6	8.4	14.9	56.8	19.9
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	1950	18.6	25.9	44.7	10.8	18.7	26.2	44.2	10.8	18.5	25.6	45.2	10.7
	1970	18.1	29.2	43.3	9.4	18.1	29.2	43.3	9.3	18.1	29.1	43.2	9.5
	1990	13.3	23.7	51.8	11.2	13.3	23.8	51.6	11.3	13.4	23.6	51.9	11.1
ECUADOR	1950	15.8	23.7	45.4	15.1	15.5	23.3	45.2	16.0	16.1	24.1	45.6	14.2
	1970	17.4	27.0	43.8	11.8	17.2	26.7	43.7	12.4	17.6	27.2	43.9	11.3
	1990	13.7	25.3	49.4	11.7	13.5	25.1	49.3	12.2	13.8	25.5	49.4	11.2
EL SALVADOR	1950	16.8	26.0	47.3	9.9	16.6	25.7	47.4	10.3	17.0	26.3	47.2	9.5
	1970	18.2	28.2	43.9	9.6	18.1	28.0	43.8	10.1	18.4	28.5	43.9	9.1
	1990	15.2	28.3	45.2	11.3	14.6	27.2	46.2	11.9	15.8	29.4	44.1	10.7
GUATEMALA	1950	18.4	25.7	46.5	9.5	18.3	25.6	46.4	9.7	18.5	25.8	46.5	9.2
	1970	18.2	27.7	45.0	9.1	18.1	27.6	44.9	9.3	18.2	27.8	45.1	8.9
	1990	17.5	28.0	44.4	10.1	17.3	27.7	44.6	10.4	17.6	28.2	44.3	9.9
HONDURAS	1950	18.3	26.8	46.1	8.8	18.1	26.6	46.0	9.4	18.6	27.0	46.1	8.3
	1970	19.6	28.5	43.2	8.7	19.4	28.4	43.1	9.1	19.8	28.7	43.2	8.3
	1990	17.1	28.1	45.5	9.3	16.9	27.8	45.6	9.7	17.3	28.3	45.5	8.9
MEXICO	1950	17.0	25.0	44.0	14.0	16.8	24.5	43.8	14.9	17.2	25.5	44.1	13.2
	1970	18.6	27.9	42.8	10.7	18.3	27.6	42.7	11.3	18.9	28.2	42.9	10.0
	1990	13.2	25.4	50.2	11.2	12.9	24.8	50.6	11.8	13.6	25.9	49.9	10.6
NICARAGUA	1950	18.2	25.8	45.7	10.3	17.7	25.3	46.0	10.9	18.6	26.4	45.3	9.7
	1970	19.3	29.0	43.2	8.4	19.0	28.7	43.3	9.1	19.7	29.4	43.1	7.8
	1990	18.6	29.3	43.0	9.1	17.5	27.8	45.3	9.4	19.8	30.8	40.4	8.9
PANAMA	1950	16.1	24.1	46.3	13.4	16.2	24.4	45.8	13.6	16.1	23.8	46.8	13.3
	1970	17.0	26.9	43.8	12.2	17.0	27.0	43.9	12.0	17.0	26.8	43.8	12.4
	1990	12.5	22.7	51.5	13.2	12.4	22.6	51.8	13.2	12.7	22.9	51.3	13.2
PARAGUAY	1950	16.4	26.5	46.8	10.3	16.1	26.3	47.0	10.6	16.8	26.7	46.6	9.9
	1970	17.2	29.3	43.1	10.5	16.8	28.8	43.3	11.1	17.5	29.8	42.8	9.9
	1990	16.0	24.7	49.0	10.3	15.9	24.6	48.5	11.0	16.1	24.9	49.4	9.6
PERU	1950	16.8	24.8	46.3	12.1	16.7	24.6	46.1	12.7	16.9	24.9	46.6	11.6
	1970	17.1	26.9	44.9	11.1	17.0	26.7	44.8	11.6	17.3	27.1	45.1	10.5
	1990	12.9	24.9	50.3	12.0	12.7	24.7	50.1	12.6	13.0	25.1	50.5	11.4
URUGUAY	1950	9.8	18.1	51.3	20.8	9.9	18.1	50.7	21.3	9.8	18.0	51.9	20.4
	1970	9.5	18.4	49.2	22.9	9.2	18.0	48.8	24.0	9.7	18.9	49.5	21.9
	1990	8.4	17.4	47.3	26.9	8.0	16.6	46.6	28.7	8.8	18.2	48.1	24.9
VENEZUELA	1950	18.4	25.1	47.4	9.1	18.2	24.9	47.5	9.4	18.5	25.3	47.4	8.8
	1970	17.2	28.4	44.4	9.9	17.1	28.2	44.4	10.3	17.4	28.6	44.5	9.6
	1990	13.8	24.3	50.7	11.1	13.6	24.1	50.6	11.7	14.0	24.6	50.8	10.6
LATIN AMERICA	1950	16.2	24.1	47.8	12.0	16.0	23.9	47.7	12.4	16.3	24.3	47.8	11.6
	1970	15.9	26.5	45.5	12.1	15.7	26.3	45.4	12.5	16.1	26.7	45.5	11.6
	1990	12.5	23.3	50.8	13.4	12.2	23.0	50.8	14.0	12.7	23.7	50.8	12.8

Note: (1) In some cases the sum is not 100 because decimals are rounded off.

The changes in the age structure of the population between 1950 and 1990 can be clearly seen in the population pyramids. The pyramids show graphically how the population's age structure has changed in the different countries according to variations in their birth and death rates.

The marked change in the form of Latin America's population pyramid over the past forty years summarizes the changes in the percentages of each age group. During this period, the pyramid's base was reduced for both sexes, whereas its middle and upper sections expanded. The upper section corresponds to the older age group.

The most significant change because of its effects on other sectors (employment, health, education) is the absolute and relative growth in the 15-29 age group. This, plus the slow generation of new jobs in the

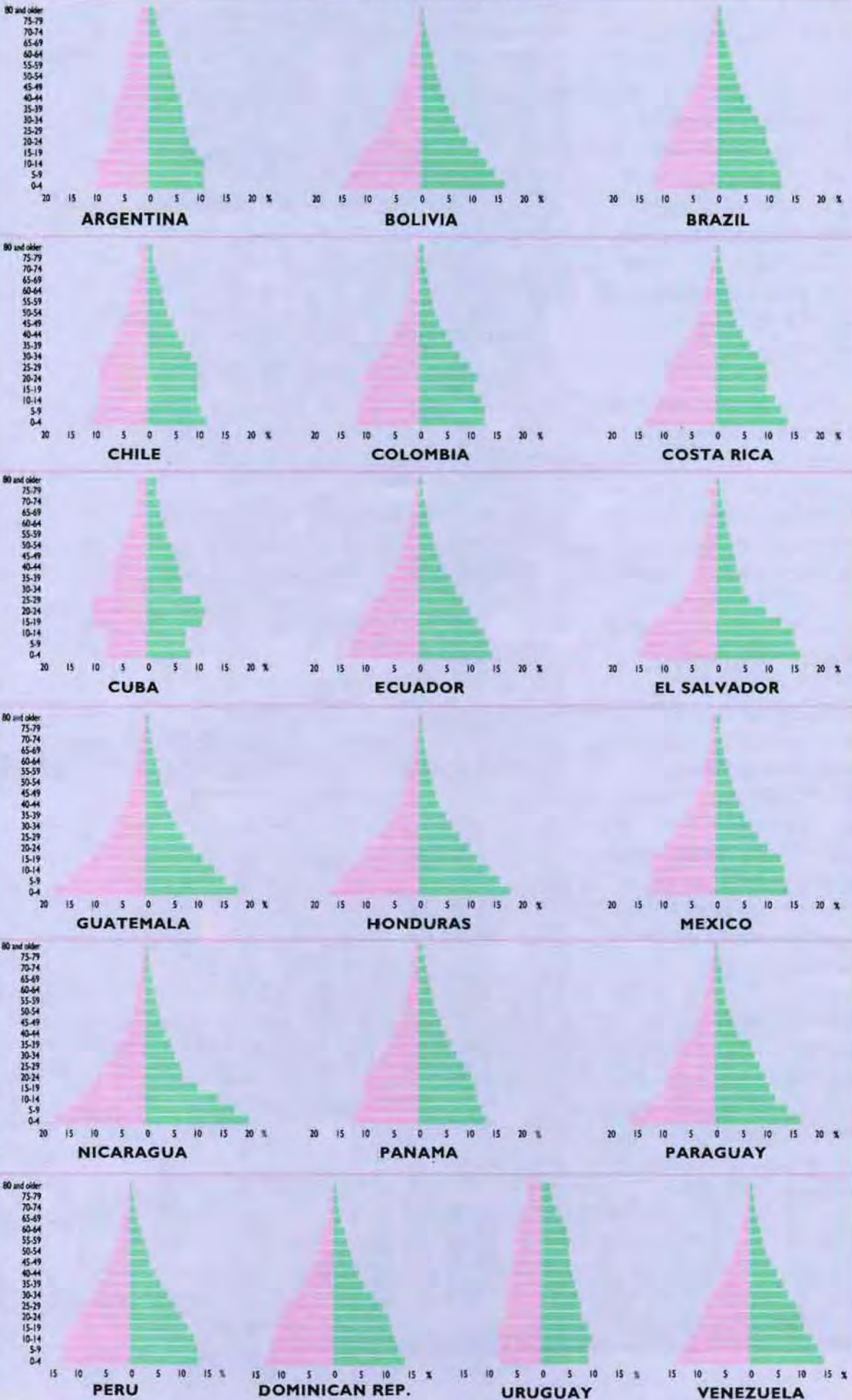
economy's formal sector have increased unemployment, especially for women, who have increased their participation in economic activity significantly.

The rapid growth in the 60 and over age group, especially in countries that are in an advanced stage of demographic transition, has increasing demands on the social security systems and has aggravated the problems of poverty in that age group. Some countries have focussed their social policies on that age group.

The change in Latin America's age structure has also resulted in a change in the frequency of certain diseases, because the morbidity profile is directly related not only to the countries' income but also to the population's age structure. Thus, demographic changes have played an important role in the so-called epidemiological transition.



POPULATION PYRAMIDS, 1990



Source : CELADE, Data Base, Santiago., Chile, September 1994.

FERTILITY

Latin American women have substantially reduced their fertility. The global rate, which is the average number of children per woman during childbearing years, declined to an average of 3 in the early nineties from an average of 5 in the early seventies and almost 6 in the early fifties.

In countries that are in an incipient or moderate stage of demographic transition (Bolivia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay), women still have a global fertility rate of more than 4 children on average in the nineties. This is still much lower than the average of 7 children per woman in those countries in the fifties.

In countries that are in a full transition stage (Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela), women predominantly have an average of between 3 and 3.5 children, with the exception of Brazil, Colombia and Panama where the average is currently between 2.7 and 2.9 children.

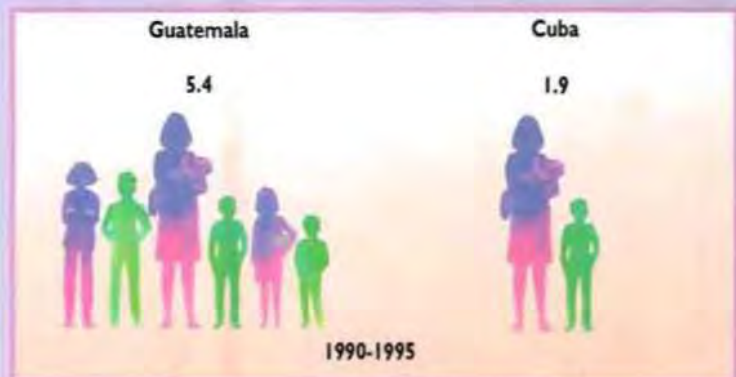
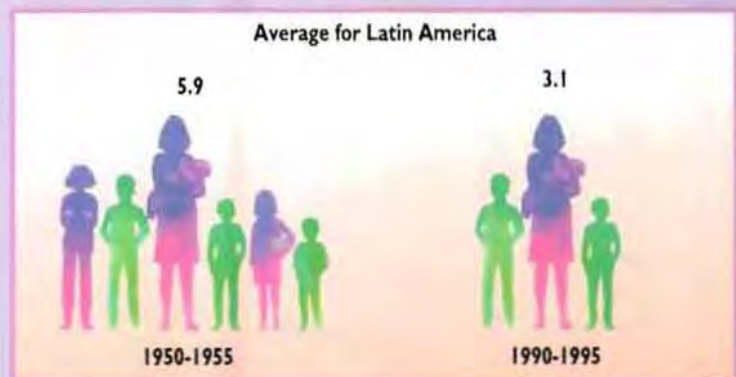
As was to be expected, countries in an advanced stage of demographic transition (Argentina, Chile, Cuba and Uruguay) have lower global fertility rates, reaching an average of between 2 and 2.8 children per woman in the 1990-95 period.

CHANGES IN FERTILITY, 1950-1995

(Number of children per woman)⁽¹⁾

Country	1950-1955	1970-1975	1990-1995
GUATEMALA	7.1	6.5	5.4
NICARAGUA	7.4	6.8	5.0
HONDURAS	7.5	7.1	4.9
BOLIVIA	6.8	6.5	4.6
PARAGUAY	6.8	5.7	4.3
EL SALVADOR	6.5	6.1	4.0
PERU	6.9	6.0	3.6
ECUADOR	6.7	6.0	3.5
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	7.4	5.6	3.3
MEXICO	6.8	6.4	3.2
COSTA RICA	6.7	4.3	3.1
VENEZUELA	6.5	5.0	3.1
PANAMA	5.7	4.9	2.9
ARGENTINA	3.2	3.2	2.8
BRAZIL	6.2	4.7	2.8
CHILE	5.1	3.6	2.7
COLOMBIA	6.8	4.7	2.7
URUGUAY	2.7	3.0	2.3
CUBA	4.1	3.6	1.9
LATIN AMERICA	5.9	5.0	3.1

Note: (1) Global fertility rate.



The global fertility rates are useful averages to compare countries and analyze the evolution over time in each country and between groups in the countries. The fertility rates are the result of a series of factors like age at the birth of the first child, schooling, socioeconomic level, urban and rural areas, and others that will be examined below.

Fifty percent of the women in Guatemala have their first child before they are 20 years old (the woman's average age at the birth of her first child is 19.9 years old),

whereas in Colombia 50% of the women have their first child before they are 22 years old. The other countries in the region for which information is available are located between these two average ages at the birth of the first child.

When analyzing schooling, it is confirmed that the higher the level of the woman's schooling the older they are when they have their first child. This means that 50% of women without schooling have their first child before they are 20 years old, whereas the age increases to more

than 23 for women with a high-school education.

In the countries where information was available, the average age when women have their first child when they have a high-school education compared to women with no schooling showed the biggest differences in Ecuador and Mexico, where there was a difference of more than 5 years between the two groups. The smallest differences were recorded in Bolivia and Peru, where the difference was a little more than 2 years.

AVERAGE AGE OF WOMEN AT THE BIRTH OF THEIR FIRST CHILD IN THE 25-49 AGE GROUP, BY SCHOOLING LEVEL, IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	Year	Average age	Schooling ⁽¹⁾				Difference no schooling-high-school education
			No schooling	Incompleted primary education	Completed primary education	High-school education	
BOLIVIA	1989	21.0	20.7	20.4	20.6	23.1	2.4
BRAZL (Northeast)	1991	21.7	20.4	20.8	21.4	25.0	4.6
COLOMBIA	1990	22.1	19.6	—20.7—		23.3	3.7
DOMINICAN REP.	1991	20.9	18.7	18.6	19.9	22.8	4.1
ECUADOR	1987	21.0	19.6	20.3	22.0	25.4	5.8
GUATEMALA	1987	19.9	19.2	19.5	21.2	23.6	4.4
MEXICO	1987	21.0	18.9	19.8	21.6	24.1	5.2
PARAGUAY	1990	21.7	19.6	20.3	21.7	24.5	4.9
PERU	1992	21.7	19.6	19.8	—21.9—		2.3

Note : (1) These levels vary according to the structure of the educational system in each country.

Source : PAHO, Las condiciones de salud en las Américas (Health Conditions in the Americas), 1994 Edition, PAHO, Washington D.C. 1994, Scientific Publication N° 549, based on Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) conducted by national institutions in each country and coordinated by the Institute for Resource Development/Macro Systems (1985-1991), Maryland, U.S.A.

Women in Latin America have shown a reduction in fertility for all age groups, with the most notable drops being in the 30 or over age group. This has increased the relative weight of young mothers.

Between 1970-75 and 1990-95 the birth rate for the 30-34 age group of women in Latin America decreased from 203 to 114 per every thousand women, it dropped from 142 to 68 for the 34-49 age group and it decreased from 67 to 25 per thousand women for the 40-44 age group.

Regarding fertility per age group, the group with the highest fertility in the region in the 1990-95 period was the

20-24 age group, with 173 births per thousand women compared to 162 births per every thousand women for the 25-29 age group. In the 1970-75 period, there were 233 and 249 births per thousand women, respectively, for the same age groups.

There are still big differences between countries for both groups, ages 20-24 and 25-29. For countries in an incipient or moderate transition stage (Bolivia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay), there are generally more than 200 births per thousand women, compared to averages of between 172 and 162 per thousand women for the region as a whole.

Although global fertility declined between the sixties and nineties for the 15-19 age group from 90 to 68 births per thousand women, countries in an incipient or moderate demographic transition stage still have more than 100 births per thousand women. This is the case of Nicaragua with 153 births per thousand women in the 15-19 age group, El Salvador with 131, Honduras with 127 and Guatemala with 123.

FERTILITY, BY AGE GROUPS, 1970-1995

(Number of births per thousand women)

Country	5-19 age group		20-24 age group		25-29 age group		30-34 age group		35-39 age group		40-44 age group		45-49 age group	
	70/75	90/95	70/75	90/95	70/75	90/95	70/75	90/95	70/75	90/95	70/75	90/95	70/75	90/95
ARGENTINA	68	66	163	151	172	154	124	108	72	58	25	18	6	3
BOLIVIA	95	83	272	223	303	226	272	177	209	122	109	63	40	19
BRAZIL	68	41	211	154	239	160	195	110	140	62	68	22	19	2
CHILE	84	66	196	155	182	144	137	96	81	52	39	17	7	2
COLOMBIA	82	71	220	150	222	134	184	93	139	56	67	24	20	6
COSTA RICA	106	93	223	173	200	155	156	114	118	68	55	23	10	2
CUBA	141	82	195	131	165	97	111	47	67	17	27	3	5	0
DOMINICAN REP.	117	70	282	198	262	176	226	122	159	72	65	23	14	6
ECUADOR	120	79	265	176	281	169	241	132	179	91	90	45	25	12
EL SALVADOR	151	131	299	228	289	188	234	134	153	85	81	39	14	3
GUATEMALA	143	123	304	262	301	262	256	212	184	142	84	61	18	11
HONDURAS	151	127	305	252	320	219	286	179	212	12	116	68	21	14
MEXICO	110	88	288	194	317	156	264	105	183	65	88	20	23	4
NICARAGUA	187	153	308	25	313	242	256	181	190	120	81	45	22	10
PANAMA	133	83	270	171	245	146	176	95	114	56	40	20	9	4
PARAGUAY	88	76	237	187	268	205	240	181	182	135	96	70	20	15
PERU	86	68	247	182	292	187	266	140	201	97	89	33	19	6
URUGUAY	65	60	165	131	163	127	115	86	66	46	22	14	4	1
VENEZUELA	116	71	265	174	247	161	180	113	120	70	52	30	15	7
LATIN AMERICA	90	68	233	173	249	162	203	114	142	68	67	25	18	4

There is a direct and significant influence of the educational level on fertility, as well as a considerable effect on the age at which the first child is born, as has been already mentioned.

With very few exceptions, women without schooling in Latin America in 1990 had an average of between 6 and 7 children per woman, whereas women with incomplete primary education had an average of 5 to 6 children.

Likewise, complete primary education in most countries reduces the average to between 3 and 4.5 children per woman of childbearing age, and it declines to between 2 and 3 children when the woman has some level of high-school education. The main exceptions are Colombia and Uruguay which have lower fertility rates at each educational level. Nevertheless, the relationship between education and fertility holds true.

Women living in rural areas have a higher fertility rate than women living in urban areas by more than 2 children in most countries. In urban areas the average number of children is between 3 and 4 children per woman compared to rural areas where it rises to between 5 and 6 children.

The biggest urban-rural differences are recorded in Peru, Honduras and Mexico, and the smallest differences in fertility between the two areas are seen in Uruguay, Chile and Costa Rica.

FERTILITY BY SCHOOLING LEVEL IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

(Global fertility rate: children per women)

Country	Year	Schooling level ⁽¹⁾				Total
		No schooling	Incompleted primary education	Completed primary education	Higt-school education	
BOLIVIA	1989	6.1	5.9	4.5	2.9	4.9
BRAZIL (Northeast)	1991	5.8	4.4	3.5	2.8	3.7
COLOMBIA	1990	4.9	3.6	2.4	1.6	2.9
ECUADOR	1987	6.4	5.2	3.5	2.3	4.3
EL SALVADOR ⁽²⁾	1985	6.0	5.2	3.1	3.5	4.4
DOMINICAN REP.	1991	5.2	4.3	3.5	2.8	3.3
GUATEMALA	1987	7.0	5.6	3.9	2.7	5.6
MÉXICO	1987	6.1	5.7	3.7	2.5	4.0
PARAGUAY	1990	6.7	6.2	4.5	3.2	4.7
PERU	1992	7.1	5.1	3.1	1.9	3.5

Notes: (1) These levels vary according to the structure of the educations system in each country. (2) Refers to the Metropolitan Area.



FERTILITY BY URBAN OR RURAL AREA, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

(Global fertility rate: children per woman)

Country	Year	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban-rural difference
BOLIVIA	1992	4.2	6.3	5.0	2.1
BRAZIL (Northeast)	1991	2.8	5.2	3.7	2.4
COLOMBIA	1990	2.5	3.8	2.9	1.3
COSTA RICA	1985	3.0	4.1	-	1.1
CHILE	1992	2.3	3.1	2.4	0.8
DOMINICAN REP.	1991	2.8	4.4	3.3	1.6
ECUADOR	1987	3.5	5.5	4.3	2.0
EL SALVADOR ⁽¹⁾	1985	3.3	5.9	4.4	2.6
GUATEMALA	1987	4.1	6.5	5.6	2.4
HONDURAS	1988	4.1	7.0	5.5	2.9
MÉXICO	1987	3.0	5.9	4.0	2.9
NICARAGUA ⁽²⁾	1992	3.6	6.4	-	2.8
PANAMA ⁽³⁾	1976	3.2	5.4	4.1	2.2
PARAGUAY	1990	3.6	6.1	4.7	2.5
PERU	1992	2.8	6.2	3.5	3.4
URUGUAY ⁽⁴⁾	1985	2.1	2.8	2.5	0.7
VENEZUELA ⁽⁵⁾	1977-1981	3.7	6.1	4.3	2.4

Notes: (1) Refers to the Metropolitan Area. (2) Does not include Managua (3) Includes only main cities (4) Rates refer to Montevideo and the Interior, respectively (5) Urban areas are those with more than 2,500 inhabitants

PHYSICAL DISTRIBUTION

There has been a strong and sustained migration from the country to the city in all Latin American countries over the past forty years. This phenomenon has been more marked in women than in men, resulting in a higher percentage of female urban population.

Both in predominantly rural countries with an urban population of less than 50% and in countries with a high degree of urban population (more than 80%), the urban proportion of women is between 2 and 4 percentage points higher than men.

The countries that still had a rural population of more than 50% in 1990 have shown rapid urban development and concentration of the population in the larger cities.

In 1950 the urban population of Honduras was only 7% which increased to 41% in 1990; over the same period Guatemala's urban population increased from 11% to 38%. In Salvador, Paraguay and Costa Rica it increased to 47% in 1990 from 13%, 15% and 18% in 1950, respectively.

The countries with a larger urban population developed in a similar way. Uruguay increased from a 53% urban population in 1950 to 89% in 1990, and over the same period Argentina increased from 50% to 86%, Chile from 43% to 85%, and Venezuela from 31% to 83%.

URBAN POPULATION, BY SEX, 1950-1990

(Percentages)

Country		Both sexes	Women	Men
ARGENTINA	1950	50
	1970	78	80	77
	1990	86	87	84
BOLIVIA	1950	19
	1970	38	39	38
	1990	52	53	51
BRAZIL	1950	20
	1970	56	57	54
	1990	74	75	73
CHILE	1950	43
	1970	75	77	73
	1990	85	86	83
COLOMBIA	1950	23
	1970	57	60	55
	1990	69	72	67
COSTA RICA	1950	18
	1970	39	41	36
	1990	47	48	45
CUBA	1950	36
	1970	60	62	58
	1990	75	76	73
DOMINICAN REP.	1950	11
	1970	39	41	37
	1990	59	60	57
ECUADOR	1950	18
	1970	40	41	38
	1990	56	57	55
EL SALVADOR	1950	13	...	n
	1970	39	41	38
	1990	47	49	45
GUATEMALA	1950	11
	1970	34	36	3
	1990	38	39	37
HONDURAS	1950	7
	1970	28	29	27
	1990	41	43	39
MEXICO	1950	24
	1970	59	60	5
	1990	73	74	72
NICARAGUA	1950	15
	1970	47	50	44
	1990	55	56	54
PANAMA	1950	22
	1970	47	50	45
	1990	53	55	51
PARAGUAY	1950	15
	1970	37	39	35
	1990	47	49	46
PERU	1950	18
	1970	58	58	58
	1990	70	70	69
URUGUAY	1950	53
	1970	82	85	79
	1990	89	91	87
VENEZUELA	1950	31
	1970	72	73	70
	1990	83	84	82
LATIN AMERICA	1950	25
	1970	58	59	56
	1990	71	72	70

The proportion of urban population by sex in countries with an urban population of 47% in 1990, is 49% women and 45% men.

The situation is similar for all of the countries in the region, even for Uruguay, the country with the highest proportion of urban population, where the proportion is 89% for both sexes, 91% for women, and 87% for men.

When discriminating by age group, the 0-14 age group in Latin America shows a lower urban profile than other age groups, with about 67% urban population for both men and women.

Whereas 75% of the female population in the 15-49 age group and the 50 or over age group lives in urban areas in the region as a whole, the percentages for men are about 72% and 69% for the respective age groups.



POPULATION, BY SEX, AND URBAN OR RURAL AREA, ACORDING TO AGE GROUP, 1970- 1990

(Percentages)

Country		Women								Men			
		1970		1990		1970		1990		1970		1990	
		Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural		
ARGENTINA	0-14 age group	74.0	26.0	83.4	16.6	71.3	28.7	82.5	17.5				
	15-49 age group	81.5	18.5	88.2	11.8	77.9	22.1	85.1	14.9				
	50 years and older	85.5	14.5	90.5	9.5	82.0	18.0	85.6	14.4				
BOLIVIA	0-14 age group	35.2	64.8	51.0	49.0	35.3	64.7	49.6	50.4				
	15-49 age group	43.0	57.0	57.0	43.0	40.8	59.2	54.7	45.3				
	50 years and older	35.5	64.5	47.8	52.2	32.9	67.1	44.3	55.7				
BRAZIL	0-14 age group	51.8	48.2	70.4	29.6	51.0	49.0	69.8	30.2				
	15-49 age group	60.6	39.4	77.9	22.1	56.9	43.1	75.4	24.6				
	50 years and older	64.1	35.9	76.1	23.9	57.0	43.0	71.0	29.0				
CHILE	0-14 age group	72.9	27.1	83.4	16.6	72.0	28.0	83.0	17.0				
	15-49 age group	80.3	19.7	87.6	12.4	75.0	25.0	83.9	16.1				
	50 years and older	78.0	22.0	86.3	13.7	69.6	30.4	80.5	19.5				
COLOMBIA	0-14 age group	55.4	44.6	66.0	34.0	53.5	46.5	64.6	35.4				
	15-49 age group	64.0	36.0	72.2	27.8	56.8	43.2	69.4	30.6				
	50 years and older	62.3	37.7	81.7	18.3	52.8	47.2	64.7	35.3				
COSTA RICA	0-14 age group	33.8	66.2	42.5	57.5	33.6	66.4	42.6	57.4				
	15-49 age groups	45.1	54.9	50.5	49.5	39.4	60.6	46.0	54.0				
	50 years and older	51.5	48.5	55.9	44.1	38.3	61.7	47.9	52.1				
CUBA	0-14 age group	55.1	44.9	70.0	30.0	54.7	45.3	69.8	30.2				
	15-49 age group	63.7	36.3	76.8	23.2	59.8	40.2	74.2	25.8				
	50 years and older	72.3	27.7	81.7	18.3	62.9	37.1	74.7	25.3				
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	0-14 age group	37.6	62.4	56.2	43.8	35.8	64.2	55.1	44.9				
	15-49 age group	45.1	54.9	62.6	37.4	39.3	60.7	58.1	41.9				
	50 years and older	44.1	55.9	64.7	35.3	34.2	65.8	58.0	42.0				
ECUADOR	0-14 age groups	38.2	61.8	49.8	50.2	36.8	63.2	52.2	47.8				
	15-49 age group	43.8	56.2	61.4	38.6	40.0	60.0	58.9	41.1				
	50 years and older	41.2	58.8	62.1	37.9	35.9	64.1	51.1	48.9				
EL SALVADOR	0-14 age group	35.5	64.5	42.9	57.1	34.5	65.5	41.2	58.8				
	15-49 age group	45.0	55.0	52.6	47.4	40.3	59.7	47.4	52.6				
	50 years and older	50.0	50.0	57.0	43.0	41.0	59.0	47.9	52.1				
GUATEMALA	0-14 age group	31.9	68.1	34.1	65.9	31.1	68.9	33.6	66.4				
	15-49 age group	37.9	62.1	43.0	57.0	34.7	65.3	39.4	60.6				
	50 years and older	42.2	57.8	46.2	53.8	36.1	63.9	39.8	60.2				
HONDURAS	0-14 age group	25.4	74.6	37.1	62.9	24.8	75.2	36.1	63.9				
	15-49 age group	32.5	67.5	47.5	52.5	29.3	70.7	42.1	57.9				
	50 years and older	31.6	68.4	44.1	55.9	26.8	73.2	37.2	62.8				
MEXICO	0-14 age group	57.3	42.7	70.0	30.0	56.8	43.2	69.7	30.3				
	15-49 age group	62.3	37.7	76.0	24.0	59.8	40.2	73.9	26.1				
	50 years and older	62.2	37.8	74.3	25.7	56.1	43.9	69.0	31.0				
NICARAGUA	0-14 age group	45.8	54.2	51.2	48.8	44.1	55.9	50.1	49.9				
	15-49 age group	52.3	47.7	60.9	39.1	44.8	55.2	59.1	40.9				
	50 years and older	55.6	44.4	59.9	40.1	44.6	55.4	51.2	48.8				
PANAMA	0-14 age group	42.3	57.7	47.8	52.2	41.4	58.6	46.7	53.3				
	15-49 age group	55.4	44.6	59.6	40.4	47.7	52.3	53.9	46.1				
	50 years and older	54.3	45.7	56.6	43.4	47.5	52.5	48.8	51.2				
PARAGUAY	0-14 age group	32.6	67.4	41.3	58.7	31.5	68.5	40.4	59.6				
	15-49 age group	42.8	57.2	53.9	46.1	38.9	61.1	50.0	50.0				
	50 years and older	46.8	53.2	54.6	45.4	38.9	61.1	49.1	50.9				
PERU	0-14 age group	55.8	44.2	68.3	31.7	55.0	45.0	66.7	33.3				
	15-49 age group	61.2	38.8	72.7	27.3	61.6	38.4	72.3	27.7				
	50 years and older	55.8	44.2	67.9	32.1	54.7	45.3	66.3	33.7				
URUGUAY	0-14 age group	81.9	18.1	89.9	10.1	80.8	19.2	89.9	10.1				
	15-49 age group	85.1	14.9	91.1	8.9	80.8	19.2	86.0	14.0				
	50 years and older	87.6	12.4	91.4	8.6	74.3	25.7	84.6	15.4				
VENEZUELA	0-14 age group	69.9	30.1	81.0	19.0	68.8	31.3	80.2	19.8				
	15-49 age group	77.0	23.0	86.9	13.1	73.3	26.7	84.5	15.5				
	50 years and older	72.6	27.4	83.7	16.3	64.9	35.1	78.6	21.4				
LATIN AMERICA	0-14 age group	53.8	46.2	67.1	32.9	52.8	47.2	66.4	33.6				
	15-49 age group	62.2	37.8	75.0	25.0	58.5	41.5	72.2	27.8				
	50 years and older	65.2	34.8	75.2	24.8	58.8	41.2	69.6	30.4				

INDIGENOUS POPULATION

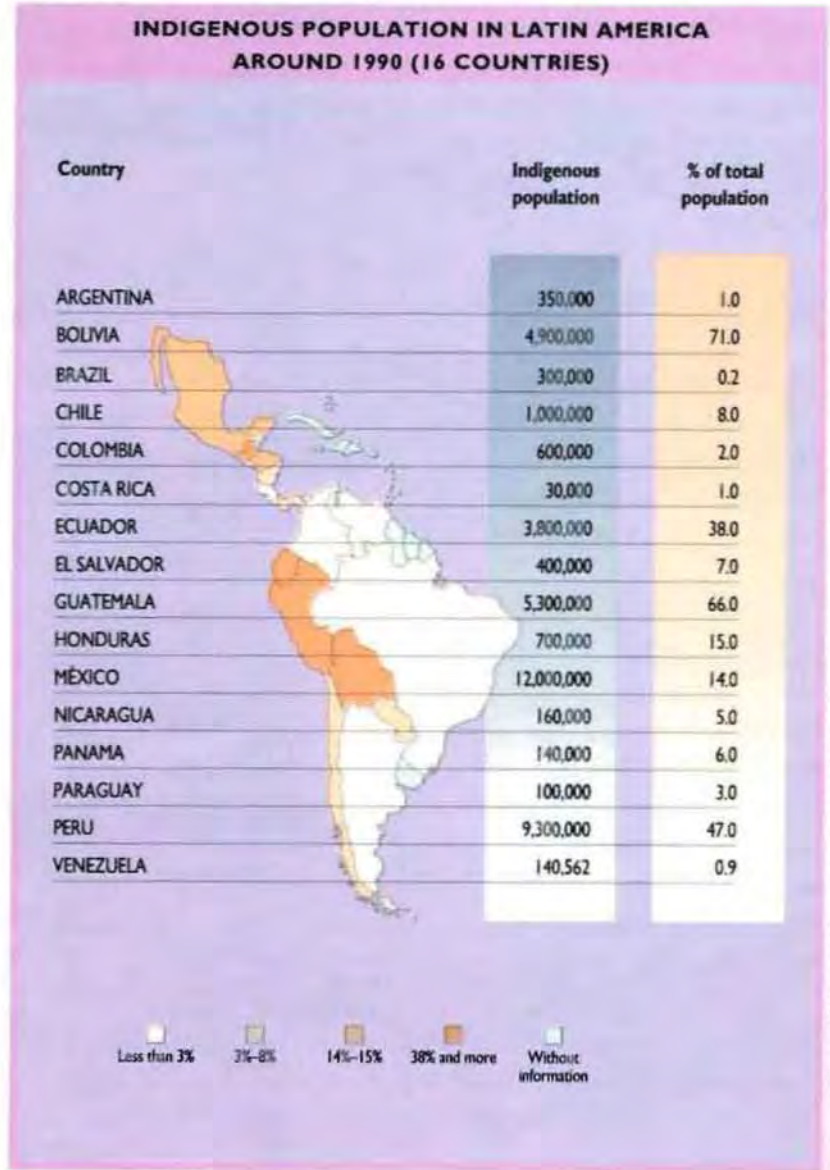
Latin America's indigenous population is approximately 40 million people, which is slightly less than 10% of the total population. The indigenous population is highly concentrated in some countries in the region.

Bolivia has the highest proportion of indigenous population in relation to total inhabitants with almost 5 million, accounting for 71% of the total population. Guatemala is next with 66%, slightly more than 5 million.

Another two countries with a high proportion of indigenous population are Peru and Ecuador, whose respective percentages are 47% and 38%, or 9 million and 4 million inhabitants, respectively.

Mexico is the country with the highest number of indigenous population in absolute terms, 12 million, who reaches 14% of the total population.

The five countries mentioned (Bolivia, Guatemala, Peru, Ecuador



Sources: PAHO. Las condiciones de salud en las Américas (Health Conditions in the Americas). 1994 Edition. Op. Cit. taken from Inter-American Development Bank, Project for the Creation of the Development Fund for the Indigenous Peoples of Latin America and the Caribbean, Washington D. C., IDB, 1991. Inter-American Indigenous Institute, Data Bank, Mexico, 1992.

and Mexico) account for approximately 35 million of the total of 40 million indigenous people in Latin America. In the other countries the indigenous population

represents almost zero to five percent, with the exception of Honduras (15%), Chile (8%), El Salvador (7%) and Panama (6%).



An ethnic breakdown of the indigenous population in some of those countries shows that in Chile there is a predominance of Mapuches (93%), and women are almost 49.3% of the total.

In Mexico, the Nahuatl account for 22.7% of the total indigenous population and the Mayas represent 13.5% of the total, with a proportion of women slightly more than one half for the former (50.5%) and slightly less than one half for the latter (48.7%).

In Panama, the Guaymí represent almost two thirds of the country's total indigenous people. Women are less than one half (47.9%).

In Honduras the most numerous indigenous group is the Garifuna (62.6%), and in Nicaragua it is the Miskito (70.4%).

In analyzing the region's ethnic composition beyond its indigenous population, the cases of Brazil and Cuba are worth note. At the end of the eighties in Brazil the population's declaration regarding skin color was the following for both sexes as a whole: 55.8% considered themselves white, 38.6% brown, 5.1% black and 0.5% yellow or Asian. Women showed a similar profile to men, with small differences in a slightly higher proportion of white and a slightly lower proportion of brown.

INDIGENOUS POPULATIONS, BY ETHNIC GROUP IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

NICARAGUA, 1992-1993

	N°	%
Miskito	87,435	70.4
Criollo	26,648	21.4
Sumu	6,076	4.9
Garifuna	3,060	2.5
Rama	1,023	0.8
Total	124,242	100.0

HONDURAS, 1994

	N°	%
Misquito	29,000	7.3
Pech	-	-
Tolupán o Xicaque	19,300	4.8
Garifuna	250,000	62.6
Tawahka	900	0.2
Lenca	100,000	25.1
Total	399,200	100.0

CHILE, 1992⁽¹⁾

	Both sexes		♀/Total %
	N°	%	
Aymara	48,477	4.9	48.6
Mapuche	928,060	93.0	49.3
Rapanui or pascuense	21,848	2.2	57.2
Total	998,385	100.0	49.4

Note: (1) Populations 14 years old and over.

PARAGUAY, 1981

	Both sexes		♀/Total %
	N°	%	
Ache-Guayaki	377	1.0	47.5
Chiripa	4,500	11.6	47.6
Guana	383	1.0	52.2
Mbya-guarani	2,460	6.4	45.6
Pai-Tabytera	4,986	12.9	48.1
Angaité	2,060	5.3	49.2
Ayoreo	1,120	2.9	49.3
Chamacoco	963	2.5	49.7
Chulupi	6,667	17.2	49.1
Gurayo	1,464	3.8	48.8
Lengua	8,121	21.0	48.2
Maka	608	1.6	50.7
Manyuy	319	0.8	48.3
Sanapaná	1,794	4.6	48.0
Tapiete	1,024	2.6	50.4
Toba-Maskoy	1,280	3.3	46.8
Toba-Qom	572	1.5	47.4
Mataco	5	0.0	0.0
Total	38,703	100.0	-

ARGENTINA, 1977

	N°	%
Wichi	24,000	7.0
Chorote	1,200	0.3
Chulupi	2,800	0.8
Toba	39,000	11.3
Mocoví	9,800	2.8
Pilagá	27,700	8.0
Chiriguano, Chané	2,600	0.8
Mbya-guarani	1,500	0.4
Kolla	137,000	39.7
Calchaqui	62,000	18.0
Mapuche	36,700	10.6
Tehuelche	500	0.1
Yámana	50	0.0
Total	344,850	100.0

COSTA RICA, 1990

	N°	%
Maleku	520	2.2
Chorotega	793	3.3
Huetar	855	3.5
Cabécar	9,300	38.5
Bribri	6,700	27.7
Teribe	1,500	6.2
Boruca	2,660	11.0
Guaymí	1,844	7.6
Total	24,172	100.0

VENEZUELA, 1982

	N°	%
Guajiro	52,000	45.6
Warao	19,573	17.2
Pemón	11,464	10.1
Yanomami	9,717	8.5
Guajibó	7,256	6.4
Piaroa	7,030	6.2
Kariña	6,849	6.0
Total	113,889	100.0

PANAMA, 1990

	Both sexes		♀/Total %
	N°	%	
Kuna	47,298	24.3	49.8
Guaymí	123,626	63.6	47.9
Teribe	2,194	1.1	46.5
Bokota	3,784	1.9	49.9
Emberá	14,659	7.5	48.3
Waunana	2,605	1.3	49.3
Not declared	103	0.1	60.2
Total	194,269	100.0	48.4

It should be pointed out that the information on ethnic composition in Brazil presents several problems of different kinds: cultural, because it is provided by the person himself, and of record because of the flexibility of the categories, especially the "brown" category, which includes different kinds of racial mixtures, and until 1991 it even included indigenous people.

In Cuba, both sexes as a whole in the early eighties declared themselves 65.9% white, 21.9% brown or mestizo, 12.1% black and 0.1% yellow or Asian. Women's profile in Cuba is also similar to men's, except that they show a slightly lower proportion of black population 11.8% for women and 12.3% for men.

Although the difference could be caused by higher female mortality in the black race, culturally biased recording by women is more likely. We have to consider that the difference between both sexes for the black race is offset by the higher proportion of women that declare themselves to be brown.

Regarding the language spoken, in Bolivia, the country with the highest proportion of indigenous population, 12.5% of the people only speak their native language and 42.2% also speak Spanish. In Peru 7.6% only speak Quechua and approximately 19% speak a combination of native languages, dialects and Spanish, while 73.1% only speak Spanish.

POPULATION ACCORDING TO ORAL LANGUAGE

PERU, 1981			BOLIVIA, 1992 ⁽¹⁾		
	N°	%		N°	%
Only quechua	1,113,410	7.6	Only native	590,394	12.5
Only aymara	122,523	0.8	Only spanish	1,982,431	41.9
Only spanish	10,663,146	73.1	Spanish and native	2,008,861	42.4
Dialects and others	55,723	0.4	Other	154,736	3.3
Combinations	2,635,446	18.1	Total ⁽²⁾	4,736,422	100.0
Total	14,590,248	100.0			

Notes: (1) Corresponds to people 6 years old and older.
(2) Does not include information on households that did not answer at least one variable related to an indicator used to measure poverty.

MEXICO, 1990						
	Both sexes		Women		Men	
	N°	%	N°	%	N°	%
Amuzgo	28,228	0.5	14,323	0.5	13,905	0.5
Chango	28,987	0.5	14,836	0.6	14,151	0.5
Chinanteco	109,100	2.1	55,275	2.1	53,825	2.0
Chol	128,240	2.4	63,622	2.4	64,618	2.5
Cora	11,923	0.2	5,756	0.2	6,167	0.2
Cuicateco	12,677	0.2	6,449	0.2	6,228	0.2
Huasteco	120,739	2.3	58,940	2.2	61,799	2.4
Huave	11,955	0.2	5,859	0.2	6,096	0.2
Huichol	19,363	0.4	9,753	0.4	9,610	0.4
Maya	713,520	13.5	347,509	13.1	366,011	13.9
Mayo	37,410	0.7	16,919	0.6	20,491	0.8
Mazahua	127,826	2.4	68,070	2.6	59,756	2.3
Mazateco	168,374	3.2	85,828	3.2	82,546	3.1
Mixe	95,264	1.8	48,515	1.8	46,749	1.8
Mixteco	386,874	7.3	198,804	7.5	188,070	7.2
Náhuatl	1,197,328	22.7	605,041	22.8	592,287	22.5
Otomí	280,238	5.3	142,517	5.4	137,721	5.2
Purepecha	94,835	1.8	48,219	1.8	46,616	1.8
Tarahumara	54,431	1.0	25,683	1.0	28,748	1.1
Tepehua	8,702	0.2	4,476	0.2	4,226	0.2
Tepahuan	18,469	0.3	9,302	0.4	9,167	0.3
Tlapaneco	68,483	1.3	34,791	1.3	33,692	1.3
Tojolabal	36,011	0.7	17,887	0.7	18,124	0.7
Totonaca	207,876	3.9	104,917	4.0	102,959	3.9
Tzeltal	261,084	4.9	130,646	4.9	130,438	5.0
Tzotzil	229,203	4.3	114,487	4.3	114,716	4.4
Yaqui	10,984	0.2	4,801	0.2	6,183	0.2
Zapoteco	403,457	7.6	206,183	7.8	197,274	7.5
Zoque	43,160	0.8	21,229	0.8	21,931	0.8
Other languages	367,606	7.0	182,384	6.9	185,222	7.0
Total	5,282,347	100.0	2,653,021	100.0	2,629,326	100.0

Source: FLACSO Chile, Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Cifras. Data Base, Santiago, January 1995.

POPULATION'S ETHNIC COMPOSITION, BY COLOR ACCORDING TO SEX, IN BRAZIL AND CUBA

		(Percentages)				
		White	Black	Brown or Mestiza	Yellow or Asian	Total
BRAZIL	Both sexes	55.8	5.1	38.6	0.5	100.0
	(1989)					
	Women	56.5	5.0	38.0	0.5	100.0
	Men	55.0	5.1	39.4	0.5	100.0
CUBA	Both sexes	65.9	12.1	21.9	0.1	100.0
	(1981)					
	Women	66.0	11.8	22.1	0.1	100.0
	Men	65.9	12.3	21.6	0.2	100.0

Source: Valdes, Teresa and Gomáriz, Enrique (Coord.) Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Cifras, Op. Cit.

MARITAL STATUS

Most Latin American women over 10, 12, 14 or 15 years old, depending on the calculation in each country, live in a marital or consensual union when considering the group of married women and the group of women living in a consensual union as a whole. The highest percentages of married

woman in the region are 51.6% in Argentina, 48.5% in Chile, 45.6% in Costa Rica and 45.5% in Mexico.

The countries with the lowest proportions of married women are Cuba (22.0%), the Dominican Republic (24.5%), Nicaragua (26.6%) and Panama (27.7%), which in turn show the highest levels of consensual unions that exceed or equal the percentages of married women.

The married status was a majority in

slightly less than half of the countries at the end of the eighties, for both men and women. There is a downward trend for this status if we compare it with the early seventies. On the other hand, the statuses of living in consensual union, separated and divorced were the ones that increased most frequently over the period.

Women living in consensual unions account for more than one out of every five in the Dominican Republic

CHANGES IN POPULATION, BY MARITAL STATUS, ACCORDING TO SEX ⁽¹⁾

Country ⁽²⁾	(Percentages) ⁽³⁾										
	Initial year					Final year					
	Married	Single	Consensual union	Separated/divorced	Widowed	Married	Single	Consensual union	Separated/divorced	Widowed	
ARGENTINA (1990-80)	Women	52.1	31.3	5.5	2.0	9.1	51.6	28.1	6.7	2.6	11.0
	Men	53.1	36.5	5.3	1.3	3.8	53.3	33.6	6.9	1.6	4.6
BOLIVIA (1976-88)	Women	52.7	35.9	...	1.9	8.7	35.0	57.6	...	2.0	5.1
	Men	53.0	42.1	...	0.8	3.5	34.4	62.5	...	0.8	1.9
BRAZIL (1970-89)	Women	57.1	30.7	...	3.3	8.8	56.0	31.1	...	3.4	8.0
	Men	58.3	37.4	...	1.7	2.5	58.1	37.3	...	1.5	1.8
CHILE (1973-85)	Women	45.7	40.9	2.3	2.6	8.5	48.5	37.3	2.2	3.2	8.8
	Men	48.1	46.0	2.1	1.2	2.6	51.2	43.1	2.0	1.4	2.3
COLOMBIA (1973-84)	Women	35.8	45.9	8.5	2.1	6.6	31.3	43.4	12.8	4.7	6.3
	Men	36.3	52.1	7.6	0.8	1.9	32.7	49.4	12.8	1.8	1.6
COSTA RICA (1963-84)	Women	47.4	35.0	7.7	3.3	6.6	45.6	35.1	9.6	4.6	5.1
	Men	48.0	40.8	7.3	1.8	2.1	46.1	40.6	9.7	2.1	1.5
CUBA (1970-81)	Women	24.3	41.7	22.4	4.7	6.9	22.0	43.3	20.9	6.8	7.0
	Men	36.7	39.0	20.3	2.0	2.0	34.9	39.8	19.9	3.4	2.0
DOMINICAN R. (1970-81)	Women	25.2	47.0	22.1	1.8	3.9	24.5	32.0	28.2	9.4	5.1
	Men	30.9	51.3	16.1	0.7	1.0	23.9	44.8	27.1	2.9	1.3
ECUADOR (1974-82)	Women	37.7	38.7	13.0	3.1	5.7	37.7	36.3	14.2	3.1	5.2
	Men	37.1	46.3	11.8	1.2	2.1	37.1	42.7	13.4	1.3	1.8
HONDURAS (1974-88)	Women	26.3	24.0	30.9	11.5	7.3
	Men	27.1	36.8	30.4	3.6	2.1	29.4	40.1	27.9	1.2	1.4
MEXICO (-1990)	Women	45.5	37.9	7.5	2.8	5.6
	Men	46.2	43.4	7.2	1.0	1.5
NICARAGUA (1971-85)	Women	35.1	31.8	21.8	3.2	8.1	26.6	22.0	27.1	16.1	8.1
	Men	35.8	40.8	20.5	0.7	2.2	30.5	32.0	30.5	4.7	2.3
PANAMA (1970-90)	Women	28.3	25.5	28.2	11.1	6.4	27.7	27.9	27.9	11.0	5.3
	Men	26.9	39.1	25.4	5.8	2.2	27.0	39.1	26.1	6.0	1.7
PARAGUAY (1972-82)	Women	35.6	48.4	10.1	1.4	4.5	39.4	43.9	10.1	1.5	4.2
	Men	36.2	52.2	9.5	0.7	1.4	38.7	48.8	9.6	0.7	1.3
PERU (1972-81)	Women	37.2	37.6	14.8	1.8	7.3	38.5	39.4	12.4	2.3	6.7
	Men	36.7	45.6	13.0	0.8	2.8	38.0	46.1	11.5	1.0	2.5
URUGUAY (1975-85)	Women	39.2	45.2	3.4	3.3	8.9	37.7	43.6	4.5	4.5	9.7
	Men	40.9	51.5	3.4	2.2	2.0	39.6	51.1	4.7	2.7	1.9
VENEZUELA (1971-90)	Women	35.6	40.6	16.7	1.2	5.5	34.7	33.3	17.0	5.1	8.7
	Men	35.3	46.5	15.6	0.5	1.5	35.5	40.8	17.4	2.2	2.7

Notes: (1) Under the name of every country in parenthesis is the initial age considered when classifying the marital status. (2) In some cases the sum of the percentages sideways does not add up to 100 because the category "Not specified" was not included in the table. (3) No information on El Salvador and Guatemala was available.

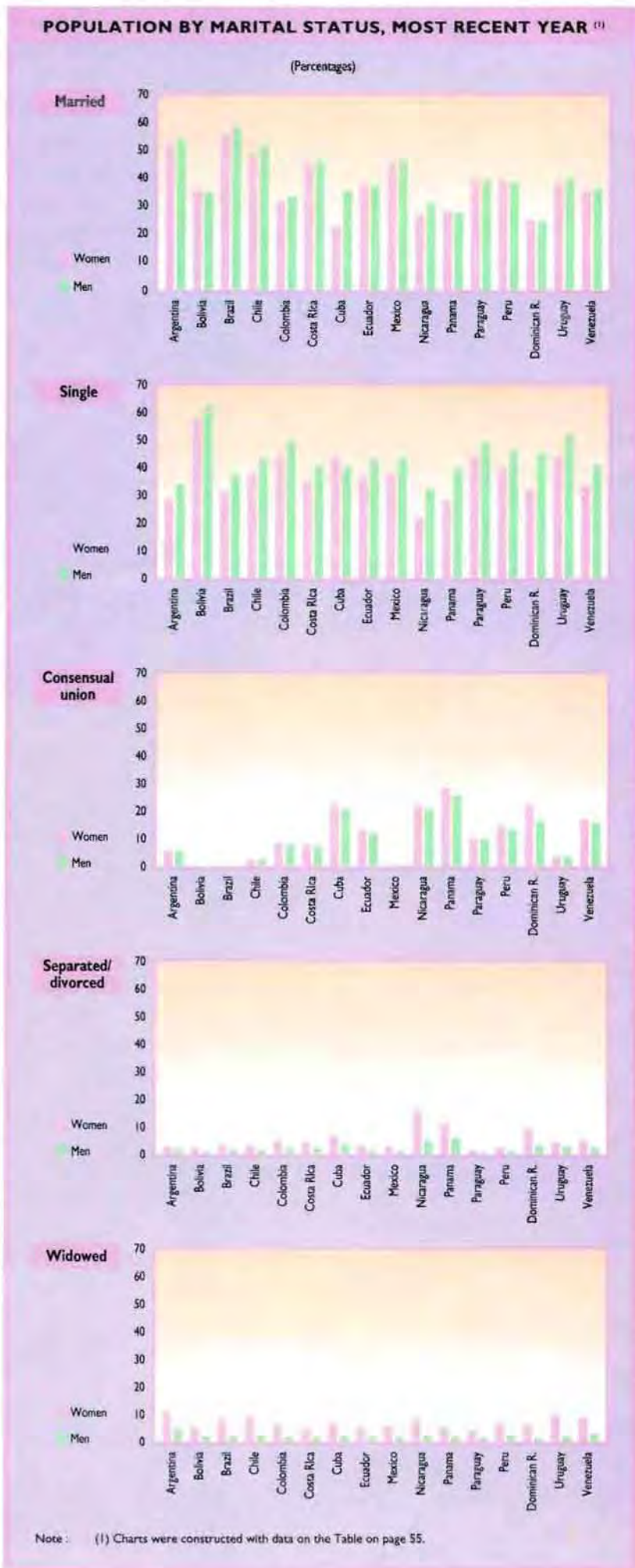
(28.2%) and Nicaragua (27.1%), countries where this marital status increased significantly between the seventies and the nineties. This status is also very high in Panama (27.9%) and Cuba (20.9%), although in the last two countries it was a little higher in the early seventies. The lowest percentages of consensual unions are in Chile (2.2%), Uruguay (4.5%) and Argentina (6.7%).

The statuses of separated and widowed are characterized by the fact that in all of the countries the proportion of separated or widowed women is significantly higher for women than for men. Besides some problems in the declaration, this can be explained by the fact that women remain separated for a longer time than men and that a larger proportion of them become widows at a younger age because they live longer.

The four countries with the highest proportion of separated people also have the highest proportion of people living in consensual unions (Nicaragua, Panama, the Dominican Republic and Cuba), with percentages ranging from 16.1% for the first and 6.8% for the last.

In all the countries in the region, the percentages of separated women double or triple the corresponding percentages for men. Widows also triple or quadruple the percentages of widowers.

With the exception of Cuba, the countries show a low proportion of single men and women, mainly because women tend to enter into a marital or consensual union at an earlier age.



Source: Valdes, Teresa and Gomartz, Enrique (Coord.), *Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Cifras*, Op. Cit.

**POPULATION'S MARITAL STATUS, BY SEX AND AGE
IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, AROUND 1985**

(Percentages)

Country	12-24 age group ⁽¹⁾		25-44 age group		60 years and older	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
CUBA (1981) [14-24]						
Single	57.4	81.8	5.3	14.9	8.2	12.6
Married	16.7	7.0	52.5	50.3	33.7	48.8
Consensual union	18.8	9.2	25.7	26.8	12.3	19.8
Separated/divorced	7.0	1.9	15.4	7.7	9.9	8.0
Widowed	0.1	0.1	1.1	0.3	35.9	10.8
COSTA RICA (1984) [10-24]						
Single	77.6	89.6	19.5	20.5	17.3	10.4
Married	15.9	7.2	61.0	63.2	39.2	64.9
Consensual union	5.6	2.9	12.7	13.7	4.2	8.7
Separated/divorced	0.8	0.3	5.6	2.4	6.4	4.7
Widowed	0.1	0.0	1.2	0.2	32.9	11.3
CHILE (1985)						
Single	77.7	88.7	20.6	23.3	12.6	10.1
Married	20.5	10.4	70.4	71.8	36.0	70.3
Consensual union	1.2	0.6	3.1	2.6	1.6	2.4
Separated/divorced	0.4	0.2	3.5	1.5	5.9	3.0
Widowed	0.2	0.0	2.4	0.7	44.0	14.2
ECUADOR (1982)						
Single	66.9	80.4	15.0	18.3	12.3	7.7
Married	15.9	8.0	56.8	56.6	39.2	59.9
Consensual union	9.5	4.4	20.8	21.4	8.9	15.2
Separated/divorced	1.1	0.3	4.1	1.5	4.6	3.1
Widowed	0.2	0.1	2.0	0.6	32.7	12.7
Not declared	6.4	6.8	1.3	1.6	2.3	1.4
NICARAGUA (1985) [15-24]						
Single	49.1	73.6	6.7	16.6	5.5	5.3
Married	14.2	8.2	35.6	36.5	28.3	48.3
Consensual union	23.8	16.7	36.1	41.2	14.9	28.1
Separated/divorced	12.2	1.4	18.6	5.2	17.8	8.4
Widowed	0.7	0.0	3.1	0.5	33.4	9.9
PARAGUAY (1982)						
Single	76.6	90.8	20.5	23.4	24.3	9.0
Married	15.9	5.4	59.1	57.7	39.4	76.0
Consensual union	6.3	2.9	16.6	16.7	4.7	8.6
Separated/divorced	0.4	0.1	1.8	0.8	2.5	1.9
Widowed	0.1	0.0	1.1	0.4	27.4	9.3
Not declared	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.7	1.2
URUGUAY (1985)						
Single	88.7	94.7	15.3	21.8	12.3	11.9
Married	8.6	3.9	67.0	64.4	36.4	68.2
Consensual union	2.0	1.1	9.2	9.4	2.6	4.4
Separated/divorced	0.6	0.3	7.1	4.1	5.2	4.8
Widowed	0.1	0.0	1.4	0.3	43.5	10.7

Note: (1) Square parenthesis contains the age of the population considered for the first age group when it differs from the age specified in the column.

When analyzing the marital status of the population by age, we get a clearer idea of some of the differences in the behavior of the two sexes, like the tendency of women mentioned above to enter into unions at an earlier age.

In the 12-24 age group, only 49% of the women in Nicaragua declare themselves single compared to 74% of men; in Ecuador the percentage of single women in the same age group is 67% compared to 80% for men; and in Uruguay, where women enter into unions at an older age, the difference between men and women is the lowest; 89% single women and 95% single men.

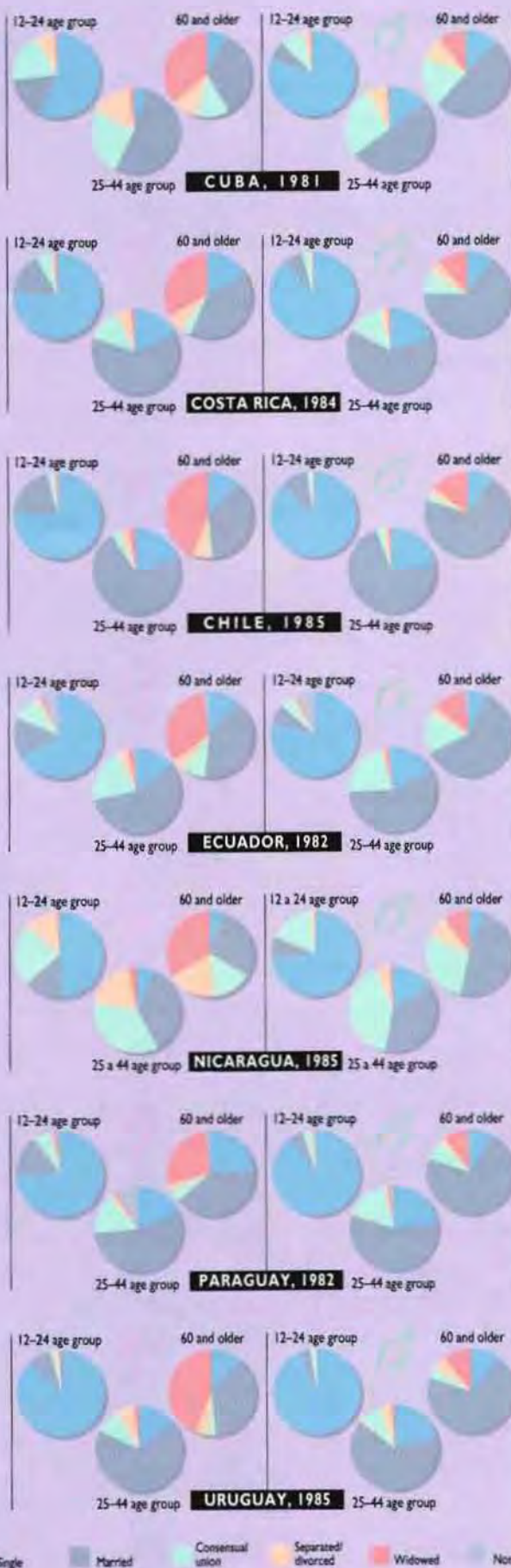
In the 25-44 age group the married status predominates, followed by couples living in consensual unions and single people, according to the country. There is also significant growth in the categories of separated and divorced people.

In the 60 and over age group, there is obviously a marked increase in widowed people. The figure for widows increases to 30% to 40%, according to the country, compared to 10% to 15% for widowers.

Therefore, the percentage of married women or women living in consensual unions declines sharply compared to the previous age group. This does not happen in the case of separated women, whereas the proportion of married men remains practically the same.

To a large extent, women's greater longevity explains the situation for that age group, but it can also be explained by the greater tendency of men to remarry.

POPULATION'S MARITAL STATUS, BY SEX AND AGE IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, AROUND 1985



Note: Charts were constructed with data on the Table on page 56.

Marriage has shown a relative downward trend. Of thirteen countries analyzed, eight recorded a significant drop in marriages at the end of the eighties and early nineties compared to the previous period, whereas two countries showed a similar level and in three countries the number of marriages increased.

In terms of marriage rates or number of marriages per thousand inhabitants, the main decrease is shown in Argentina which drops from 7.7 to 4.7 between 1970 and 1992, and the Dominican Republic which falls from 3.8 to 2.3 between 1970 and 1987.

Of the three countries where the number of marriages increased, the case of Costa Rica is worth noting. There they increased from 6.3 marriages per thousand inhabitants to 7.6 between 1970 and 1990.

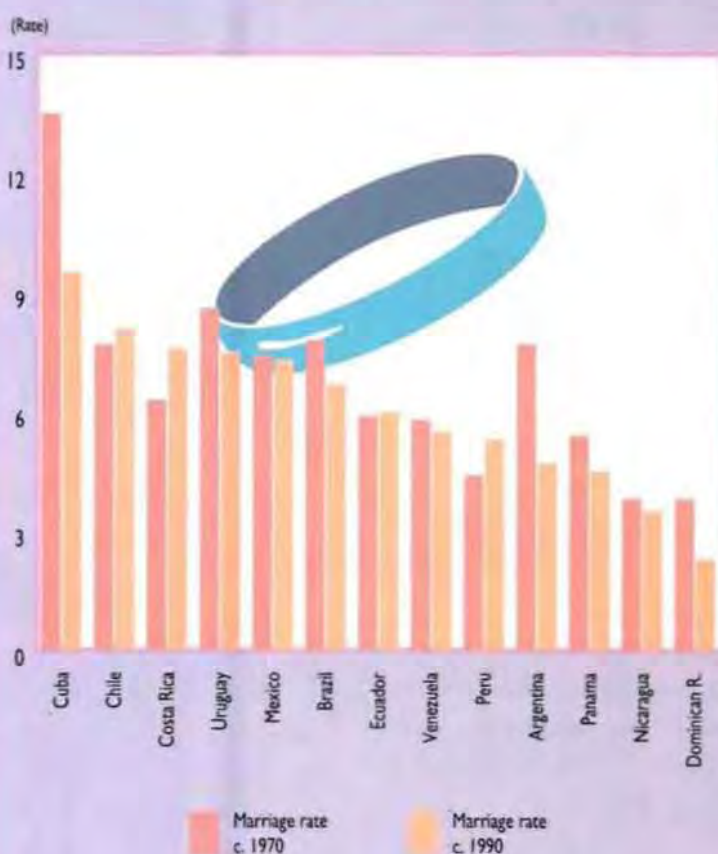
Regarding the number of marriages, Chile, Costa Rica, Cuba, Mexico and Uruguay record more than 7 marriages per thousand inhabitants, and Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic, fewer than 4 marriages per thousand inhabitants.

The minimum age by sex to get married varies significantly among the different countries in the region, from a minimum of 12 years for women and 14 for men -with the parents' consent- in Chile, Ecuador, Panama, Paraguay and Venezuela, to 21 years old for both sexes in the case of Uruguay.

MARRIAGE NUMBER AND RATE IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	1970		c. 1980		c. 1990		Last figures time period
	Marriage number	Marriage rate (per 1,000 inhabitants)	Marriage number	Marriage rate (per 1,000 inhabitants)	Marriage number	Marriage rate (per 1,000 inhabitants)	
ARGENTINA	...	7.7	...	5.9	...	4.7	(80-92)
BRAZIL	948,164	7.8	951,236	6.7	(80-88)
CHILE	86,001	7.7	103,484	8.1	(80-88)
COSTA RICA	11,024	6.3	17,508	7.8	22,703	7.6	(80-90)
CUBA	115,160	13.5	68,941	7.1	101,515	9.5	(80-90)
DOMINICAN REP.	16,987	3.8	29,529	5.2	15,642	2.3	(80-87)
ECUADOR	37,329	5.9	46,278	5.9	56,560	6.0	(71-79-85)
MEXICO	357,080	7.4	493,151	7.4	569,146	7.3	(80-85)
NICARAGUA	7,940	3.8	17,174	6.1	13,122	3.5	(80-91)
PANAMA	7,324	5.4	16,252	5.5	12,117	5.3	(80-90)
PERU	23,427	4.4	33,450	5.3	(83-88)
URUGUAY	24,404	8.6	22,592	7.7	22,728	7.5	(81-87)
VENEZUELA	60,128	5.8	92,608	6.6	113,125	6.0	(80-88)

c = Cifras



The region shows a growing trend toward divorce. Of ten countries analyzed, the divorce rate increased in seven of them between 1980 and 1990.

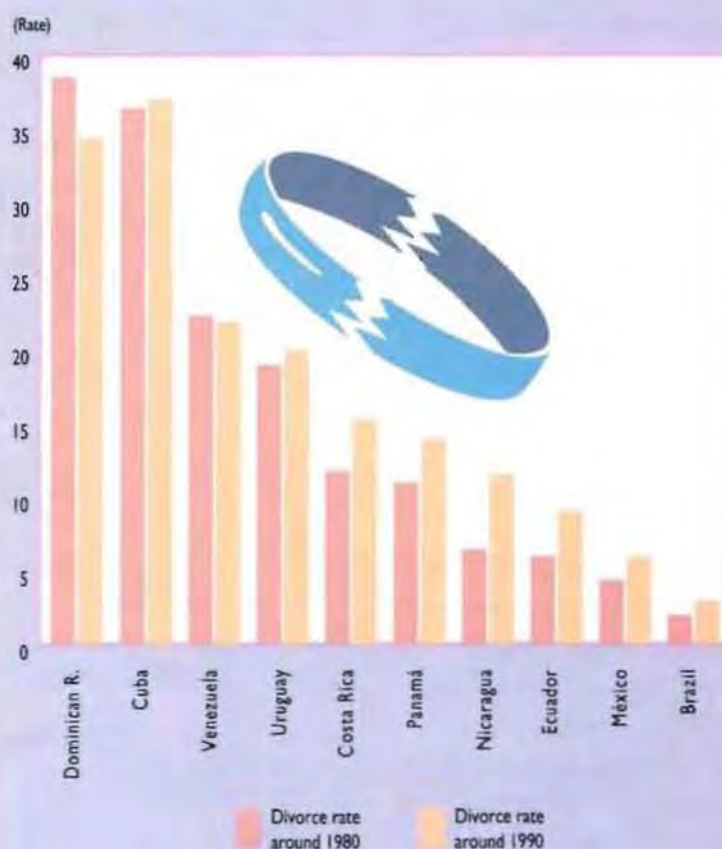
In the countries where the divorce rate is growing, Nicaragua shows an increase from 6.2 to 11.6 divorces per 100 marriages; Costa Rica, an increase from 11.5 to 13.9 and Panama, an increase from 10.9 to 14.2 divorces per 100 marriages.

Around 1990 Cuba has the highest divorce rate, with 37.1 divorces per 100 marriages and the Dominican Republic has 34.4. Brazil has the lowest divorce rate with 3.6 divorces per 100 marriages, followed by Mexico with 6 and Ecuador with 10.

The cases of Cuba and the Dominican Republic are worth an additional comment, because although both countries have the highest divorce rates in the region, their behavior is individual and different during the period being studied. Cuba maintains a steady divorce rate, although the absolute number of divorces increased by fifty percent -from 24,655 to 37,646- because of the increase in the number of marriages from 68,941 to 101,515 during this period of time. In the case of Dominican Republic, on the other hand, divorces were reduced by one half but the rate decreased slightly, which can be explained by the reduction in the number of marriages also by almost one half -from 29,529 to 15,642- during the same period.

CHANGES IN DIVORCE NUMBERS AND RATES IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	Divorces Circa 1980		Divorces Circa 1990	
	Number	Rate (Per 100 marriages)	Number	Rate (Per 100 marriages)
BRAZIL	22,739	2.4	34,054	3.6
COSTA RICA	2,010	11.5	3,152	13.9
CUBA	24,655	35.8	37,646	37.1
DOMINICAN REP.	11,380	38.5	5,387	34.4
ECUADOR	2,737	5.8	5,663	10.0
MEXICO	21,674	4.4	34,114	6.0
NICARAGUA	1,060	6.2	1,521	11.6
PANAMA	1,116	10.9	1,721	14.2
URUGUAY	4,297	19.0	4,611	20.3
VENEZUELA	20,625	22.3	24,774	21.9



Source : Valdés, Teresa and Gomariz, Enrique. (Coord.), Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Cifras. Op. Cit.

FAMILY AND HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD

There is a clear tendency in most Latin American families toward smaller size. This results from several factors: fewer number of children and a reduction of multigenerational households, as well as an increase in single-parent families and people who live alone.

In the 1970-1990 period, the number of people per family in Costa Rica fell from 5.6 to 4.3; in Brazil the number dropped from 5.1 to 4.2 in the same period.

Bolivia, Guatemala and Mexico are among the few countries where the average size of the family did not decrease.

Family composition shows a clear trend toward nuclear families, which are families with one or both spouses and with or without children. In the countries being studied this kind of household accounts for 75% in Mexico, 65% in Argentina and in Venezuela, the country with the lowest percentage of nuclear families, it exceeds 54%.

Although the importance of this kind of family has increased over the past decade, the heterogeneity of its composition has also increased with the proliferation of single-parent homes and homes with both spouses and no children. Complete nuclear families, which include both spouses and children, continue to predominate in this category.

SIZE OF HOUSEHOLDS 1970-1990

(Average of people per household)

Country	Circa		
	1970	1980	1990
ARGENTINA	3.8	3.9	3.5
BOLIVIA	4.3	4.4	4.4
BRAZIL	5.1	4.4	4.2
CHILE	5.0	4.5	3.9 ⁽¹⁾
COLOMBIA	6.1	4.7	4.3
COSTA RICA	5.6	4.8	4.3
CUBA	4.2	4.0	3.7
DOMINICAN REP.	5.3	5.0	4.5
ECUADOR	5.4	5.1	4.6
EL SALVADOR	5.4
GUATEMALA	5.5	...	5.4
HONDURAS	5.7	...	4.9
MEXICO	4.9	...	5.0
NICARAGUA	5.9	...	5.3
PANAMA	4.9	3.7	...
PARAGUAY	5.4	5.2	4.7
PERU	...	4.8	5.2
URUGUAY	3.4	2.7	...
VENEZUELA	5.8	5.3	5.1

Note: (1) Urban.

TYPES OF HOUSEHOLDS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, AROUND 1990

(Percentages)

Type of household	ARGENTINA	BOLIVIA	CHILE	COLOMBIA	MEXICO	URUGUAY	VENEZUELA
	1991	1992	1992	1990	1990	1985	1990
One person	13.5	12.0	8.3	4.1	4.9	15.1	6.9
Nuclear	64.8	59.0	57.9	56.6	74.5	59.0	54.4
Extended	19.5	19.0	23.4	30.0	17.2	19.6	26.6
Mixed	2.2	10.0	4.3	9.3	2.3	6.3	12.1
Without nucl.	-	-	6.1	-	0.5	-	-
Not specified	-	-	-	-	0.5	-	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N ^o)	8,927,289	1,444,817	3,293,779	4,772,231	16,202,845	862,962	3,750,940
Persons per household	3.5	4.4	4.0	5.0 ⁽¹⁾

Note: (1) Corresponds to 1993.

Next in importance are extended families, which include other relatives, although there is a trend toward a reduction in households made up of multigenerational families. Extended families account for 30% of the total in Colombia; 27% in Venezuela, and 17% in Mexico, the country with the lowest proportion of extended families.

Single-person households are in third place. They have grown over the past decade due to the aging of the population and the tendency of young people to postpone the age when they form their own families. Single-person households account for 15% of the total in Uruguay, 14% in Argentina, and only 4% in Colombia.

Compound households, which include one or more members who are not related to one another, represent 12% in Venezuela, 10% in Bolivia, and only around 2% in Argentina and Mexico.

There is a growing proportion of women heads of household in Latin America, just under one of every four households in the region's urban areas. They have increased from 21% around 1980 to approximately 23% in 1990 in urban areas.

Some of the factors that determine the growth in women heads of household are the increase in single-parent families, which are made up mainly of young or mature women, and the increase in single-person households due to the aging of the population, combined with women's greater longevity and the fact that they are less likely to enter into another marital or consensual union.

HOMES WITH WOMEN HEADS OF HOUSEHOLD IN URBAN AREAS, 1980-1990

(Percentages)

Country	Homes with female heads of household	
	Around 1980	Around 1990
ARGENTINA ⁽¹⁾	17.7	21.1
BOLIVIA	...	26.2
BRAZIL	18.7	20.1
CHILE	21.5	23.2
COLOMBIA ⁽²⁾	20.0	22.7
COSTA RICA	21.9	22.7
CUBA	34.1	...
ECUADOR	...	18.3
GUATEMALA	21.0	21.9
HONDURAS	...	26.6
MEXICO	13.8	17.7
NICARAGUA	...	35.6
PANAMA	24.5	24.7
PARAGUAY ⁽³⁾	22.0	20.1
PERU ⁽³⁾	23.6	19.3
DOMINICAN R. ⁽³⁾	21.6	...
URUGUAY	22.3	25.5
VENEZUELA	21.9	22.1
LATIN AMERICA	21.0	22.7

Notes: (1) Metropolitan Area of Buenos Aires. (2) Eight major cities.
(3) Data from Population Censuses.

The countries with a higher proportion of households headed by women include Nicaragua with approximately 36%, Honduras with 27%, and Bolivia with 26%.

The countries with lower percentages of those households are Mexico and Ecuador with 18% and Peru with 19%.

Households headed by women showed the largest increase in Mexico, Argentina and Uruguay, where there was an increase of more than three percentage points over the past ten years.

Households headed by women recorded significantly lower presence of a partner compared to those headed by men. For example, in Brazil in 1989 only 2.8% of women heads of household lived with a partner in a consensual union, whereas 91.4% of men heads of household did so. In Cuba, where these differences between the sexes are smaller, 25% of women heads of household lived with a partner in a consensual union, whereas 83% of men heads of household did so.

From another point of view, with a few exceptions, female heads of household are mainly divorced, widows or single, whereas male heads of household are predominantly married or live in consensual unions.

HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD AND FAMILY RELATIONSHIP IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

(Percentages)

Country	Total (Thousands)	Total relatives	Family Relationship			Not relatives	Total
			Spouse or partner in a consensual union	Children	Other relatives		
BRAZIL (1989)							
Total	107,465.0	98.6	25.1	66.7	6.8	1.4	100.0
Female heads of househ.	66,051.0	98.4	40.5	51.5	6.4	1.6	100.0
Male heads of household	41,414.0	99.0	0.5	91.0	7.5	1.0	100.0
CHILE (1992)							
Total	9,801.1	96.1	23.0	54.5	18.6	3.9	100.0
Female heads of househ.	2,071.2	93.9	6.2	55.4	32.3	6.1	100.0
Male heads of household	7,729.9	96.6	27.4	54.3	15.0	3.4	100.0
COSTA RICA (1984)							
Total	1,903.3	96.5	20.3	63.4	12.8	3.5	100.0
Female heads of househ.	1,118.4	96.7	34.2	51.2	11.3	3.3	100.0
Male heads of household	784.9	96.3	0.5	80.8	14.9	3.7	100.0
CUBA (1981)							
Total	4,511.0	97.3	35.0	46.8	15.5	2.7	100.0
Female heads of househ.	2,731.8	97.8	51.6	34.1	12.1	2.2	100.0
Male heads of household	1,779.2	96.5	9.5	66.4	20.7	3.5	100.0
PANAMA (1990)							
Total	1,779.5	96.0	18.6	56.0	21.4	4.0	100.0
Female heads of househ.	342.2	95.6	1.5	60.4	33.7	4.4	100.0
Male heads of household	1,437.3	96.1	22.6	55.0	18.5	3.9	100.0
PARAGUAY (1982)							
Total	38.7	95.9	17.6	62.7	15.6	4.1	100.0
Female heads of househ.	18.7	94.4	0.0	60.7	33.6	5.6	100.0
Male heads of household	20.0	96.1	20.3	63.0	12.8	3.9	100.0

HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD, BY MARITAL STATUS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

(Percentages)

Country	Married	Consensual union	Single	Widower	Divorced/ separated	Unknown or not declared	Total
COSTA RICA (1984)							
Total
Female heads of househ.	10.2	4.2	32.1	27.5	26	...	100.0
Male heads of household	76.9	15.3	4.6	1.5	1.7	...	100.0
CUBA (1984)							
Total	46.0	25.3	5.7	9.3	13.7	...	100.0
Female heads of househ.	19.3	15.9	6.3	25.5	33.0	...	100.0
Male heads of household	56.4	29.0	5.5	3.0	6.1	...	100.0
DOMINICAN REP. (1980)							
Total	32.8	40.0	4.2	8.2	14.7	0.1	100.0
Female heads of househ.	8.6	11.5	2.9	31.4	45.5	0.1	100.0
Male heads of household	39.3	47.8	4.6	1.9	6.3	0.1	100.0
GUATEMALA (1989)							
Total
Female heads of househ.	13.9	7.8	6.1	48.6	23.6	...	100.0
Male heads of household
PERU (1981)							
Total
Female heads of househ.	29.2	9.9	19.2	30.3	10.1	1.3	100.0
Male heads of household	68.1	19.5	7.4	3.5	1.1	0.4	100.0
VENEZUELA (1981)							
Total	48.8	28.3	10.1	5.6	6.9	0.3	100.0
Female heads of househ.	9.5	12.9	29.1	21.3	26.3	0.9	100.0
Male heads of household	4.8	59.7	32.6	1.2	1.4	0.2	100.0

Latin American women's participation in the labour force has been determined by the patterns of socioeconomic development prevailing in their countries and by the status of their gender. Unlike men, women have generally participated in two ways: working in the home and working in the public sphere.

Due to cultural reasons that apply to the region as a whole, Latin America has given rise to the same pattern of sexual division of labour as the rest of the world. Under this scheme, women are responsible for housework, and men are responsible for activities considered inherently economic. As a general rule, therefore, women perform household chores and take care of the family regardless of whether they participate in the labour market or not.

Consequently, the distinctive feature of women's involvement in the labour force is their need to harmonize labour-market related activities -whether they are performed inside or outside the home- with the activities that result from their responsibility for household chores.

Moreover, the fact that only a limited set of activities is conventionally considered "economic" -based on a concept that emphasizes the mercantile nature of any occupation (i.e. work performed in exchange for compensation in money or in kind)- has meant that they are the only

activities considered in the national accounting, and that compensation is what determines whether an individual is deemed to be "active" or not. Thus, no value is assigned to what housework contributes to the national economy in each country, which also applies to the contribution made by women to society's physical product.

Similarly, when analyzing women's participation in the labour sphere, it is necessary to point out that, despite current international definitions and recommendations, the data available at present -especially the information supplied by population censuses- significantly underreports women's participation in economic activities.

The above is due to inadequate questionnaires, poorly trained interviewers and, mainly, to the fact that women define themselves as inactive even when, by definition, they are carrying out economic activities. As mentioned above, this is mostly the result of cultural patterns that assign women to the role of housewives, which is not viewed as work.

Despite the difficulties in measuring the situation referred to above, available data shows that in Latin America women have joined the labour market in impressive numbers. Undoubtedly, this is one of the most spectacular and significant changes experienced by Latin America in recent decades.

At present, this phenomenon is clearly evident in the daily life of cities and major urban centers, where women's entry into the labour market has been particularly noticeable in the past three decades, especially in trade and services. This is, precisely, one of the most outstanding features of the urbanization process in the region.

Data from the population censuses in 19 Latin American countries indicates that the number of economically active women increased more than three times in the 1960-1990 period (18 to 57 million), whereas the number of economically active men did not even double (it rose from 80 to 147 million).

Rates of economic activity reflect the higher increase in women's participation compared to men's. In the period mentioned above, women's rate of activity grew from 18.1% to 27.2%, whereas among men the rate fell from 77.5% to 70.3%.

Although these figures show the general trend in the region, some major differences exist among countries as to the current level of women's involvement in the labour force and the speed with which this phenomenon has evolved. In some countries, census-recorded activity rates remain below 20% (e.g. Guatemala), while in others it is around 40% for all women of working age (Uruguay).

For instance, Brazil, Cuba, Mexico and Uruguay recorded increases of 12

percentage points or more in women's activity rates in the past two decades, whereas in Argentina, Ecuador, Guatemala, Panama and Peru the rate rose by less than 5 percentage points.

Women's increasing involvement in economic activities can be seen in the share they represent of the total economically active population (EAP). This share has risen systematically from the 1960s to date. In 19 Latin American countries, the percentage of women in the EAP increased from 19.1% in 1960 to 28.1% in 1990.

Taking census-underreporting into account and using the most recent data from household surveys, the conclusion is that one out of every three economically active individuals in Latin America is a woman. The proportion is significantly lower in countries with larger rural populations.

Women's employment differs markedly from men's employment in all spheres of the job structure. Differences are expressed in the unequal distribution of active men and women in sectors or lines of business, and also among job categories, professional groups and trades.

The typical employment profile for women shows a high percentage working in the service sector (60-80%), followed by a much lower percentage in industry (15-25%), and generally a very small fraction in agriculture or the primary sector.

Sectoral distribution of employment is more balanced for men; the highest percentage is employed in industry and, compared to women, a considerably smaller fraction works in the service sector.

Regarding job categories, there are major differences from a gender perspective between salaried and non-salaried workers. In virtually all Latin American countries, most of the active population of both genders are salaried workers, although women fall into this category more frequently than men. This is generally the case because men tend to engage in independent work more frequently, as self-employed individuals and particularly as bosses or employers. Women, on the other hand, engage more frequently than men in unremunerated household work.

The conspicuous job segmentation between genders helps to explain why salaried jobs are currently the category women fall into most frequently. They engage in certain occupations that entail a salary, i.e. housekeepers, teachers, retail clerks and secretaries, jobs that represent a very high percentage of the women EAP.

In the past decade, only two job groups expanded their share of urban women's employment -professionals and technicians, and trade employees. They represent the two extreme patterns assumed by changes in women's employment in the region during the 1980s. The first pattern stems from the improvement in women's chances to enter the

labour market because of the expansion of secondary and higher education, which increased their participation in professional and technical jobs. The second one reflects the need of less educated women to enter the labour force in order to add to family income, which dropped severely during the years of economic crisis and structural adjustment. Women worked mainly as self-employed individuals in informal trade activities and, to a lesser extent, as retail clerks.

A very significant share of the women's labour force in Latin America, which in some countries is even higher than its men counterpart, is absorbed by the informal sector where levels of job skills are very low, earnings are meager, and working conditions are extremely precarious. The reason that so many women work in this area is not only due to the sheer magnitude of the informal sector, but also the difficulties many of them face in obtaining salaried jobs in the formal sector due to their dual role.

Figures on open urban unemployment indicate that women generally experience more difficulties than men with regard to employment. This is reflected in higher unemployment rates for women than for men in most Latin American countries, despite the fact that more unemployed women than men are likely to admit that they are inactive. This trend is more pronounced in times of crisis, when the ranks of the unemployed swell.

In 1990, open unemployment among women amounted to 8.3% on the average, more than one percentage point higher than unemployment figures for men (7.0%). With few exceptions, statistics indicate that rising unemployment in the region during the 1980s affected both genders, particularly young women. Between 1980 and 1990, the average open unemployment rate among women 15-24 years of age rose from 14.3% to 21.0%, whereas among men the increase was much lower: from 15.8% to 17.6%.

In Latin America, women earn substantially less than men for their work. The difference can be blamed on both job-related discrimination (women seldom have access to higher, better paid positions) and on outright wage discrimination for equal jobs.

Data on total urban employment shows that, in the early 1990s, women's income averaged barely two thirds of what men earned, and less than three fourths (72.5%) when the comparison was made with salaried workers.

In general terms, improvements in women's educational levels lead to higher wage increases than for men only up to the level of high school graduates. Education beyond high school is significantly more beneficial for men than for women, because men gain access to higher positions and better paying jobs more often than women.

The relationship between gender and

education-based wage disparities remained unchanged throughout the 1980s, particularly in urban areas, although some countries showed trends toward a reduction in inequality. This took place, however, in the context of a reduction in earned income for the population as a whole.

PARTICIPATION IN THE ECONOMY

The massive inflow of women into the labour market is undoubtedly one of the most spectacular and significant changes experienced by Latin American countries in recent decades.

At present, this phenomenon is quite evident in the daily life of cities and large urban centers where, in public spheres, the population comes into contact with women more frequently than with men, especially in activities related to trade and services.

Women's increased participation in the labour market has been especially noticeable as of the early 1960s. Since then, it has become one of the most salient features of the urbanization process in the region.

Despite the fact that figures on women's participation in economic activities are significantly underreported -as explained in the chapter on remarks on methodology- women's entry into the labour market has followed a clear upward trend.

Data based on information from population censuses conducted in 19 Latin American countries shows that, in just three decades -from 1960 to 1990- the number of economically active women increased more than three times (211%), whereas the number of economically active men did not double (84%).

Figures indicate that economically active women numbered about 18.5 million in the late 1950s, whereas by the early 1990s their ranks had swollen to 57 million. On the other hand, the economically active men's population (PEA) grew over the same period from approximately 80 million to 147.7 million.

The more rapid increase in women's participation in economic activities compared to men is reflected in the activity rates, i.e. the percentage of active women (employed and unemployed) of the total number of working age women, aged 10 and over. From 1960 to 1990, the overall women's activity rate in 19 Latin American countries climbed from 18.1% to 27.2%, while the men's rate dropped from 77.5% to 70.3%.

ACTIVITY RATES, ACCORDING TO SEX, 1990



ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION AND ACTIVITY RATES, BY SEX 1950-1990

Country		1950		1960		1970		1980		1990	
		Thousands	Rates	Thousands	Rates	Thousands	Rates	Thousands	Rates	Thousands	Rates
ARGENTINA	Both sexes	8,918	52.0	10,246	49.7	11,785	49.2	13,576	48.3	15,482	47.6
	Women	1,781	21.4	2,171	21.4	2,926	24.5	3,497	24.6	4,327	26.1
	Men	7,167	81.2	8,198	78.3	8,876	73.9	10,067	72.5	11,147	69.7
BOLIVIA	Both sexes	1,976	72.8	1,880	56.1	1,958	46.5	2,507	46.8	3,133	47.7
	Women	824	60.6	562	33.2	416	19.5	620	22.8	945	28.5
	Men	1,164	86.0	1,334	80.4	1,550	74.6	1,898	71.9	2,201	67.7
BRAZIL	Both sexes	25,493	47.7	34,192	47.1	43,006	44.9	60,437	49.8	76,213	51.3
	Women	3,926	14.7	6,086	16.8	8,788	18.4	16,317	26.9	22,551	30.3
	Men	21,762	81.4	28,329	77.9	34,299	71.5	44,183	72.9	53,791	72.6
CHILE	Both sexes	3,157	51.9	3,446	45.3	3,915	41.2	4,628	41.5	6,095	46.5
	Women	795	25.9	758	19.7	869	18.1	1,205	21.3	1,789	27.0
	Men	2,386	79.2	2,727	72.5	3,066	65.4	3,440	62.6	4,328	66.9
COLOMBIA	Both sexes	5,854	49.0	7,268	45.6	9,514	44.5	12,010	45.3	15,620	48.4
	Women	1,076	17.9	1,411	17.6	2,171	20.2	3,504	26.3	5,143	31.6
	Men	4,800	80.9	5,980	75.5	7,395	69.6	8,548	64.8	10,524	65.7
COSTA RICA	Both sexes	433	50.2	580	46.9	778	44.9	1,055	46.2	1,444	47.6
	Women	67	15.6	92	15.0	143	16.7	218	19.3	319	21.3
	Men	370	85.5	494	79.3	636	72.9	840	72.8	1,128	73.5
CUBA	Both sexes	2,756	47.1	3,080	44.1	3,573	41.9	4,273	44.0	5,440	51.3
	Women	347	12.4	472	13.9	664	15.9	1,280	26.7	1,834	34.8
	Men	2,446	80.1	2,611	72.7	2,907	67.0	2,998	61.0	3,612	67.8
DOMINICAN R.	Both sexes	1,169	49.7	1,383	42.8	2,221	50.2	2,881	50.6	3,787	53.3
	Women	165	14.3	148	9.3	537	24.7	750	26.8	1,059	30.3
	Men	1,021	85.1	1,244	75.9	1,684	75.0	2,130	73.6	2,729	75.5
ECUADOR	Both sexes	1,897	56.0	2,193	49.4	2,630	44.1	3,414	42.9	4,525	44.1
	Women	492	28.9	384	17.3	416	14.0	667	16.9	990	19.4
	Men	1,409	83.7	1,822	82.1	2,223	74.2	2,755	68.8	3,544	68.7
EL SALVADOR	Both sexes	970	50.0	1,228	47.8	1,786	49.8	2,195	48.5	2,464	47.7
	Women	161	16.6	212	16.5	372	20.9	515	22.5	634	24.0
	Men	820	84.7	1,039	80.7	1,419	78.6	1,696	75.9	1,851	73.1
GUATEMALA	Both sexes	1,473	49.6	1,875	47.3	2,338	44.6	2,921	42.2	3,982	43.3
	Women	192	13.1	235	12.0	306	11.8	431	12.6	709	15.6
	Men	1,284	85.6	1,646	82.0	2,035	76.6	2,496	71.3	3,283	70.7
HONDURAS	Both sexes	1,006	72.9	906	47.8	1,178	45.4	1,652	46.3	2,443	50.1
	Women	399	58.3	129	13.7	159	12.3	280	15.8	508	21.0
	Men	609	87.7	790	82.7	1,023	78.6	1,374	76.6	1,938	78.9
MEXICO	Both sexes	12,787	46.1	15,923	43.1	20,416	40.4	32,582	48.2	41,879	50.3
	Women	1,693	12.2	2,648	14.3	3,849	15.2	8,893	26.3	12,241	29.2
	Men	11,338	81.8	13,360	72.5	16,635	65.7	23,732	70.4	29,666	71.8
NICARAGUA	Both sexes	541	48.8	719	47.9	896	43.5	1,352	48.3	1,827	49.7
	Women	74	13.2	131	17.3	184	17.7	378	26.8	629	32.8
	Men	477	86.6	601	80.5	718	69.9	981	70.3	1,219	69.4
PANAMA	Both sexes	429	49.9	545	48.4	758	50.3	862	44.2	1,111	46.3
	Women	83	19.8	111	20.2	192	26.0	231	24.1	311	26.3
	Men	347	78.8	436	75.8	566	73.7	629	63.5	799	65.8
PARAGUAY	Both sexes	669	49.5	867	48.9	1,093	46.5	1,607	51.2	2,231	51.7
	Women	147	21.5	190	21.3	230	19.6	402	25.9	544	25.6
	Men	534	79.9	693	78.5	869	73.9	1,208	76.3	1,690	77.3
PERU	Both sexes	3,900	51.1	4,608	46.4	6,182	46.9	8,037	46.4	10,222	47.4
	Women	1,073	28.3	1,005	20.4	1,698	26.0	2,264	26.3	2,953	27.5
	Men	2,870	74.7	3,658	73.1	4,495	67.6	5,786	66.3	7,285	67.1
URUGUAY	Both sexes	1,151	51.4	1,249	49.2	1,362	48.5	1,433	49.2	1,628	52.6
	Women	216	19.5	242	19.1	369	26.2	481	32.4	626	39.5
	Men	872	77.0	944	74.3	997	71.4	957	66.9	1,006	66.7
VENEZUELA	Both sexes	2,521	49.5	3,608	47.6	4,472	41.7	6,530	43.3	9,100	46.7
	Women	611	24.3	899	24.2	946	17.9	1,631	21.9	2,601	26.9
	Men	2,082	80.7	2,978	77.1	3,537	65.2	4,911	64.3	6,513	66.2
LATIN AMERICA (19 countries)	Both sexes	81,763	52.4	97,646	47.4	122,999	45.5	159,847	46.5	204,635	48.6
	Women	17,917	23.1	18,524	18.1	25,928	19.2	40,402	23.5	57,546	27.2
	Men	64,450	82.1	79,996	77.5	97,251	71.8	119,607	69.6	147,409	70.3

Sources: Estimates on population aged 10 and older were estimated by CELADE, based on Population Censuses. CELADE, Boletín Demográfico, Year 25, N° 49, Santiago, Chile.

Although the massive entry of women into the labour force is a widespread trend in Latin America, there are obvious differences among countries. Over the past two decades, rates of women's activity in Brazil, Cuba, Mexico and Uruguay, for instance, increased 12 or more percentage points, whereas the rates in Argentina, Ecuador, Guatemala, Panama and Peru increased less than 5 percentage points. On the other hand, in Bolivia, Chile, Honduras and Venezuela there were increases similar to the regional average -eight percentage points between 1970 and 1990 (from 19.2% to 27.2%).

Despite the sharp increase in the women EAP from the 1950s onward, in the early 1990s only Uruguay recorded a women EAP of almost 40%. Except for Guatemala -where the rate was 15.6%- figures ranged from 20% to 35% in all the other Latin American countries, much lower than the rates for men. In 1990, the latter showed minor differences among countries and hovered around the 70% mark.

Differences in participation in the work force between men and women persist insofar as the indigenous population is concerned. Data from three Latin American countries (Chile, Guatemala and Paraguay) shows that, while four out of five working-age men are active, the figure drops to one out of every five for working-age women. Low women's participation rates in this case are partly due to more frequent underreporting of economically active women in rural areas, which is where the indigenous population is concentrated.

Latin American women's growing tendency to participate in economic activities, at least insofar as it is currently defined in conceptual and operational terms, is evidenced by the proportion that women represent in the overall EAP for both sexes, which has risen systematically from the 1950s to the present.

Census data reveals that, in 19 Latin American countries, the percentage of women in the entire economically active population grew from 21.9% in 1950 to 28.1% in 1990. From 1960 to 1990 -a period for which more comparable figures exist- the increase

is even higher: from 19.1% to 28.1%. Taking into account census-related underreporting and using more recent estimates from household surveys, it turns out that one out of every three economically active persons in Latin America is a woman.

INDIGENOUS POPULATION, BY SEX, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO ACTIVITY STATUS IN CHILE, GUATEMALA AND PARAGUAY, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

	Both sexes		Men		Women		♀/Total	
	N°	%	N°	%	N°	%	N°	
CHILE (1992)								
Active	511,350	52.3	—	—	—	—	—	—
Inactive	465,816	47.7	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total ⁽¹⁾	977,166	100.0	—	—	—	—	—	—
GUATEMALA (1989 in thousands)								
Active	725.8	69.7	685.6	82.4	40.2	19.2	5.5	
Inactive	315.8	30.3	146.6	17.6	169.2	80.8	53.6	
Total ⁽²⁾	1,041.6	100.0	832.2	100.0	209.4	100.0	20.1	
PARAGUAY (1981)								
Active	14,797	60.8	12,076	95.9	2,721	23.2	18.4	
Inactive	9,536	39.2	515	4.1	9,021	76.8	94.6	
Total ⁽³⁾	24,333	100.0	12,591	100.0	11,742	100.0	48.3	

Notes: (1) Data for population aged 12 and older. Active population includes gatherers. (2) Data for population aged 10 and older. (3) Data for population aged 15 and older.

The proportion of women in the total of economically active persons is lower in countries with larger rural populations. Thus, in Ecuador, Guatemala and Honduras, for example, it ranges from 17% to 22%. This is not only accounted for by statistical underreporting of women's activity in rural areas, but also by the problems inherent in measuring women's employment in informal activities, which is considerable in these countries.

A further possible assumption is that differentiation between women's and men's roles is even more acute in relatively less developed countries where the process of urban development is less advanced. This results in a larger percentage of women who are devoted exclusively (or state they are) to household chores. Such activities are deemed noneconomic for measuring purposes and, therefore, these women are classified as inactive from a statistical viewpoint.

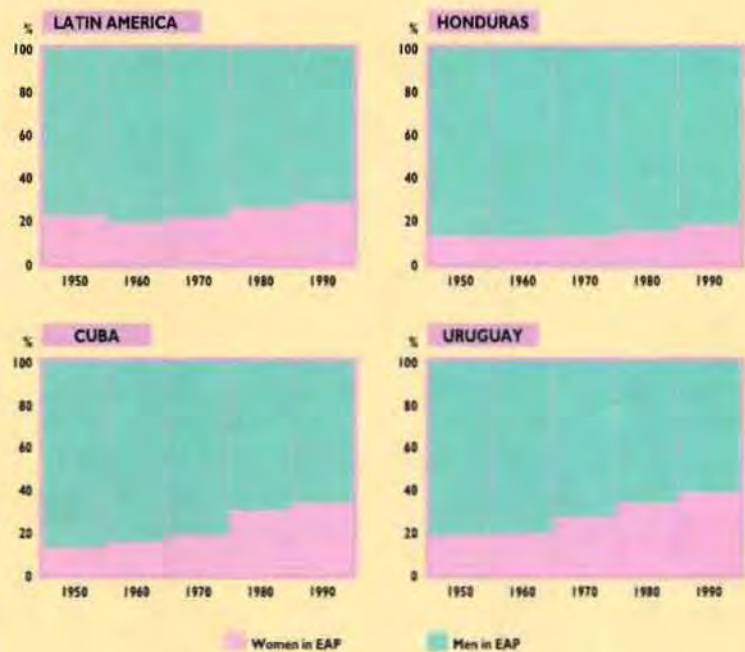
Interestingly enough, strong women's participation in the total EAP in Nicaragua in the late 1980s (34.4%) was partly due to the military conflict, which drained production sectors of men workers.

In the case of Cuba, the 33.7% share of women in the total EAP in 1990 -i.e. higher than the regional average of 28.1%- is partly the result of a deliberate policy. It was implemented by the Cuban government in order to have women join the labour force, and it dates back to the late 1960s. This effort even meant issuing resolutions (such as Resolution 47 issued by the Labour Ministry) which gave women priority in certain jobs.

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, EAP, 1950-1990

Country	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990
ARGENTINA	20.0	21.2	24.8	25.8	27.9
BOLIVIA	41.7	29.9	21.2	24.7	30.2
BRAZIL	15.4	17.8	20.4	27.0	29.6
CHILE	25.2	22.0	22.2	26.0	29.4
COLOMBIA	18.4	19.4	22.8	29.2	32.9
COSTA RICA	15.5	15.9	18.4	20.6	22.1
CUBA	12.6	15.3	18.6	30.0	33.7
DOMINICAN REP.	14.1	10.7	24.2	26.0	28.0
ECUADOR	26.0	17.5	15.8	19.5	21.9
EL SALVADOR	16.6	17.2	20.8	23.5	25.7
GUATEMALA	39.7	14.2	13.5	16.9	20.8
HONDURAS	13.1	12.5	13.1	14.8	17.8
MEXICO	13.2	16.6	18.9	27.3	29.2
NICARAGUA	13.6	18.2	20.5	27.9	34.4
PANAMA	19.4	20.4	25.3	26.8	28.0
PARAGUAY	21.9	21.9	21.0	25.0	24.4
PERU	27.5	21.8	27.5	28.2	28.9
URUGUAY	18.7	19.4	27.1	33.5	38.5
VENEZUELA	24.2	24.9	21.2	25.0	28.6
LATIN AMERICA	21.9	19.0	21.1	25.3	28.1

Note: Data on population aged 10 and older.



Statistically, Uruguay is the country where women have attained the highest rate of participation in the labour market in Latin America. This seems to be the result of Uruguay's early modernization of production and urban development. These two factors have helped women gain greater work-related visibility as they progressively joined the labour market as salaried workers or increased their income-earning economic activities in urban and rural areas.

The rapid growth of Latin America's women EAP, particularly when compared with the men EAP, is

brought to light through the increased rates for the period 1960-1990. During this period women's rate of entry into the labour market speeded up to such an extent that, for every 100 Latin American women recorded as economically active in 1970, there were 252 in 1990. In the case of men, however, for every 100 active men in 1970 there were 168 in 1990.

In all Latin American countries, the growth rate of the EAP for both sexes far surpassed the rate of total population growth. While the population grew at an annual average rate of 2.2% in all 19 countries, women EAP increased by 4.7% and men EAP in-

creased by an annual average of 2.6%.

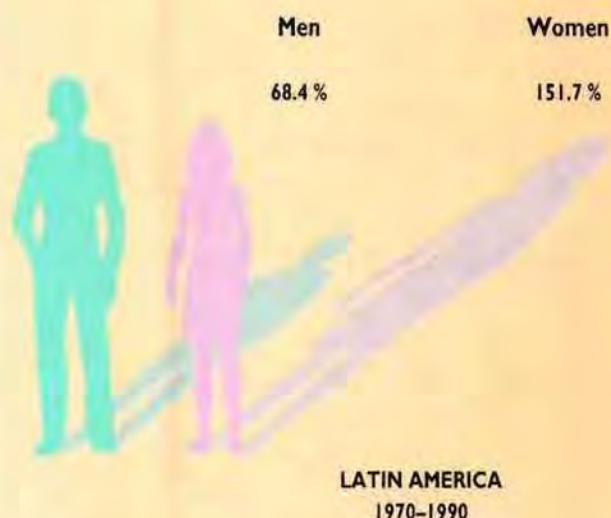
The EAP growth rates were also strongly influenced by the process of demographic transition in the countries involved. Generally speaking, countries that were considered to be experiencing full-blown or moderate transition in that period had age structures that helped the EAP grow at a faster rate due to high percentages of young people (aged 15 to 24) in the population.

Examples of this were Brazil, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua and

RATIO OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION GROWTH, BY SEX, 1970-1990 ⁽¹⁾

(Percentages)

	Women	Men
MEXICO	256.5	99.0
NICARAGUA	252.2	66.9
HONDURAS	235.0	98.3
CUBA	224.7	44.9
VENEZUELA	201.6	101.7
BRAZIL	179.4	70.8
COLOMBIA	168.2	61.6
ECUADOR	156.0	71.7
PARAGUAY	146.1	104.9
COSTA RICA	145.2	95.2
DOMINICAN REP.	143.0	97.4
GUATEMALA	134.6	62.7
BOLIVIA	134.1	45.4
CHILE	123.9	53.7
PERU	89.5	76.6
EL SALVADOR	82.7	36.9
PANAMA	80.1	55.6
URUGUAY	74.8	3.3
ARGENTINA	48.0	24.3
LATIN AMERICA	151.7	68.4



Note: (1) These figures were calculated by applying the activity rates recorded in the CELADE Boletín Demográfico, Year 25, N° 49 to the new, unpublished, population projections.

Venezuela, countries that had the highest EAP growth rates for both sexes over the past two decades in the region. Argentina, Chile and Uruguay, which were in an advanced stage of demographic transition, were at the opposite extreme with very low EAP growth rates.

EAP growth was even sharper in urban areas and large cities. Its effect on the labour market primarily affected young people seeking their first job. In the 1980s, low growth rates in the supply of new jobs resulted in significant increases in open and concealed unemployment rates, a situation that affected women most severely.

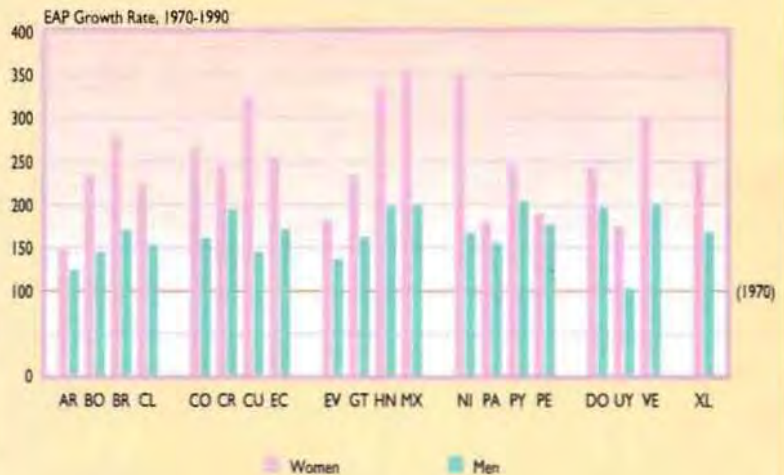
Several studies coincide in pointing out that measurements of women's involvement in economic activities based on household surveys are less affected by underreporting than measurements prepared according to population censuses. Regrettably, since systematic household surveys in most Latin American countries only began in the mid-1970s, there are no long-term historical series on participation in economic activities by gender.

GROWTH RATE OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION BY SEX, 1970-1990 ⁽¹⁾

(1970 = 100)

Country	Women		Men	
	1970	1990	1970	1990
ARGENTINA	100.0	148.0	100.0	124.3
BOLIVIA	100.0	234.1	100.0	145.4
BRAZIL	100.0	279.4	100.0	170.8
CHILE	100.0	223.9	100.0	153.7
COLOMBIA	100.0	268.2	100.0	161.6
COSTA RICA	100.0	245.2	100.0	195.2
CUBA	100.0	324.7	100.0	144.9
DOMINICAN REP.	100.0	243.0	100.0	197.4
ECUADOR	100.0	256.0	100.0	171.7
EL SALVADOR	100.0	182.7	100.0	136.9
GUATEMALA	100.0	234.6	100.0	162.7
HONDURAS	100.0	335.0	100.0	198.3
MEXICO	100.0	356.5	100.0	199.0
NICARAGUA	100.0	352.2	100.0	166.9
PANAMA	100.0	180.1	100.0	155.6
PARAGUAY	100.0	246.1	100.0	204.9
PERU	100.0	189.5	100.0	176.6
URUGUAY	100.0	174.8	100.0	103.3
VENEZUELA	100.0	301.6	100.0	201.7
LATIN AMERICA	100.0	251.7	100.0	168.4

Note: (1) These figures were calculated by using the activity rates recorded in the Boletín Demográfico, Year 25, N° 49 published by CELADE, to new, unpublished, population projections.



Nevertheless, women's participation levels should be analyzed according to more recent data collected through regional household surveys. The data shows that women accounted for 30% to 40% of the national EAP in the early 1990s. There is also a suspicion that these figures are underestimated, particularly because of underreporting of figures on economic participation among women in rural areas.

All statistical data shows that the percentage of active women in the aggregate EAP rises when it refers only to cities or urban areas. The increase is related to the degree of urban-rural differentiation that exists in each country, and also to the importance of rural employment with regard to total national figures.

In countries where the gap between the countryside and the city is still considerable and rural employment is an important factor, like Guatemala, outstanding differences persist. Guatemalan women represent a mere 25.5% of the national EAP (the lowest in Latin America), but they account for 36.8% of the urban EAP (a standard figure in regional terms).

When rates of economic participation are examined, which is the percentage of women who are part of the EAP compared to the overall number of working-age women (determined on a per country basis covering a range from 7 to 15 years of age), household surveys show that the rates fluctuate between 30 and 50% at present in Latin America, and that there are major differences among countries. The exception is Guatemala, with a lower rate of 24.5% for active women aged 10 and over, and 29.0% if the calculation includes women aged 15 and over.

WOMEN'S ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION IN SELECTED COUNTRIES ⁽¹⁾ LAST AVAILABLE YEAR (BASED ON HOUSEHOLD SURVEYS)

Country	Year	N° of women	% of EAP	Activity rate ⁽²⁾	Rate (15 and +)
BOLIVIA	1992	986.3	39.0	38.1 (7)	43.8
BRAZIL	1988	21,415.9	35.1	38.7 (10)	42.7
CHILE	1990	1,467.8	31.5	31.8 (15)	31.8
COSTA RICA	1992	325.0	29.9	30.0 (12)	32.7
CUBA	1991	1,432.8	39.1
DOMINICAN REP.	1991	1,451.7	39.0	55.2 (10)	...
GUATEMALA	1989	740.0	25.5	24.5 (10)	29.0
HONDURAS	1991	551.3	31.1	30.1 (10)	33.7
MEXICO	1991	9,599.0	30.7	31.5 (10)	33.9
NICARAGUA	1993	...	33.2	30.2 (10)	33.8
PANAMA	1991	290.4	33.9	38.2 (15)	38.2
PERU	1991	3,366.0	41.0	50.1 (15)	50.1
URUGUAY	1990	526.1	38.8	43.8 (12)	45.8
VENEZUELA	1990	2,150.3	30.5	35.6 (15)	35.6

Notes: (1) Countries in which household surveys provide nation-wide coverage, in addition to Bolivia, where the 1993 Population Census specifically sought out data on employment. (2) Figures in brackets indicate the minimum age used as a statistical record to measure economic participation in the country.

WOMEN'S ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION IN URBAN AREAS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES ⁽¹⁾, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR (BASED ON HOUSEHOLD SURVEYS)

Country	Year	N° of women	% of EAP	Activity rate ⁽²⁾	Rate (15 and +)
ARGENTINA	1990	4,060.2	36.2	40.2 (15)	40.2
BOLIVIA	1992	472.3	41.9	41.3 (10)	46.2
CHILE	1990	1,343.5	33.7	35.2 (15)	35.2
COLOMBIA	1991	1,942.0	42.6	46.6 (12)	48.7
COSTA RICA	1992	178.1	36.4	36.0 (12)	38.5
ECUADOR	1989	891.8	37.5	40.4 (12)	43.0
GUATEMALA	1989	505.4	36.8	37.1 (10)	42.3
HONDURAS	1991	316.8	39.5	40.8 (10)	43.6
MEXICO	1991	5,089.0	34.6	34.9 (12)	37.5
PARAGUAY	1990	520.2	41.1	46.8 (12)	49.6
PERU	1989 ⁽³⁾	955	40.5	48.2 (15)	48.2
URUGUAY	1990 ⁽³⁾	261	42.4	47.1 (12)	49.2

Notes: (1) Countries where Household Surveys are limited to urban centers (Argentina, Colombia, Ecuador, and Paraguay) to which countries from different sub-regions were added for comparison. (2) Figures in brackets indicate the minimum age used to record economic activity in the country. (3) Figures for the metropolitan area of the capital city, i.e. Lima and Montevideo.

Undoubtedly, these participation rates are quite low compared to those for men, which are around 80% region-wide. However, it should be kept in mind that the gender differences are actually lower due to significant underestimation of labour participation data on women. At the same time, it should be borne in mind that the long-term trend is still for women to join the labour force at a high, increasing rate while men's activity rates tend to decline slightly, thereby narrowing the gap between the sexes.

Trends in women EAP rates, by area, show that they have joined the labour force very energetically over the past two decades in both rural and urban areas. Urban women's involvement in labour, however, is still significantly higher than rural women's is.

In a comparison between economic participation in rural and urban areas, it is necessary to recognize that the manner in which people become active differs enormously, particularly in the case of women. Thus, for instance, women's involvement in rural areas is frequently linked to production for family consumption and not to mercantile activities in exchange for a salary, as is usually the case in urban areas. Likewise, the figures do not reflect how long the usual workday lasts or the fact that participation in agricultural activities is limited to seasonal work.

From 1970 to 1990, women's activity rates in Latin American urban areas grew 6.5 percentage points on the average (from 25.1% to 31.6%), whereas in rural areas the rates increased 6.9 percentage points (from 12.3% to 19.2%). Nevertheless, the proportion of women EAP in rural areas in national totals has dropped

**SPECIFIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY SEX
ACCORDING TO AREA OF RESIDENCE,
1970-1990**

(Rates per hundred)

Country		Urban			Rural		
		1970	1980	1990	1970	1980	1990
ARGENTINA	Both sexes	49.2	48.1	47.6	49.1	49.4	47.6
	Women	26.7	26.2	27.7	14.5	14.6	14.0
	Men	72.8	71.4	68.9	77.8	77.7	74.3
BOLIVIA	Both sexes	44.1	44.2	43.6	48.1	49.1	52.3
	Women	24.3	25.8	28.4	16.1	20.2	28.6
	Men	65.6	64.1	60.3	80.4	78.2	75.8
BRAZIL	Both sexes	43.1	50.0	51.8	47.3	49.4	49.9
	Women	22.5	30.8	33.7	12.1	17.5	19.0
	Men	65.3	70.3	70.8	79.4	78.3	77.8
CHILE	Both sexes	40.8	41.1	46.3	42.7	43.4	47.7
	Women	20.8	22.8	28.8	7.8	13.7	14.8
	Men	63.1	61.3	65.4	71.9	67.5	74.2
COLOMBIA	Both sexes	43.8	44.0	47.6	45.6	47.9	50.3
	Women	25.9	28.4	32.9	10.6	21.4	27.9
	Men	64.7	61.6	64.0	75.9	70.4	69.2
COSTA RICA	Both sexes	44.8	45.3	47.1	45.0	46.9	48.0
	Women	25.8	26.8	27.9	9.4	12.5	14.6
	Men	66.8	66.0	67.9	76.7	77.8	78.2
CUBA	Both sexes	42.8	45.9	52.6	40.5	39.7	47.2
	Women	19.9	31.1	38.2	8.6	15.7	23.0
	Men	66.6	61.4	67.7	67.5	60.4	68.1
DOMINICAN R.	Both sexes	46.9	50.9	55.1	52.5	50.3	50.5
	Women	26.8	31.3	35.9	23.0	21.5	21.3
	Men	69.5	71.2	75.3	78.4	76.0	75.9
ECUADOR	Both sexes	42.2	43.0	44.8	45.4	42.8	43.1
	Women	20.9	23.1	24.6	8.8	10.4	11.9
	Men	65.7	64.4	65.8	79.6	72.8	72.5
EL SALVADOR	Both sexes	50.0	49.6	49.3	49.6	47.6	46.0
	Women	31.2	33.2	34.9	12.6	12.4	12.2
	Men	71.2	69.0	66.7	83.6	81.2	78.7
GUATEMALA	Both sexes	45.3	43.3	45.3	44.2	41.5	41.9
	Women	23.3	21.6	25.3	4.8	6.2	8.5
	Men	68.8	66.7	67.0	80.7	74.1	73.0
HONDURAS	Both sexes	45.0	46.9	52.3	45.6	46.0	48.4
	Women	25.7	27.9	32.9	6.1	8.0	11.0
	Men	66.6	67.9	73.9	83.3	81.3	82.4
MEXICO	Both sexes	39.7	47.3	49.9	41.4	50.2	51.6
	Women	16.6	27.6	30.8	13.0	23.3	24.4
	Men	64.0	67.9	69.9	68.2	75.3	76.8
NICARAGUA	Both sexes	41.9	48.0	49.7	44.9	48.5	49.7
	Women	26.0	33.6	37.9	8.7	18.4	25.3
	Men	60.9	63.9	64.1	77.1	77.2	76.1
PANAMA	Both sexes	52.1	46.4	49.2	48.6	41.9	42.9
	Women	36.7	33.7	36.0	13.7	12.7	13.0
	Men	69.0	60.1	63.5	77.7	66.6	68.3
PARAGUAY	Both sexes	48.1	50.2	50.8	45.4	52.1	52.6
	Women	29.5	28.8	28.0	12.2	23.3	22.9
	Men	69.2	73.4	75.0	76.8	78.5	79.5
PERU	Both sexes	44.8	45.3	46.9	49.9	48.6	48.7
	Women	25.1	26.4	28.3	27.2	26.2	25.6
	Men	64.5	64.2	65.7	72.2	70.4	70.5
URUGUAY	Both sexes	47.5	48.1	51.7	53.0	55.3	59.9
	Women	27.7	33.4	40.1	17.1	24.8	33.8
	Men	69.6	64.8	64.9	77.9	76.6	77.5
VENEZUELA	Both sexes	42.2	44.5	47.6	40.3	38.4	41.5
	Women	21.6	24.7	29.2	6.6	9.3	13.5
	Men	63.7	64.6	66.5	68.7	63.0	65.0
LATIN AMERICA (Simple average)	Both sexes	45.0	46.4	48.9	46.3	46.8	48.4
	Women	25.1	28.3	31.6	12.3	16.4	19.2
	Men	66.7	66.0	67.5	76.5	73.8	74.4

due to accelerated urban development in most countries.

Generally speaking, in both contexts -urban and rural- the steep differences in the activity rates of men and women decreased, although in overall regional terms the gap narrowed more noticeably in rural areas. Around 1970, women accounted for 27% of the urban EAP, and this figure grew to 32% by 1990. In rural areas, however, figures climbed from 13% to 20% in the same period.

The pronounced growth of women's participation in labour in rural areas,

which in many countries was even higher than urban figures (Bolivia, Colombia, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Uruguay), is linked to the economic transformation that took place in those areas. The decreasing importance of agriculture and production for family consumption, coupled with the growth in service-related activities and salaried jobs, have made it easier for women to enter the labour market. At the same time, this has made their participation more "visible" and helped improve measurement of employment, thereby decreasing the underestimation of numbers of active women.

The above is evident when examining the fairly low women's activity rates in rural areas in Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Panama (which range from 8% to 13% compared to the 19% average for Latin America), countries where traditional agricultural activities carry significant weight.

**SPECIFIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY SEX
ACCORDING TO AREA OF RESIDENCE, 1990**



Source: CELADE, Boletín Demográfico, Year 25, N° 49, Santiago, Chile, 1992.

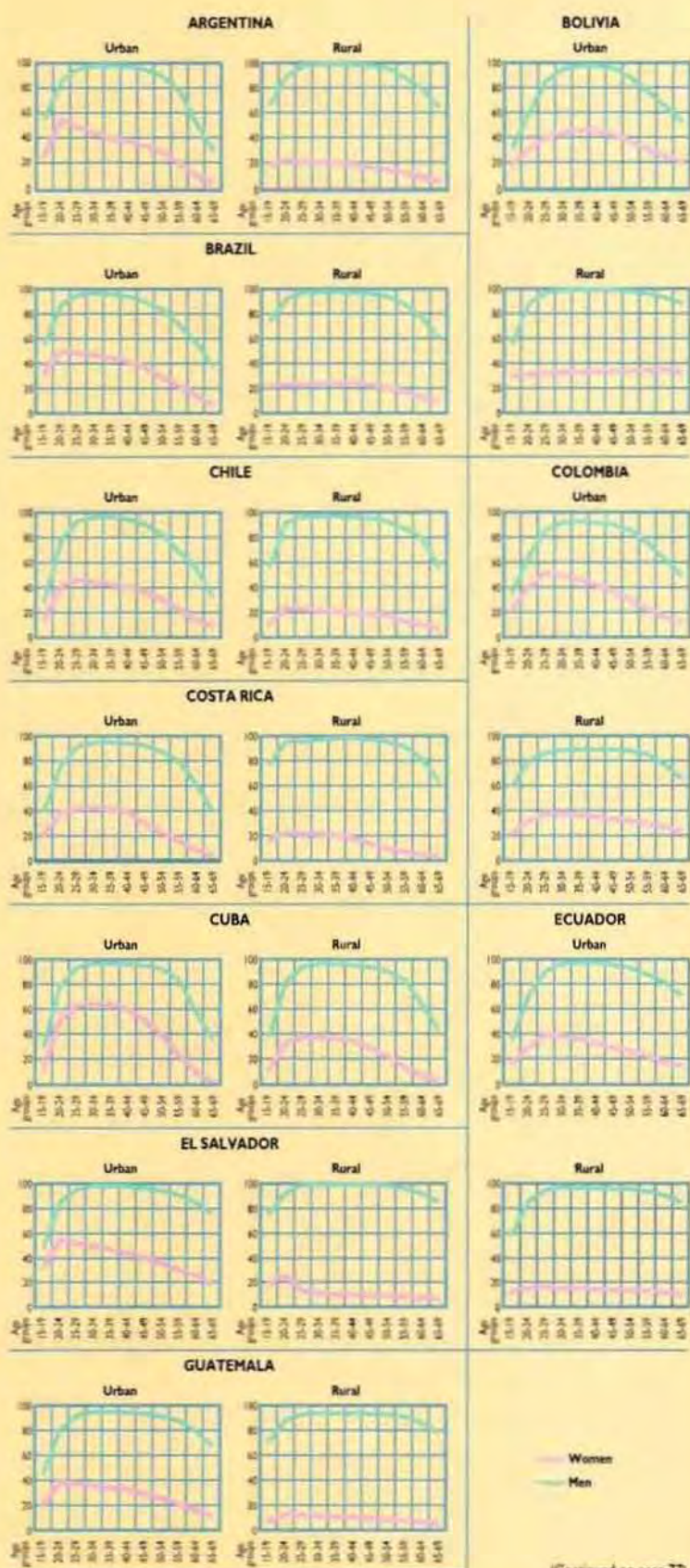
When economic participation is analyzed according to the different age groups in the population, substantial differences between men and women are evident once more. Figures from population censuses and household surveys point to a common pattern; women's participation rates peak between the ages of 25 and 29 and decrease moderately thereafter until age 50. In the case of men, however, labour involvement continues on an upward curve up to age 35 and drops progressively afterward.

The decrease in women's activity rates in virtually all countries, from about age 25 onwards, is related to the fact that from that age on many women devote themselves completely to household and family chores (which are statistically considered noneconomic). This phenomenon is also reinforced by the fact that many women state that they are "economically inactive" because they engage primarily in housework, regardless of whether or not they sporadically or periodically engage in economic activities inside or outside the home.

A fact worth noting, however, is that the decrease in activity rates starting at age 25 is moderate, and also that these rates drop sharply only from age 50 onward. This shows that a significant percentage of women who enter the labour market do not withdraw on account of marriage or motherhood. Furthermore, figures show that the highest percentages of economic participation are found in women aged 20 to 34. These are childbearing years, a time when it is most difficult to reconcile household chores with labour market-related work.

SPECIFIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS, 1990

(Rates per hundred)



(Continued on page 77)

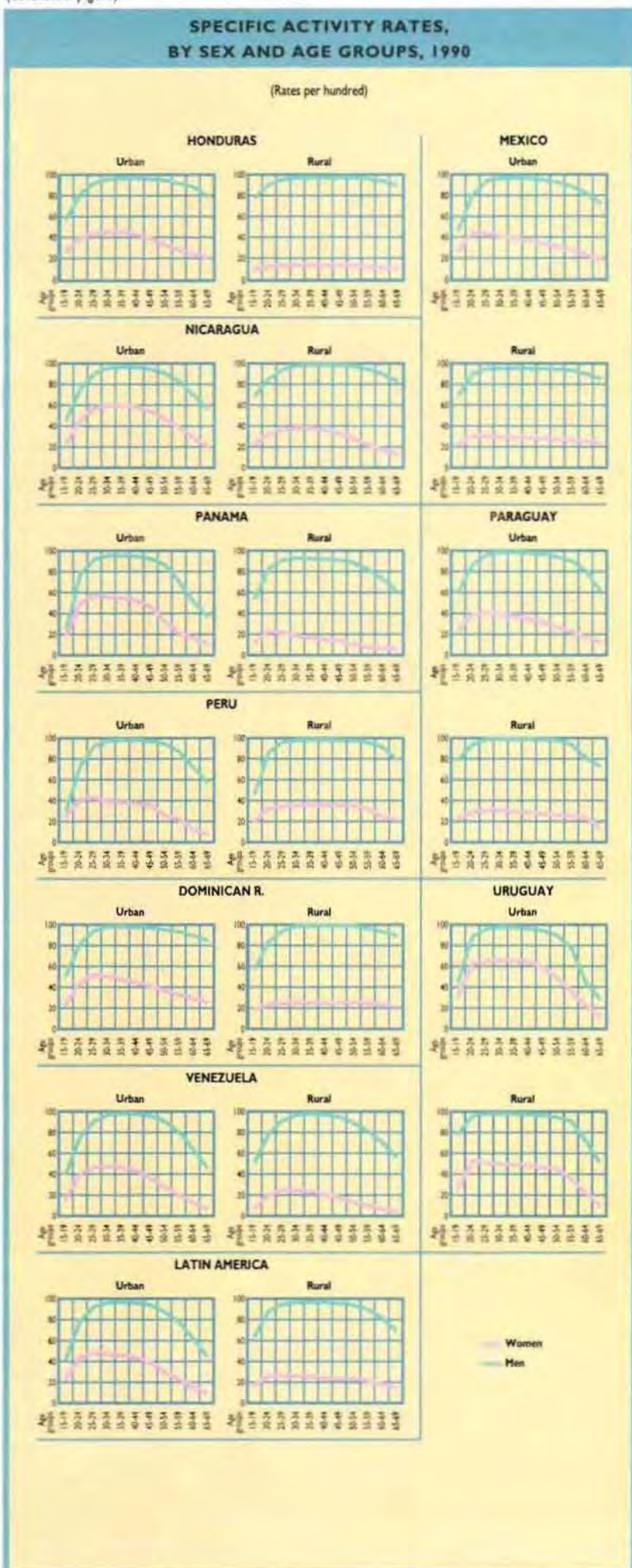
SPECIFIC ACTIVITY RATES, BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS, 1990

((Rates per hundred)

Country	Age 15-19		Age 20-24		Age 25-29		Age 30-34		Age 40-44		Age 45-49		Age 50-54		Age 60-64		Age 65-69	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
ARGENTINA																		
Urban	25.4	55.6	55.2	86.0	48.4	95.5	39.2	98.0	37.1	97.1	33.6	94.7	28.3	89.7	10.0	52.0	5.0	30.0
Rural	18.3	67.3	22.5	89.7	19.7	98.0	19.1	98.8	18.3	98.5	16.1	97.6	14.4	95.8	9.0	79.3	6.1	65.0
BOLIVIA																		
Urban	17.8	32.5	30.7	60.5	40.0	85.5	46.0	97.6	45.0	97.6	42.0	95.5	36.5	88.0	25.0	65.5	20.0	52.5
Rural	30.3	56.6	31.4	88.5	32.0	96.8	33.0	99.1	33.3	99.4	34.0	99.3	34.2	97.8	35.3	93.0	33.0	88.5
BRAZIL																		
Urban	33.4	56.1	50.4	87.7	48.4	95.3	44.5	95.8	42.0	93.9	37.0	89.2	29.5	83.4	14.8	56.9	7.5	38.3
Rural	21.7	73.9	23.2	92.1	23.3	97.0	24.2	97.5	24.1	97.0	22.7	96.0	20.3	94.0	13.2	76.8	9.1	61.8
CHILE																		
Urban	14.4	28.8	41.1	77.8	46.5	93.3	42.6	96.3	40.7	94.3	36.9	90.3	30.8	82.6	14.3	55.9	9.8	33.4
Rural	10.5	57.2	23.5	92.2	22.7	96.4	20.5	96.8	19.5	96.0	18.6	95.1	17.1	92.5	10.6	80.1	7.4	56.5
COLOMBIA																		
Urban	21.8	36.5	40.7	65.2	51.8	86.4	46.7	92.5	42.3	91.5	36.2	90.4	29.6	85.5	16.4	62.8	12.0	50.3
Rural	22.0	59.6	32.1	79.9	38.1	86.5	36.7	89.0	35.4	89.0	33.8	89.0	32.1	88.0	27.1	77.3	23.8	65.9
COSTA RICA																		
Urban	20.8	40.1	38.4	76.3	42.0	91.7	41.6	95.0	39.3	93.9	30.4	92.2	22.4	87.2	9.0	62.0	4.5	40.2
Rural	16.3	77.4	22.4	95.7	21.7	95.5	20.2	98.0	17.7	98.4	13.8	96.8	9.8	95.4	5.2	82.2	4.1	64.5
CUBA																		
Urban	13.5	29.9	51.7	79.2	62.9	93.6	64.1	96.7	60.4	96.3	51.5	95.2	39.7	92.3	10.7	59.3	3.3	36.4
Rural	10.7	37.8	33.4	81.9	36.9	94.2	36.6	96.1	34.4	95.1	28.8	93.8	22.4	90.4	7.2	65.0	4.1	44.2
DOMINICAN REP.																		
Urban	24.5	52.0	44.5	82.6	52.2	94.8	47.2	98.2	44.3	97.7	40.9	97.1	37.0	95.4	29.5	89.9	25.3	85.3
Rural	18.9	58.4	23.5	84.2	25.0	94.5	25.0	99.0	25.0	99.0	25.0	99.0	25.0	99.0	23.5	93.4	21.9	89.8
ECUADOR																		
Urban	15.8	35.7	29.5	70.7	39.9	90.3	36.5	97.2	31.9	97.1	28.7	95.6	26.6	92.7	17.2	81.4	14.3	71.5
Rural	11.7	58.7	15.5	85.5	16.2	94.6	14.9	96.0	14.3	96.0	13.6	95.5	13.4	95.5	11.8	90.4	10.6	85.4
EL SALVADOR																		
Urban	33.3	49.3	55.1	85.4	52.4	95.3	47.7	98.1	44.1	97.7	40.9	96.5	36.4	94.3	26.1	85.2	19.3	76.8
Rural	19.2	76.0	24.8	92.7	13.2	99.0	10.3	99.0	10.1	99.0	9.5	99.0	9.0	98.6	7.7	92.3	6.3	86.0
GUATEMALA																		
Urban	21.1	45.6	38.4	80.1	37.4	92.0	34.4	95.2	32.8	94.4	29.4	93.7	25.8	91.2	16.4	80.2	12.2	68.1
Rural	7.5	71.0	12.9	88.4	12.3	92.9	11.1	93.6	10.5	93.4	9.7	93.2	9.0	92.8	7.0	86.8	4.7	78.6
HONDURAS																		
Urban	26.8	57.9	39.4	82.2	43.7	92.7	45.1	96.6	42.8	96.4	38.7	95.8	33.0	94.9	24.0	89.0	21.0	79.5
Rural	9.9	78.5	12.1	91.0	12.9	95.6	13.6	97.1	13.5	97.2	13.2	97.0	12.6	96.9	11.3	94.0	10.6	90.0
MEXICO																		
Urban	26.6	47.5	44.8	80.9	43.3	94.0	38.8	96.6	36.5	96.1	34.1	95.1	31.0	92.5	23.2	82.8	18.9	72.6
Rural	22.5	69.9	30.7	90.1	30.8	95.0	29.0	95.4	28.7	95.3	28.4	95.0	27.6	94.7	25.6	90.2	23.6	85.9
NICARAGUA																		
Urban	24.1	46.7	46.5	75.9	57.0	90.4	60.1	96.6	58.3	96.4	54.3	94.6	47.0	90.5	29.4	70.1	20.2	56.9
Rural	23.1	69.5	32.9	85.8	36.8	95.0	37.8	98.5	35.9	98.5	32.8	98.5	27.6	97.5	17.4	90.0	13.6	83.3
PANAMA																		
Urban	19.0	25.6	50.4	77.8	57.3	92.3	54.9	95.4	52.7	94.9	46.2	92.4	33.1	86.6	16.8	52.0	11.3	37.5
Rural	12.1	54.1	22.7	84.1	21.3	91.2	16.8	92.6	14.9	92.0	13.6	91.4	10.5	88.6	7.0	73.6	6.3	61.8
PARAGUAY																		
Urban	24.0	61.3	38.8	86.6	40.0	96.1	37.6	98.6	35.0	97.7	31.3	96.9	26.7	94.3	17.3	81.2	12.3	62.6
Rural	23.5	79.2	29.0	94.2	31.0	98.5	29.5	99.0	28.5	98.8	27.5	98.5	26.5	98.0	24.0	87.6	14.5	73.3
PERU																		
Urban	24.7	30.8	41.0	73.6	42.8	92.7	38.2	98.5	37.7	98.3	36.2	97.1	25.8	94.7	13.0	72.4	7.7	58.0
Rural	20.2	47.3	33.1	86.8	34.7	96.7	36.1	98.5	36.1	98.4	35.6	98.1	35.3	97.6	24.6	92.0	22.0	80.0
URUGUAY																		
Urban	32.3	45.5	61.9	88.8	65.0	96.0	65.5	97.7	64.5	96.4	59.0	94.4	50.0	90.1	22.9	49.6	12.9	28.9
Rural	26.0	78.9	52.9	95.9	51.0	97.8	49.5	97.8	48.5	97.4	46.9	96.3	44.9	94.9	22.9	73.0	11.2	51.9
VENEZUELA																		
Urban	16.0	40.6	39.9	75.7	46.6	91.0	46.7	98.2	43.2	97.8	36.4	96.3	28.0	91.0	13.7	64.5	7.3	46.7
Rural	8.3	51.6	19.8	78.6	25.3	92.0	23.5	98.0	20.9	97.0	17.5	95.0	13.5	89.5	7.0	70.9	4.7	56.8
LATIN AMERICA (Simple average)																		
Urban	22.9	43.0	44.1	78.6	48.3	92.6	46.2	96.8	43.7	96.1	39.1	94.4	30.5	87.8	16.0	63.1	10.0	45.7
Rural	17.5	64.4	26.2	88.3	26.6	95.1	25.6	96.8	24.7	96.6	23.2	96.0	23.9	94.1	18.4	82.1	15.2	70.2

The above features are common to both rural and urban areas in Latin America, although activity rates for rural women are significantly lower in all age groups.

Another interesting fact is the modest activity rate among young people, particularly among women in the 15 to 19 age group. In 1990, the average activity rate in urban areas in the 19 Latin American countries was only 22.9%, and it increased to 48.3% in the case of women aged 25 to 29. The difference has become more evident in recent years due to both increased schooling in secondary and higher education and the increased tendency of urban women to join the labour market as educational levels improve.



EMPLOYMENT STRUCTURE

There are marked differences between women's employment and men's employment at all levels of the job structure. The differences are found in the unequal distribution of active men and women among sectors or lines of business, as well as among job categories, professional groups and trades.

With regard to the major areas of activity -agriculture, industry and services- the typical job distribution profile for women shows that a large percentage works in the service sector (between 60% and 80%), followed by a much more modest share in industry (from 15% to 25%) and generally a very small fraction in agriculture or the primary sector. With regard to the latter, there are, however, more pronounced differences among countries depending on their degree of urban development.

The cases of Bolivia in 1992 and Chile in 1989 will help to illustrate two extreme profiles. The Bolivian service sector included 46.7% of all employed women, whereas in Chile 78.4% of them were included in that sector. On the other hand, 43.9% of the Bolivian women worked in agriculture, whereas this amounted to only 5.9% for Chilean women. In both countries,

industry employed a small part of the total -9.4% in Bolivia and 15.7% in Chile.

In the case of men, job distribution by sector is more balanced; a higher percentage is engaged in industry and a substantially smaller fraction works in services as compared to women. In most countries, industry accounts for anywhere from 20% to 35% of men's employment. The exceptions are Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Honduras and Panama, countries which have relatively low levels of industrialization by regional standards.

Available data for the 1980-1990 period indicates that employment in the service sector has continued its upward trend, whereas the fraction of women employed in industry and the secondary sector has generally declined. This phenomenon was further reinforced in the past decade by the economic crisis that affected most Latin American countries, a situation that was compounded by Latin America's low capacity to generate industrial employment.

The service sector, where the major portion of the EAP is employed, covers a broad range of professions and trades. They range from the more stable, better paying jobs in the labour market (managers and administrators in the financial sector, for example), to the public sector and down to the activities carried out by

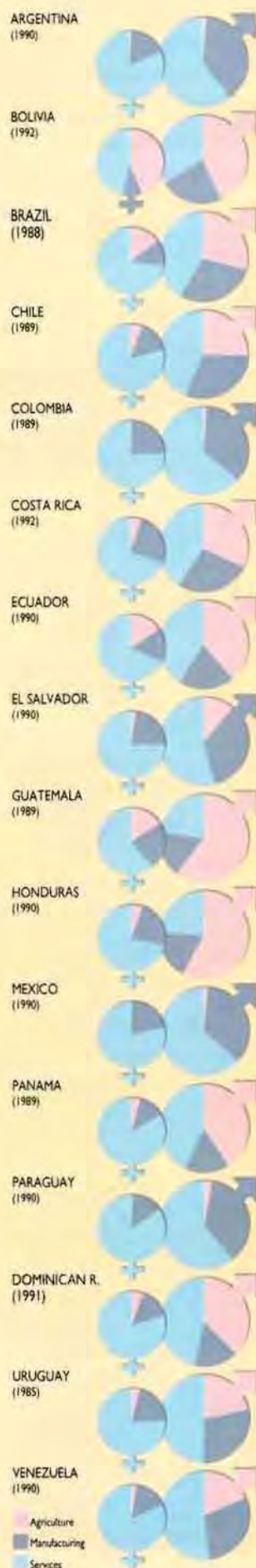
the least skilled individuals (such as street vendors). This must be kept in mind when examining the implications for the well-being of the substantial and growing number of active people in the service sector in most Latin American countries, particularly women, who have joined this sector more rapidly than others.



EMPLOYED POPULATION, BY SEX AND BRANCH OF ECONOMIC ACTIVITY ¹⁾

(Percentages)

Country		Women			Men		
		Agriculture	Manufacturing	Services	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Services
ARGENTINA (Ages 14 and older)							
(Greater B. Aires)	1980	2.2	23.9	73.9	4.2	45.3	50.5
	1990	1.0	17.4	81.6	1.8	38.1	60.1
BOLIVIA (Ages 7 and older)							
(Nationwide)	1976	27.2	18.5	54.3	54.1	20.7	25.2
	1992	43.9	9.4	46.7	44.9	23.9	35.3
BRAZIL (Ages 10 and older)							
(Nationwide)	1981	19.8	13.0	67.2	33.6	30.0	36.4
	1988	14.7	12.7	72.6	29.4	29.0	41.6
CHILE							
(Nationwide)	1980	2.8	16.3	80.6	21.9	26.8	51.3
	1989	5.9	15.7	78.4	25.3	31.2	43.5
COLOMBIA (Ages 12 and older)							
(7 major cities.)	1982	0.4	24.3	75.3	1.3	36.7	62.0
	1989	0.6	24.0	75.4	1.4	34.8	63.9
COSTA RICA							
(Nationwide)	1983	5.1	21.7	73.2	36.2	21.8	42.0
	1992	5.5	25.0	69.5	32.1	27.3	40.6
CUBA							
(Nationwide)	1980	10.6	21.6	67.8	28.9	32.0	39.1
	1990
DOMINICAN R.							
(Nationwide)	1981	6.4	14.6	79.1	53.4	18.6	28.0
	1991	6.0	14.1	79.9	37.6	16.0	46.4
ECUADOR							
(Nationwide)	1982	13.0	17.1	69.9	41.1	21.9	37.0
	1990	15.8	15.7	68.5	38.8	20.1	41.1
EL SALVADOR (Ages 10 and older)							
(Urban area) ¹⁾	1980
	1990	2.7	22.4	74.9	11.3	34.6	54.1
GUATEMALA							
(Nationwide)	1980	12.9	28.3	58.8	60.4	17.5	22.1
	1989	16.0	22.8	61.2	60.5	16.9	22.6
HONDURAS (Ages 10 and older)							
(Nationwide) ¹⁾	1980
	1990	5.7	22.9	71.4	57.8	18.1	24.1
MEXICO (Ages 12 and older)							
(Urban area) ¹⁾	1980
	1990	0.3	21.0	78.7	1.6	34.6	63.8
NICARAGUA							
	1980
	1990
PANAMA (Ages 15 and older)							
(Nationwide)	1982	5.6	11.8	82.6	38.5	19.2	42.3
	1989	4.7	12.0	83.3	40.9	16.2	42.9
PARAGUAY (Ages 12 and older)							
(Nationwide)	1982	12.0	23.4	64.6	55.4	19.9	24.7
(A.M. Asunción)	1990	0.8	14.8	84.4	3.1	35.8	61.1
PERU							
(Nationwide)	1981	26.1	12.9	61.0	44.2	18.8	37.0
	1990
URUGUAY (Ages 12 and older)							
(Nationwide)	1981	3.0	23.0	74.0	21.1	32.0	46.9
	1985	4.4	19.8	75.8	21.4	28.9	49.7
VENEZUELA							
(Nationwide)	1976	4.9	18.6	76.5	25.1	28.5	46.4
	1990	2.5	15.8	81.7	18.4	29.9	51.7



Note: (1) Since individuals who fall into the "not specified" category were not included in some cases, re-scaling was necessary in order to obtain the total 100%.

Legend:
 Agriculture (light blue)
 Manufacturing (dark blue)
 Services (pink)

Source: Villés, Teresa, and Gomáriz, Enrique (Coord.). Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Cifras (Series 19 books-countries), Instituto de la Mujer, Ministerio de Asuntos Sociales, Spain/FLACSO, 1992-1995. Data for the age group examined in every country was not available. Data had to be completed in some cases by preparing special tabulations of household surveys.

From a gender perspective, the biggest difference that emerges on analyzing the employment structure according to job category is that which exists between salaried and unsalaried workers. In the case of women, the difference points to the problems inherent in reconciling household chores with labour

market-related work and helps to examine gender-based occupational segmentation and wage discrimination. These issues will be discussed further on.

Information obtained from household surveys shows that in urban areas most active individuals of both sexes

are salaried workers. Except for Bolivia and El Salvador (for both sexes) and Peru (in the case of women), around 60% to 80% of the EAP participate in the labour market as salaried workers.

EMPLOYED URBAN POPULATION, BY SEX, ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY CIRCA 1990

(Percentages)

Country ⁽¹⁾				Employers	Salaried workers	Self employed	Non wage earning family member	Total
ARGENTINA	1990	[Greater B. Aires] [Ages 10 & older]	Women	2.8	70.5	26.7	...	100.0
			Men	6.9	68.4	24.7	...	100.0
BOLIVIA	1989	[17 major cities] [Ages 10 & older]	Women	0.9	43.8	46.8	8.6	100.0
			Men	3.9	59.2	32.6	4.4	100.0
BRAZIL	1990	[Urban area] [Ages 10 & older]	Women	2.4 (2.1)	73.6 (66.5)	20.6 (20.7)	3.3 (10.7)	100.0
			Men	6.8 (6.0)	71.2 (63.3)	20.0 (23.9)	1.9 (6.8)	100.0
CHILE	1990	[Urban area] [Ages 12 & older]	Women	1.5 (1.4)	79.6 (77.9)	16.9 (17.8)	2.0 (2.9)	100.0
			Men	3.1 (3.0)	74.1 (71.0)	22.4 (24.6)	0.4 (1.4)	100.0
COLOMBIA	1990	[8 major cities] [Ages 12 & older]	Women	2.1	73.2	22.2	2.5	100.0
			Men	5.6	67.1	26.7	0.6	100.0
COSTA RICA	1990	[Urban area] [Ages 12 & older]	Women	2.3 (1.9)	79.6 (77.7)	13.9 (14.2)	4.2 (6.2)	100.0
			Men	7.3 (6.6)	72.2 (67.1)	19.4 (21.6)	1.2 (4.7)	100.0
DOMINICAN R.	1991	[Nationwide]	Women	(1.4)	(60.4)	(29.6)	(8.6)	100.0
			Men	(3.8)	(44.4)	(39.6)	(12.2)	100.0
ECUADOR	1989	[Urban area] [Ages 12 & older]	Women	3.9	59.0	28.9	8.2	100.0
			Men	9.8	61.2	26.7	2.3	100.0
EL SALVADOR	1990	[Urban area] [Ages 10 & older]	Women	1.6	52.5	37.1	8.8	100.0
			Men	4.8	71.4	19.2	4.6	100.0
GUATEMALA	1990	[Metrop. area] [Ages 10 & older]	Women	1.0	71.5	22.8	4.7	100.0
			Men	3.4	76.4	19.1	1.0	100.0
HONDURAS	1990	[Urban area] [Ages 10 & older]	Women	0.9	59.1	33.4	6.5	100.0
			Men	1.9	69.8	24.2	4.0	100.0
MEXICO	1990	[Urban area] [Ages 12 & older]	Women	1.5	76.3	14.6	7.5	100.0
			Men	5.8	72.3	19.0	3.0	100.0
PANAMA	1989	[Urban area] [Ages 15 & older]	Women	0.9 (1.0)	84.2 (80.2)	12.9 (15.5)	2.1 (3.3)	100.0
			Men	2.6 (2.4)	64.3 (53.3)	29.6 (36.6)	3.6 (7.7)	100.0
PARAGUAY	1990	[M. area Asunción] [Ages 12 & older]	Women	2.4	67.4	30.0	0.2	100.0
			Men	13.5	69.1	16.9	0.5	100.0
PERU ⁽²⁾	1989	[M. area Lima] [Ages 14 & older]	Women	1.1	57.7	32.7	8.5	100.0
			Men	4.8	65.6	24.9	4.7	100.0
URUGUAY	1990	[Urban area] [Ages 14 & older]	Women	2.4	76.2	18.0	3.5	100.0
			Men	8.1	73.5	17.6	0.8	100.0
VENEZUELA	1990	[Urban area] [Ages 10 & older]	Women	2.3 (2.3)	77.5 (75.7)	17.8 (19.1)	2.3 (2.9)	100.0
			Men	10.2 (9.8)	66.2 (62.5)	22.3 (24.6)	1.3 (3.1)	100.0

Notes: (1) When nation-wide information was available it is shown between brackets. The Dominican Republic is the exception since only aggregate national data was available. No data on Cuba and Nicaragua were available. (2) When available, the age of the population examined is indicated in square brackets. (3) Data for economically active population, EAP.

A comparative analysis of EAP profiles according to job category indicates that women's work more frequently as salaried workers than men, on both national and urban levels. This is generally so because men engage more often in independent work, as self-employed individuals and particularly as bosses or employers. Women, on the other hand, engage more frequently than men in non-wage-earning household work.

Around 1990, with the sole exception of Ecuador, women employers in the urban areas of all Latin American countries accounted for less than 3% of all active women, whereas men employers ranged from 5% to 10%. These figures reflect clearly one of the aspects of gender inequality in the labour scene: the fact that, in the labour market, men continue to hold an overwhelming portion of higher level positions in the employment structure.

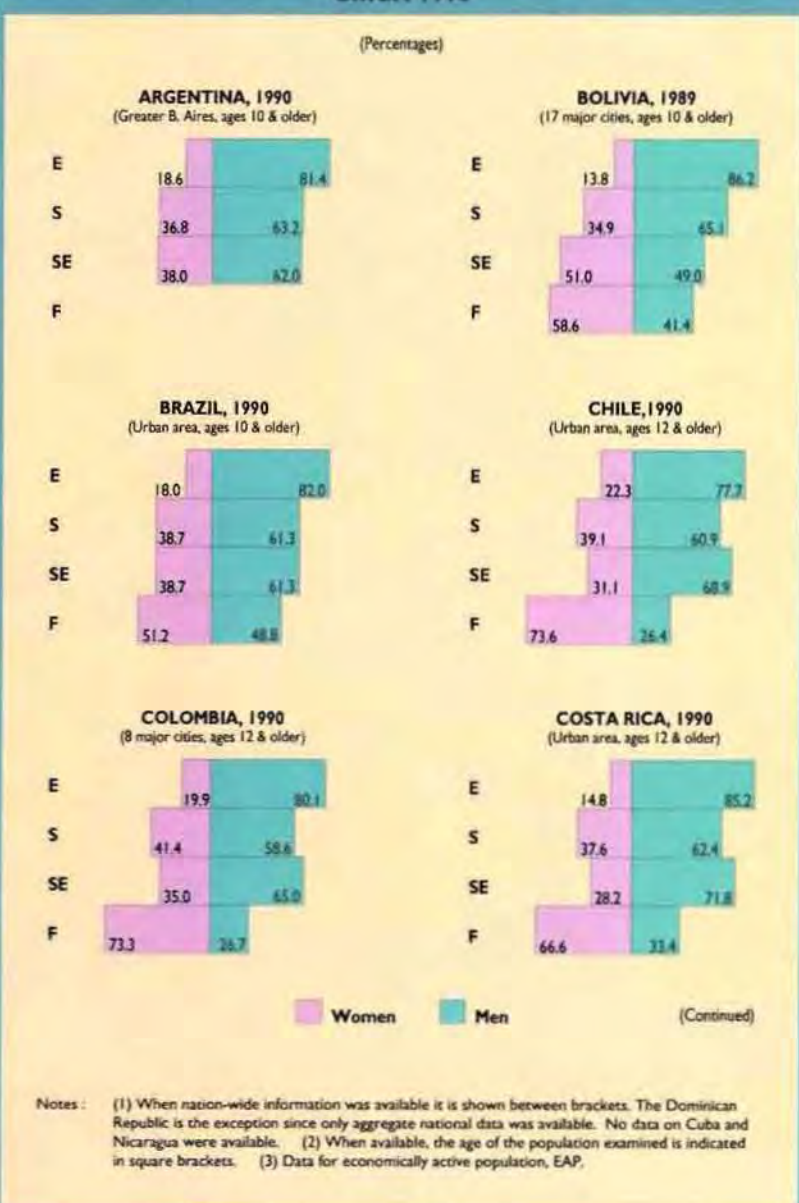
Moreover, the marked job segmentation between the sexes explains, to a great extent, why salaried employment is currently the category that women are in most frequently, even in comparison to men. Women typically engage in certain occupations that entail a salary like housekeepers, teachers, store clerks and secretaries, occupations which represent a very high percentage of the women EAP.

Yet another feature of current employment profiles according to job category in Latin America is the considerable number of active women who are self-employed. Toward 1990, the percentage of self-employed women was higher than the figure for men in the urban areas of 10 countries. The highest percentages are found in countries

where a very substantial share of the EAP works in the informal sector of the economy: Bolivia, El Salvador, Honduras, Paraguay and Peru. As a result of the economic crisis, the percentage of self-employed women grew in the 1980s due to the severe obstacles many women faced in securing formal jobs.

The gender breakdown of each job category shows that women are a minority in every one of them compared to men, except in the case of non wage-earning household workers. This is due to the lower rates of women's participation in the labour market.

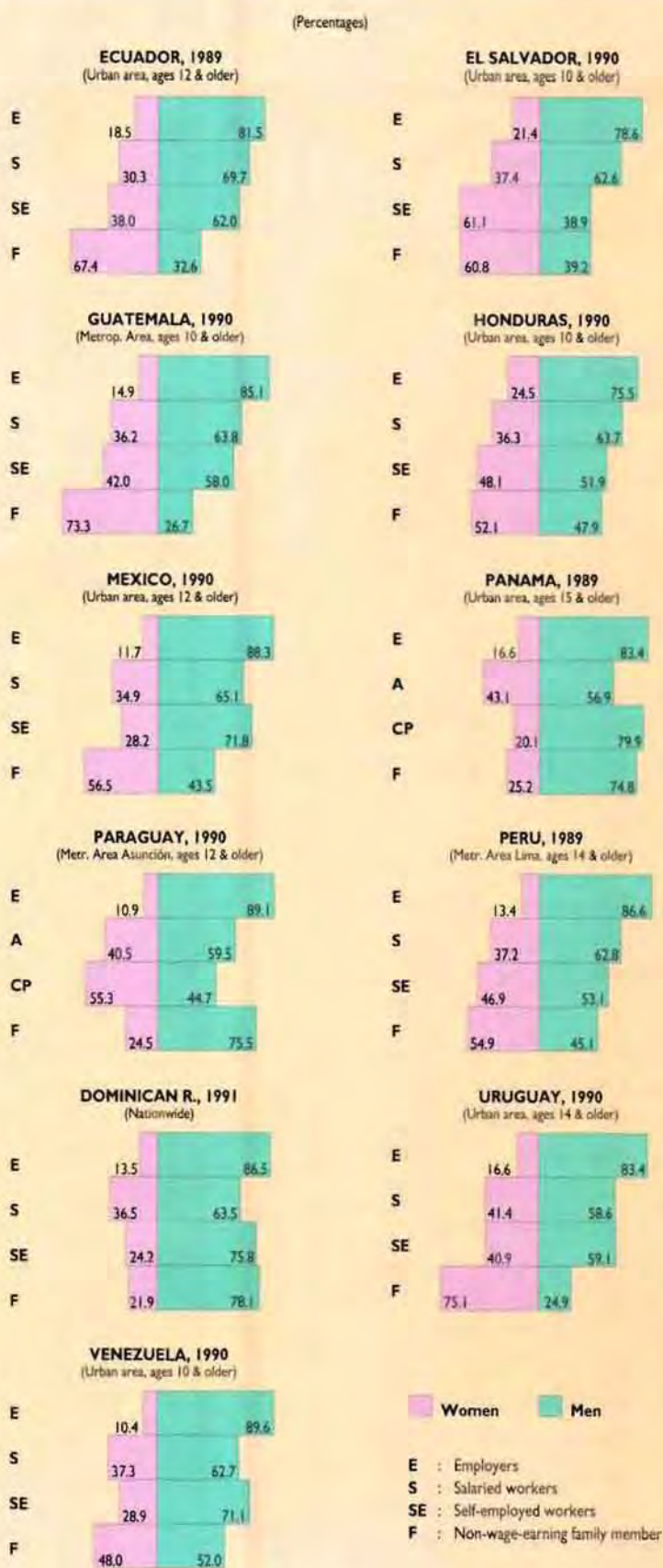
SEX DISTRIBUTION OF THE EMPLOYED URBAN POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY CIRCA 1990



Bosses or employers are the category where the smallest percentage of women are to be found as far as the total number of employed urban persons of both sexes is concerned. It amounts to roughly 20% of the total in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador and Honduras, and to barely 14% in Bolivia, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Peru and the Dominican Republic. The lowest percentages (close to 10% of the total) are seen in Mexico, Paraguay and Venezuela.

The number of women in the category of salaried workers is more homogeneous among the urban areas of the different countries. In nearly every country, roughly two out of every five salaried workers are women. The number of active women in the total of self-employed persons varies more significantly. In countries where the informal sector absorbs large numbers of the population -as in the case of Bolivia, El Salvador and Paraguay- women who are self-employed are the majority.

SEX DISTRIBUTION OF THE EMPLOYED URBAN POPULATION CLASSIFIED BY OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY CIRCA 1990



Notes : (1) When nation-wide information was available it is shown between brackets. The Dominican Republic is the exception since only aggregate national data was available. No data on Cuba and Nicaragua were available. (2) When available, the age of the population examined is indicated in square brackets. (3) Data for economically active population, EAP.

**EMPLOYED URBAN POPULATION, BY SEX, ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL GROUP
CIRCA 1990**

(Percentages)

Country ^a		Professionals and Technicians	Managers and administrators	Office employees	Merchants and salespersons	Farmers	Laborers and craftspersons	Personal services	Not identified	Total
ARGENTINA										
(1990)	(Great Bs. Aires) ♀	7.7	4.5	30.8	18.6	0.3	1.7	35.9	0.5	100.0
	[10 y +] ♂	7.2	5.0	47.6	15.9	0.3	13.0	9.9	1.1	100.0
BOLIVIA										
(1989)	(17 major cities) ♀	13.3	1.8	8.9	37.6	1.7	12.6	24.2	...	100.0
	[10 y +] ♂	13.2	4.6	8.1	11.0	4.0	52.5	6.5	...	100.0
BRAZIL										
(1990)	(Urban area) ♀	15.0 (13.2)	...	18.9 (15.4)	14.1 (12.1)	2.0 (13.3)	14.1 (13.2)	26.0 (23.9)	9.8 (8.9)	100.0
	[10 y +] ♂	5.8 (4.2)	...	18.2 (14.6)	12.7 (9.8)	7.3 (26.0)	36.8 (29.7)	3.1 (2.6)	16.0 (13.0)	100.0
CHILE										
(1990)	(Urban area) ♀	19.6 (19.0)	0.7 (0.6)	17.3 (16.7)	17.9 (17.3)	...	15.1 (17.4)	29.3 (28.9)	0.1 (0.1)	100.0
	[12 y +] ♂	10.8 (8.7)	1.8 (1.6)	13.6 (15.0)	13.4 (10.9)	...	49.8 (56.2)	10.3 (7.3)	0.4 (0.3)	100.0
COLOMBIA										
(1990)	(8 major cities) ♀	13.6	...	17.0	20.4	0.5	17.5	31.0	...	100.0
	[12 y +] ♂	13.2	...	9.1	20.0	2.0	47.0	8.7	...	100.0
COSTA RICA										
(1990)	(Urban area) ♀	19.9 (15.1)	3.4 (2.6)	17.6 (13.8)	13.1 (12.0)	0.2 (4.7)	18.6 (21.7)	26.0 (29.3)	1.2 (0.8)	100.0
	[12 y +] ♂	14.3 (7.4)	6.1 (3.3)	9.2 (5.5)	14.9 (9.8)	5.0 (33.0)	39.3 (32.0)	9.7 (8.0)	1.5 (1.0)	100.0
CUBA										
(1991)	(Nationwide) ♀	33.0	4.6	14.5	26.0	21.9	...	100.0
	[17 y +] ♂	15.4	7.3	1.0	67.9	8.3	...	100.0
ECUADOR										
(1990)	(Nationwide) ♀	14.4	0.6	10.6	17.1	14.5	13.9	20.9	8.0	100.0
	♂	6.5	0.7	4.0	10.4	36.5	28.4	4.3	9.2	100.0
EL SALVADOR										
(1990)	(Urban area) ♀	8.5	0.4	10.4	31.3	2.5	23.5	23.	0.0	100.0
	[10 y +] ♂	8.6	1.5	8.5	14.5	11.2	48.0	7.3	0.4	100.0
GUATEMALA										
(1990)	(Metrop. area) ♀	15.0	1.8	17.0	25.8	0.3	18.4	21.	0.0	100.0
	[10 y +] ♂	15.9	7.7	8.7	12.8	2.3	44.2	8.4	0.0	100.0
HONDURAS										
(1990)	(Urban area) ♀	13.6 (11.5)	1.9 (1.3)	8.8 (5.9)	25.0 (26.9)	1.0 (4.8)	19.0 (22.9)	30.7 (26.7)	...	100.0
	[10 y +] ♂	9.1 (4.1)	4.2 (1.8)	3.7 (1.7)	13.4 (6.7)	14.3 (58.6)	46.9 (23.1)	8.4 (4.0)	...	100.0
MEXICO										
(1990)	(Urban area) ♀	17.5	1.7	22.1	21.0	0.2	13.5	24.0	0.0	100.0
	[12 y +] ♂	11.5	4.6	10.1	15.9	1.5	45.0	11.3	0.1	100.0
PANAMA										
(1989)	(Urban area) ♀	20.2 (19.7)	4.0 (3.6)	25.5 (23.0)	9.7 (11.1)	1.4 (3.1)	7.8 (8.3)	31.4 (31.2)	...	100.0
	[15 y +] ♂	10.8 (8.0)	7.8 (5.4)	6.0 (4.2)	8.7 (7.1)	19.9 (39.3)	34.8 (27.0)	12.0 (9.0)	...	100.0
PARAGUAY										
(1990)	(M.A. Asunción) ♀	13.3	1.2	12.5	22.9	0.6	12.3	37.2	...	100.0
	[12 y +] ♂	8.9	4.5	10.8	18.0	3.4	44.3	10.1	...	100.0
PERU										
(1991)	(Nationwide) ♀	12.7	1.9	9.0	33.8	22.8	10.6	8.7	0.5	100.0
	[6 y +] ♂	11.6	2.3	7.5	17.4	23.4	29.8	7.3	0.7	100.0
DOMINICAN REP.										
(1991)	(Nationwide) ♀	(12.3)	(3.2)	(11.0)	(24.4)	(5.3)	(14.7)	(28.8)	(0.3)	100.0
	♂	(5.6)	(2.9)	(4.1)	(14.6)	(36.1)	(28.6)	(7.9)	(0.1)	100.0
URUGUAY										
(1990)	(Urban area) ♀	17.8	1.6	18.7	13.7	1.0	16.1	31.0	0.0	100.0
	[14 y +] ♂	6.9	4.7	12.2	13.0	6.0	47.5	9.8	0.0	100.0
VENEZUELA										
(1990)	(Urban area) ♀	24.3 (23.5)	2.2 (2.1)	20.9 (19.9)	15.1 (15.3)	0.5 (2.0)	10.0 (10.1)	26.8 (27.0)	0.1 (0.1)	100.0
	[10 y +] ♂	9.9 (8.3)	5.3 (4.5)	7.2 (6.0)	16.6 (14.9)	7.5 (18.5)	42.8 (38.3)	9.9 (8.8)	0.8 (0.7)	100.0

Notes: (1) When nation-wide information was available it is shown between brackets. Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador and the Peru are the exceptions since only aggregate national data was available. No data was available on Nicaragua. (2) When available, the age of the population examined is indicated in square brackets.

The marked differences in the way women and men take part in the labour market are found to be equally noticeable on examining occupational groups. The evidence shows that, at present, the labour market is highly segregated all over Latin America and women still find work in certain typically women's jobs.

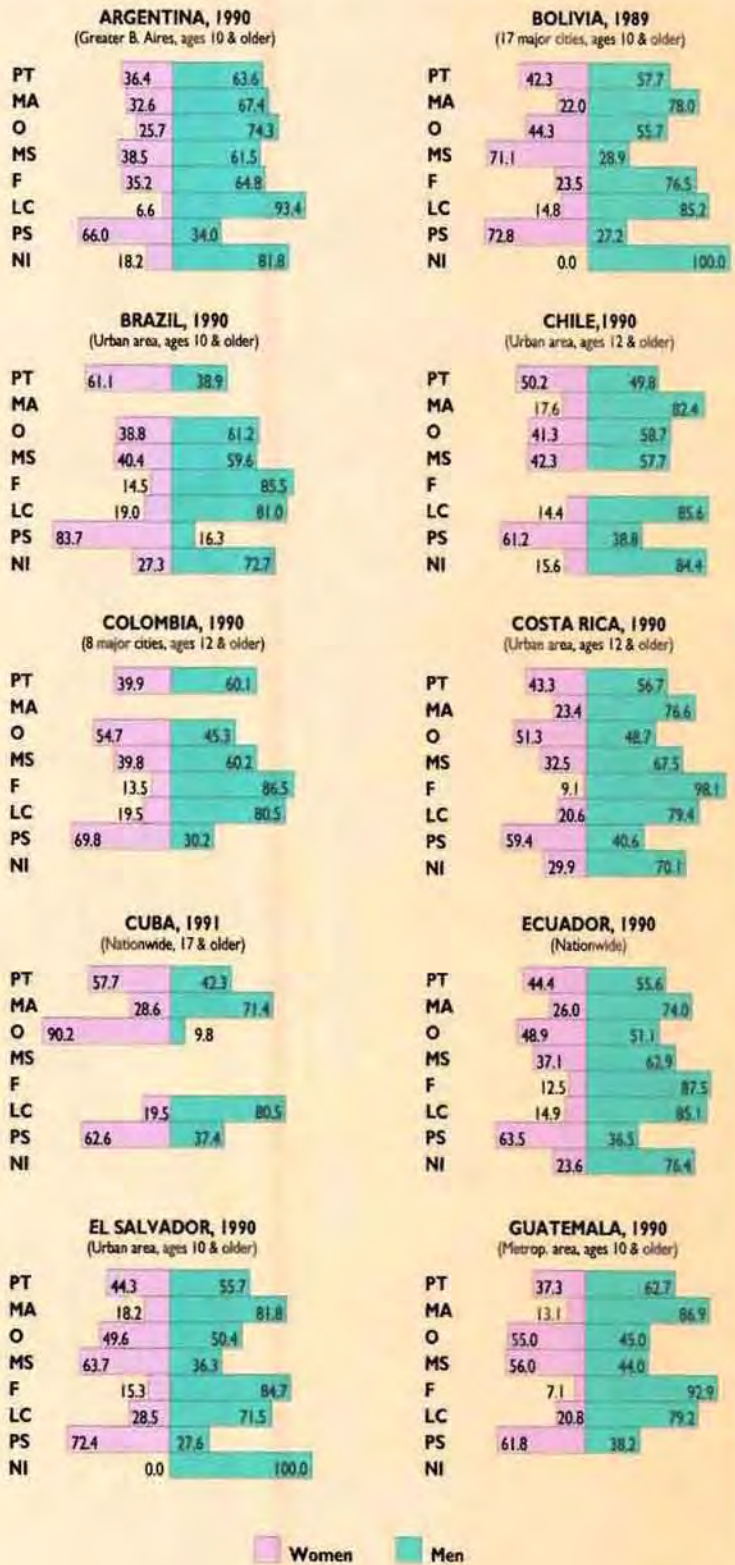
The distribution of labour according to large occupational groups indicates that, both in national terms and in urban areas, women's work mostly in trade, in personal services or as office clerks. These groups represent between two-thirds and three-fourths of women's employment. Men, on the other hand, are found more frequently than women in blue-collar jobs (machine operators and artisans), and to a lesser extent in office jobs, trade and services.

Improvements in education levels, from which both sexes have benefited, coupled with a larger percentage of Latin American women joining the labour force, have resulted in a substantial women's presence in the group of professionals and technicians. Data for urban areas shows that, in many countries, over half the people who are active in this group are women. The outstanding cases are Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico, Uruguay and Venezuela, where one-fourth or more of all women in urban areas work either as professionals or technicians.

A similar pattern of gender-based job segmentation is also visible in rural areas. This is expressed mostly through low women's participation in agriculture, which in turn can be partially attributed to the statistical invisibility of women's labour in those activities. The employment profile in these areas indicates that women are also concentrated in a

SEX DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED URBAN POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL GROUP CIRCA 1990

(Percentages)



(Continued)

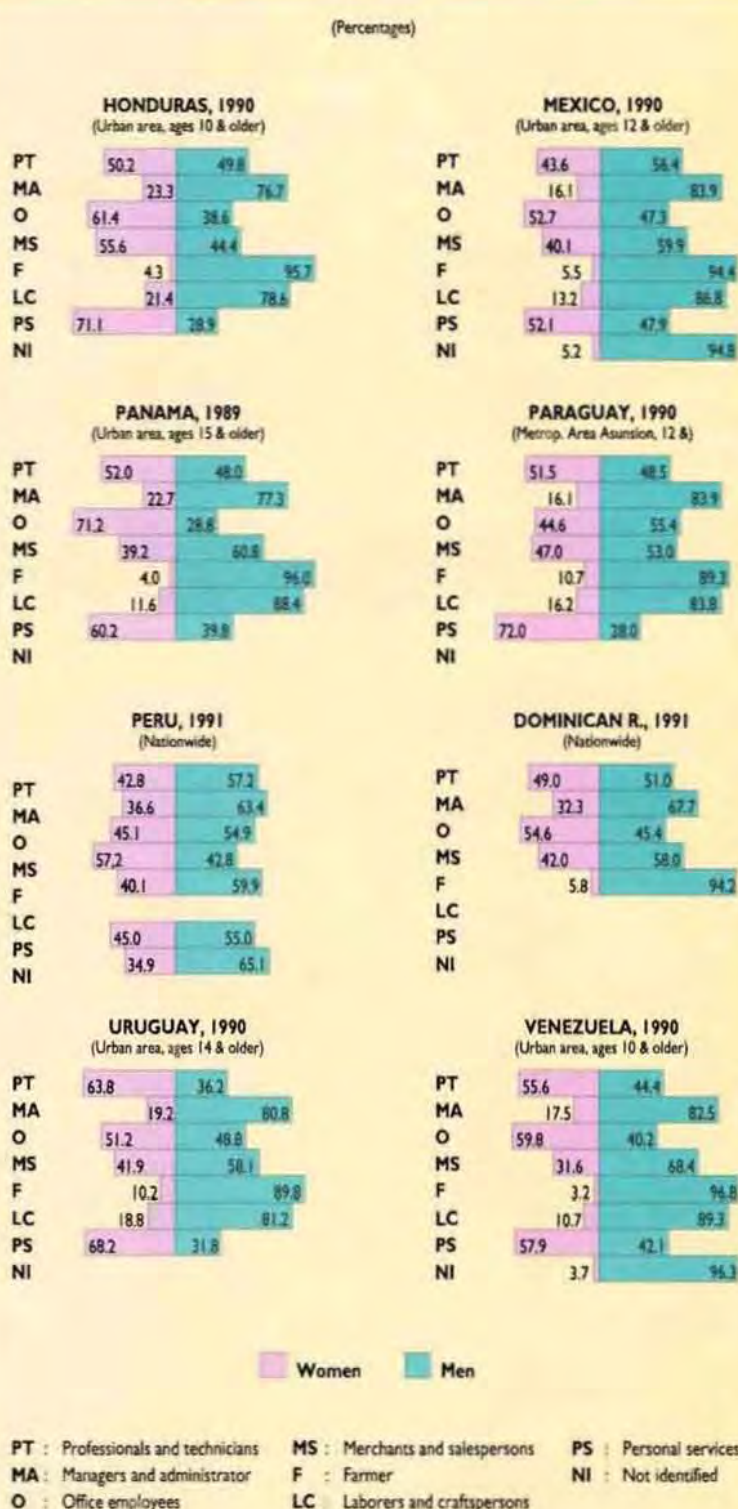
Notes: (1) When nation-wide information was available it is shown between brackets. Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador and the Peru are the exceptions since only aggregate national data was available. No data was available on Nicaragua. (2) When available, the age of the population examined is indicated in square brackets.

small number of jobs linked to trade and personal services.

In the past decade, only two groups of occupations expanded their share of urban women's employment - professionals and technicians, and trade employees. The typical jobs included in these two groups could well represent the two extreme modalities assumed by the changes in women's employment in the region during the 1980s. The first modality refers to women's improved chances of entering the labour market; this is due to the expansion of secondary and higher education, which favored women above all and increased their participation in professional and technical jobs.

The second modality reflects the greater need that less educated women had of entering the labour force in order to increase family income, which diminished drastically during the years of economic crisis and structural adjustment. Women worked mainly as self-employed individuals in informal trade activities and, to a lesser extent, as store clerks.

SEX DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED URBAN POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATIONAL GROUP CIRCA 1990



Notes: (1) When nation-wide information was available it is shown between brackets. Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador and the Peru are the exceptions since only aggregate national data was available. No data was available on Nicaragua. (2) When available, the age of the population examined is indicated in square brackets.

Data from six Latin American countries depicts existing job segmentation by sex more clearly when professions and trades in the various job groups are singled out. For this purpose, the professions were classified according to the percentage of women in overall employment figures for both sexes. Three types of professions were identified: (A) those in which 50% or more of the active members are women; (B) those in which women's participation ranges from 30% to 50%,

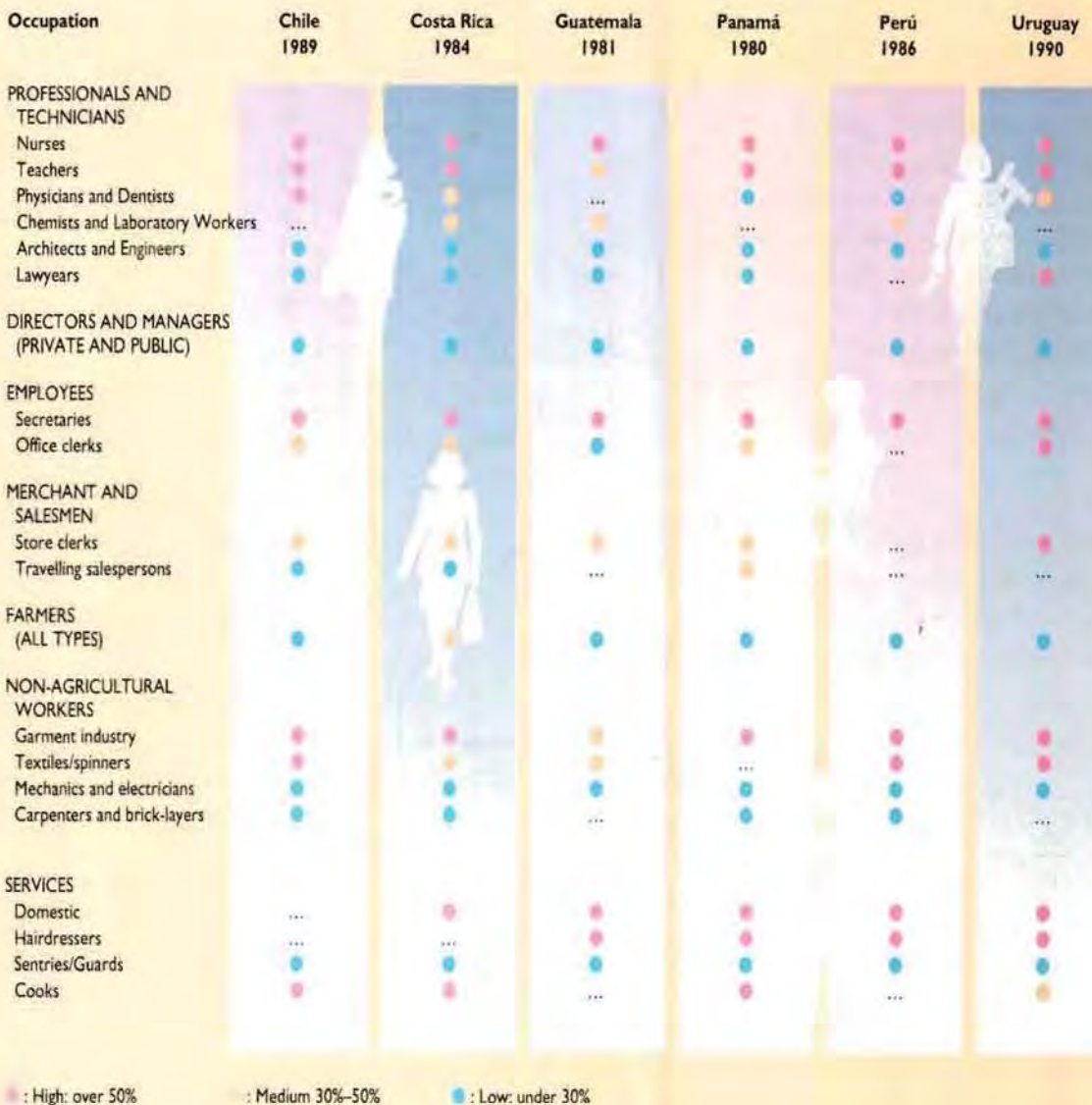
and; (C) those in which women's participation is under 30%.

Professions and trades such as nurse, teacher, secretary, garment-industry worker, cook and housekeeper are typical women's occupations in all countries. By contrast, professions such as engineer, architect and attorney, director and manager in the public and private sector, and the trades of mechanic, electrician, carpenter and bricklayer are typically male. There is less segmentation in

the remaining jobs, where the presence of men and women is more balanced.

OCCUPATIONAL SEGMENTATION, BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONS IN SIX LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES

(Percentage of women in the overall number of employed persons -both sexes)



UNEMPLOYMENT

Figures on open urban unemployment show that women generally face greater difficulties than men with regard to employment. This is reflected in women's unemployment rates that are higher than those for males in Latin American countries. In 1990, open women's unemployment averaged 8.3%, which was more than one percentage point higher than the rate for men (7.0%).

This is so despite the fact that unemployed women tend to declare that they are inactive in larger numbers than men do. The trend becomes more acute during periods of crisis, when the ranks of the unemployed swell. In the case of women, this means that the high unemployment rates currently seen in most countries underestimate the difficulties that women must overcome when looking for a job.

With few exceptions, figures indicate that increased unemployment in the region during the past decade had negative effects on both sexes, although it was slightly more pronounced for men. The straight average unemployment rate in the urban areas of ten countries, which includes the jobless and first-time job seekers, is higher in the case of women, although there is a slightly smaller percentage increase (from 7.8% to 8.7%) than among men (from 5.8% to 7.8%).

An analysis of unemployment rates among young people aged 15 to 24 shows that, in the 1980s, young women were more severely affected

by the increase in unemployment than men. Figures reveal that open unemployment rates for women in the above age group rose from 14.3% to 21.0%, whereas for men the increase was much smaller -from 15.8% to 17.6%.

This marked increase is due not only to population growth in that age group, but also to the pressure exerted by young women to join the labour market. Proof of this is that, in seven out of ten countries, roughly

40% to 66% of unemployed women aged 15 to 29 were first-time job seekers. The percentage was lower only in Argentina, Chile and Costa Rica, where it fluctuated between 20% and 30%.

It is noteworthy that despite the crisis that affected the region in the 1980s -and to a certain extent as a result of the crisis- women's rate of entry into the labour market increased significantly in most countries. The strong pressure women exerted in

URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS, 1980-1990 ⁽¹⁾

Country ⁽²⁾		(Percentages)			
		Total		15-24 years old	
		Women	Men	Women	Men
ARGENTINA	1980	3.2	1.8	5.6	4.2
	[10 y +]	6.5	5.7	15.6	11.5
BOLIVIA	1980
	[10 y +]	8.6	9.5	16.0	18.0
BRAZIL	1979	3.5	4.0	5.7	7.7
	[10 y +]	4.0	4.9	7.8	8.8
CHILE	1980
	[12 y +]	9.9	8.2	19.5	17.1
COLOMBIA	1980	11.5	7.5	19.7	16.7
	[12 y +]	13.2	8.3	22.6	17.9
COSTA RICA	1981	9.5	8.9	15.8	18.4
	[12 y +]	6.2	4.9	11.6	9.8
DOMINICAN REP.	1981	19.9	17.7
	[10 y +]	...	11.8
ECUADOR	1979	6.3	3.9
	1989	11.1	5.9
EL SALVADOR	1980
	[10 y +]	9.8	10.1	21.3	17.7
GUATEMALA	1980
	[10 y +]	3.7	3.2	7.0	7.2
HONDURAS	1980
	[10 y +]	5.8	7.6	10.7	11.5
MEXICO	1980
	[10 y +]	3.6	2.8	7.8	6.3
PANAMA	1979	13.9	9.6	26.8	36.6
	[15 y +]	22.0	17.2	43.7	32.9
PARAGUAY	1980	5.9	9.8
	[12 y +]	6.5	6.6	16.5	14.7
PERU	1979	10.5	4.6
	[14 y +]	10.7	6.0
URUGUAY	1981	8.3	5.3	16.3	12.1
	[14 y +]	11.2	7.5	27.8	22.6
VENEZUELA	1981	4.6	7.5	10.0	14.8
	[10 y +]	8.4	11.1	18.0	20.0

Notes: (1) Includes first-time job seekers. (2) Square brackets indicate the age of the population examined. (3) No data was available for Cuba and Nicaragua.

order to join the ranks of the economically active, as a way to supplement family income during the years of crisis, helps to explain the high urban unemployment rates that affected women in a higher proportion than men.

A similar pattern to the one described for urban areas can be observed in rural areas: higher unemployment rates that rose more sharply for women than men. Out of the four countries for which comparable data is available for the 1980-1990 period, only Costa Rica shows a decrease in open unemployment.

The education profile of unemployed persons is also different for men and women. Although in the early 1990s roughly 80% of urban unemployed individuals of both sexes had 4 to 12 years of schooling, unemployment of women was concentrated among those who had 10 to 12 years of schooling. As a regional average, approximately one out of every three unemployed women had some degree of secondary education. Furthermore, in six countries, two out of every five unemployed women had reached that level of schooling.

In urban areas in most countries, women with secondary education were the ones most affected by the rise in unemployment during the past decade. This situation is related to the considerable expansion of coverage of postprimary education in Latin America, to the fact that women high school graduates entered the labour market in impressive numbers, and to the slowdown in the generation of jobs in the public sector, which traditionally absorbed a significant portion of employed women.

UNEMPLOYMENT CATEGORIES, BY SEX AND AGE IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

(Percentages)

Country	Women			Men		
	Total	15-29 age group	Ages 20 and older	Total	12-29 age group	Ages 30 and older
ARGENTINA (1992) ⁽¹⁾						
Unemployed	88.0	78.7	96.5	91.4	84.6	98.0
First-time job seekers	12.0	21.3	3.5	8.6	15.4	2.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
BOLIVIA (1992) ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾						
Unemployed	42.8	34	61.6	53.5	37.6	68.1
First-time job seekers	57.3	66	38.4	46.5	62.4	31.9
Total	100.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
CHILE (1989) ⁽³⁾						
Unemployed	65.8	68.7	91.0	81.8	72.6	99.3
First-time job seekers	34.2	31.3	9.0	18.2	27.4	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
COSTA RICA (1992) ⁽¹⁾⁽³⁾						
Unemployed	...	73.2	88.5	88.6	83.5	98.9
First-time job seekers	...	26.8	11.5	11.4	16.5	1.1
Total	...	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
DOMINICAN R. (1991) ⁽³⁾						
Unemployed	49.4	42.3	60.8	67.8	60.1	92.5
First-time job seekers	50.6	57.7	39.2	32.2	39.9	7.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
GUATEMALA (1989) ⁽¹⁾⁽³⁾						
Unemployed	68.4	61.4	91.8	82.7	76.7	100
First-time job seekers	31.6	38.6	8.2	17.3	23.3	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
NICARAGUA (1985) ⁽⁴⁾						
Unemployed	61.4	54.0	88.1	89.7	83.2	97.7
First-time job seekers	38.6	46.0	11.9	16.8	16.8	2.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
PANAMA (1990) ⁽³⁾						
Unemployed	59.3	50.4	83.1	70.8	57.5	91.6
First-time job seekers	40.7	49.6	16.9	29.2	42.5	8.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
URUGUAY (1985) ⁽¹⁾⁽³⁾						
Unemployed	73.6	61.3	91.5	84.8	71.6	98.3
First-time job seekers	26.4	38.7	8.5	15.2	28.4	1.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
VENEZUELA (1990) ⁽³⁾						
Unemployed	67.0	55.2	91.0	82.7	68.2	100
First-time job seekers	33.0	44.8	9.0	17.3	31.8	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Notes: (1) Covers the 12-29 age group. (2) Covers the 10 to 29 age group. (3) Based on National Surveys. (4) Based on Censuses.

Increased unemployment among the population with mid-level schooling was also one of the factors that sharpened urban poverty in Latin America during the 1980s, as the number of wage earners per household - particularly women - dropped.

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES, ACCORDING TO ZONE, BY SEX IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, 1980-1990

(Rates per hundred)

Country	Women		Men	
	1980	1990	1980	1990
ARGENTINA				
Urban	3.1	6.4
Rural	1.7	5.7
BRAZIL				
Urban	3.4	3.9	3.7	4.8
Rural	0.9	1.4	0.7	1.2
CHILE				
Urban	...	5.9	...	6.5
Rural	...	2.5	...	1.8
COSTA RICA				
Urban	9.3	6.1	8.6	4.8
Rural	11.6	5.2	7.2	3.4
GUATEMALA				
Urban	...	3.8	...	3.3
Rural	...	2.5	...	1.8
HONDURAS				
Urban	...	5.9	...	7.6
Rural	...	4.3	...	1.5
PANAMA				
Urban	13.9	22.0	9.6	17.2
Rural	11.6	3.3	19.7	6.7
VENEZUELA				
Urban	4.6	8.4	7.5	11.1
Rural	4.3	4.1	6.4	5.8

Source: ECLAC, Data obtained from special tabulations on household surveys, Santiago, 1994.

URBAN UNEMPLOYMENT, ACCORDING TO YEARS OF SCHOOLING, BY SEX, IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, 1980-1990

(Percentages)

Country		Years of schooling ^(a)													
		None		1-3		4-6		7-9		10-12		13-15		16 and more	
		1980	1990	1980	1990	1980	1990	1980	1990	1980	1990	1980	1990	1980	1990
BOLIVIA	Women	...	4.4	...	11.2	...	12.3	...	15.7	...	39.4	...	9.1	...	8.0
	Men	...	2.0	...	10.1	...	16.8	...	13.9	...	38.8	...	10.9	...	7.6
BRAZIL	Women	8.4	2.6	16.1	9.9	33.6	29.1	23.0	26.5	15.0	24.9	3.3	5.3	0.7	1.7
	Men	10.6	8.2	20.3	15.9	38.8	35.2	19.4	22.5	8.6	15.3	1.5	2.3	0.9	0.6
CHILE	Women	...	0.6	...	2.4	...	9.1	...	13.7	...	64.3	...	2.3	...	7.7
	Men	...	2.7	...	4.0	...	14.3	...	29.0	...	44.7	...	2.3	...	3.2
COLOMBIA	Women	1.6	1.6	11.8	6.4	31.2	24.2	29.6	25.5	20.3	31.1	3.3	7.2	2.2	4.1
	Men	2.5	1.8	12.3	7.0	33.1	28.1	25.8	23.6	18.7	27.1	4.7	7.1	2.8	5.4
COSTA RICA	Women	2.3	0.0	6.5	6.6	32.4	20.8	20.3	26.3	32.9	31.8	3.9	7.3	1.5	7.2
	Men	1.9	3.2	10.8	10.4	40.5	35.7	25.1	21.1	18.4	21.4	2.6	4.3	0.6	4.0
GUATEMALA	Women	...	10.6	...	11.3	...	22.7	...	16.9	...	34.0	...	0.0	...	4.6
	Men	...	9.3	...	9.0	...	30.2	...	22.6	...	22.8	...	2.9	...	3.3
HONDURAS	Women	...	2.9	...	2.9	...	29.6	...	14.4	...	41.1	...	4.4	...	4.6
	Men	...	9.6	...	12.7	...	42.6	...	14.1	...	16.0	...	2.7	...	2.3
MEXICO	Women	...	1.3	...	4.4	...	18.7	...	21.9	...	41.0	...	4.6	...	8.2
	Men	...	2.2	...	4.4	...	21.7	...	33.1	...	23.2	...	5.7	...	9.8
PANAMA	Women	0.3	0.7	2.0	1.7	28.9	13.9	29.3	22.7	30.7	42.1	7.3	10.6	1.5	8.2
	Men	1.4	0.3	3.9	4.0	32.6	21.4	29.6	30.7	26.6	29.8	3.7	8.2	2.3	5.6
PARAGUAY	Women	1.9	...	26.1	...	21.2	...	39.7	...	5.6	...	5.6
	Men	5.0	...	24.1	...	25.9	...	38.4	...	1.4	...	5.2
URUGUAY	Women	0.7	0.2	3.7	2.1	30.7	27.1	30.4	26.0	27.9	33.5	4.1	7.3	2.4	4.0
	Men	1.9	0.3	10.0	4.7	35.5	31.4	26.8	32.4	22.1	25.0	3.7	4.3	0.0	1.9
VENEZUELA	Women	2.4	1.4	3.2	3.6	26.4	25.6	32.8	30.7	23.7	24.8	3.8	2.8	7.8	11.2
	Men	5.0	3.4	8.4	6.7	45.3	40.0	26.4	28.6	11.5	15.1	1.3	1.7	2.1	4.4

Note: Population aged 15 and older.

Source: ECLAC, Data obtained from special tabulations on household surveys, Santiago, 1994.

WORKING HOURS AND UNDEREMPLOYMENT

Figures on the number of hours worked per week or the average duration of the working day indicate that women -much more frequently than men- engage in activities that demand fewer working hours than a full working day. The latter is usually defined as 45-48 hours per week in most Latin American countries.

Around 1990, 37.4% of employed women stated that they worked fewer than 39 hours per week. Among men, the percentage was only 20.4%. In five out of eight countries -Bolivia, Brazil, Nicaragua, Uruguay and Venezuela- at least one out of every three employed women worked fewer than 39 hours per week. By contrast, in only two countries -Nicaragua and Venezuela- was the percentage of men who worked fewer than 39 hours per week over 20%.

Women's shorter working days compared to men is determined largely by their need to reconcile household chores with their work in the market. This is a result of the different role assigned by society to each sex. It is also associated with the fact that women often engage in professions and trades that require or tolerate shorter working days, e.g. teaching and nursing.

As in the case of open unemployment, visible underemployment affects women more than men. Visible underemployment applies to people who unwillingly work fewer hours per week than is normally the case.

Figures on four countries show that in three of them the percentage of employed women who were unable to obtain a full-time job was higher than in the case of men: 3.4% compared to 2.6% in Costa Rica; 3.5% compared to 1.8% in Colombia, and 4.1% compared to 3.3% in Ecuador. Only Nicaragua -where this situation affected a substantial percentage of the population- showed virtually no differences: 21.0% for women and 21.8% for men.

Nevertheless, in concealed underemployment -which applies to people who receive below-average compensation for the job in question- the situation is reversed, and the higher percentage affects men, except in Ecuador.

EMPLOYED PEOPLE WORKING UNDER 39 HOURS PER WEEK, BY SEX, IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Both sexes	Women	Men	Ages examined
BOLIVIA ⁽¹⁾	1989	26.6	37.9	18.4	10 y +
BRAZIL	1988	...	35.5	11.7	10 y +
CHILE ⁽²⁾	1989	10.7	19.3	6.8	15 y +
COSTA RICA	1992	20.7	29.3	17.2	12 y +
NICARAGUA	1993	31.0	34.2	29.3	10 y +
PARAGUAY ⁽³⁾	1990	18.5	26.2	13.1	12 y +
URUGUAY	1990	29.9	44.9	16.1	12 y +
VENEZUELA	1987	56.0	71.8	50.2	15 y +

Notes: (1) Employed urban population. (2) People who work under 34 hours per week. (3) Data from metropolitan area.

UNDEREMPLOYED POPULATION, BY SEX

	Both sexes		Women		Men	
	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%
COLOMBIA (1989) ⁽¹⁾						
Open unemployment	3.5	...	1.8	...
Hidden unemployment	7.7	...	10.3	...
COSTA RICA (1992)						
Open unemployment	2.8	100.0	3.4	26.2	2.6	73.8
Hidden unemployment	3.6	100.0	2.3	23.0	4.2	77.0
ECUADOR (1989)						
Open unemployment	3.6	100.0	4.1	43.2	3.3	56.8
Hidden unemployment	2.5	100.0	2.7	40.9	2.4	59.1
NICARAGUA (1992)						
Open unemployment	21.5	100.0	21	32.7	21.8	67.3
Hidden unemployment	14.6	100.0	12	27.6	15.9	72.4

Notes: (1) Data for population aged 12 and older, in 7 major cities.

EMPLOYMENT AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION

The marked increase in Latin America's enrollment rates has had a positive impact on the educational profile of the population, particularly among women. This trend is evident both in the case of all women aged 15 and over and among economically active women. In both groups, the percentage of women with at least 10 years of schooling grew significantly. At the same time there was a decrease in the number of women who only managed to complete elementary education or a lower level of schooling.

In the 1980s, as a regional average, the percentage of employed women who had 10 or more years of schooling grew from roughly 35% to 44% in urban areas. The increase among men was similar, from 27% to 36%, but it is based on a lower educational profile. At present, the educational level of economically active women in Latin America is higher than it is for men. In urban areas women average 9 years of schooling, whereas men's average 8.

It should be noted that the higher educational profile of women compared to men primarily reflects the fact that women's rate of participation in economic activities rises sharply as their education level

increases. However, because men's activity rates almost double those of women, men are still numerically superior to women among the more educated members of the EAP.

Women's educational levels also improved in rural areas, but those achievements were based on a very low educational profile in comparison to that of employed urban women. In most countries at present, the fraction of employed women in rural areas who have not completed elementary school is over 40% of the total.

EMPLOYED URBAN POPULATION, ACCORDING TO YEARS OF SCHOOLING
BY SEX, CIRCA 1990

(Percentages for the total of employed individuals)

Country	Year	No schooling	1-3 years schooling	4-6 years schooling	7-9 years schooling	10-12 years schooling	13 and more years schooling	
ARGENTINA	1989	Women	1.4	10.7 ^{hi}	26.1 ^{hi}	16.9 ^{hi}	20.7 ^{hi}	24.3 ^{hi}
		Men	1.0	12.4 ^{hi}	33.7 ^{hi}	20.9 ^{hi}	14.9 ^{hi}	17.1 ^{hi}
BOLIVIA	1989	Women	10.4	16.0	19.9	11.6	23.4	18.7
		Men	2.6	9.6	20.3	14.7	28.8	24.0
BRAZIL	1990	Women	9.1	13.4	26.1	16.4	22.1	12.9
		Men	10.6	15.9	31.1	17.2	16.1	9.1
CHILE	1990	Women	2.5	4.6	15.9	17.5	41.9	17.6
		Men	3.0	5.1	18.0	21.1	38.9	13.9
COLOMBIA	1990	Women	2.6	9.8	24.8	17.1	27.1	18.6
		Men	1.8	9.6	27.5	20.3	24.3	16.5
COSTA RICA	1990	Women	2.3	5.8	25.7	14.9	26.7	24.6
		Men	2.4	8.2	29.7	18.0	22.5	19.2
DOMINICAN REP.	1991	Women	10.8	16.4 ^{hi}	27.8 ^{hi}	26.3 ^{hi}	...	18.7 ^{hi}
		Men	17.9	22.1 ^{hi}	29.3 ^{hi}	20.5 ^{hi}	...	10.2 ^{hi}
ECUADOR ⁽¹⁾	1990	Women	10.4	8.6	23.6	12.6	19.3	25.5
		Men	9.8	11.9	34.0	13.1	14.4	16.8
EL SALVADOR ⁽²⁾	1990	Women	22.0	21.9	23.2	13.9	13.2	5.8
		Men	18.0	21.0	24.0	16.3	13.3	7.5

(Continued)

In the current scenario, the sharp differences in the educational level of the EAP in several countries stand out. El Salvador and Guatemala are at one end of the scale, with 40%-45% of the women urban EAP who has had no more than three years of schooling. Chile, Costa Rica and Uruguay are at the other end, with rates lower than 8%.

EMPLOYED URBAN POPULATION, ACCORDING TO YEARS OF SCHOOLING BY SEX, CIRCA 1990

(Percentages over total number of employed)

Country	Year	No schooling	1-3 years schooling	4-6 years schooling	7-9 years schooling	10-12 years schooling	13 and more years schooling	
GUATEMALA	1990	Women	23.8	16.4	23.5	9.3	19.3	7.7
		Men	15.7	19.9	31.0	10.7	13.8	8.9
HONDURAS	1990	Women	13.2	16.1	33.0	9.6	21.5	6.6
		Men	11.6	17.4	38.0	10.7	15.1	7.2
MEXICO	1990	Women	4.4	7.6	23.6	20.1	28.8	15.5
		Men	3.7	8.5	26.1	25.2	17.4	19.1
PANAMA	1989	Women	1.5	2.7	21.5	18.7	27.4	28.2
		Men	3.3	7.2	29.4	19.9	23.0	17.2
PARAGUAY	1990	Women	1.0	6.6	36.2	13.2	27.5	15.5
		Men	1.1	6.3	29.8	19.0	29.5	14.3
PERU	1987	Women	3.3	25.9 ^(m)	nd	51.8 ⁽ⁱ⁾	...	19.0 ⁽ⁱ⁾
		Men	0.8	19.7 ^(m)	nd	55.4 ⁽ⁱ⁾	...	24.1 ⁽ⁱ⁾
URUGUAY	1990	Women	0.8	5.2	29.6	17.7	28.4	18.3
		Men	1.2	7.6	33.4	22.8	24.2	10.8
VENEZUELA	1990	Women	3.9	5.1	26.5	21.4	23.9	19.2
		Men	4.3	6.5	34.5	23.1	17.5	14.1

Notes : (1) Estimates on nation-wide economically active population. (2) Estimates based on urban population.
 ARGENTINA (c) Incompleted primary education. (d) Completed primary education. (e) Incompleted secondary education. (f) Completed secondary education. (g) Completed or incompleted higher education.
 PERU: (h) Primary education. (i) Secondary education. (j) Higher education.
 DOMINICAN REPUBLIC: (k) Preschool and primary education (1-4). (l) Primary education (5-8). (m) Secondary education. (n) University education. In this case, since unspecified cases were not included in the categories, re-scaling was necessary in order to reach 100%. No data was available for Cuba and Nicaragua.

WAGE DIFFERENCES

In Latin America -like almost anywhere else in the world- women earn substantially less than men for their work. The difference can be blamed on both discrimination between the two sexes in hiring for jobs (it is harder for women to get higher, better paid positions) and on outright wage discrimination for equal jobs.

Data on aggregate urban employment shows that in the early 1990s women's wages averaged only 72% of men's. This amount was even bigger in the case of the total urban workers: women's wages reached only two-thirds of men's.

There are substantial differences in wage inequality from one country to another. In Bolivia, women's wages averaged only 58.6% of those earned by men. In Venezuela, however, the

disparity amounts to 80.5%, i.e. women's wages were on the average 20% lower than those earned by men. In eight countries, average women's wages were roughly 25% lower than men's wages (Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Panama). In three other countries (Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay), women's wages were approximately 35% lower.

The trend evident in the data is that the increase in women's educational levels is accompanied by higher wage increases than in the case of men only up to completion of high school education. Education beyond high school is much more beneficial for men than for women, however, because men gain access to higher positions and better paid jobs more often than women.

Gender and education-based wage disparities remained unchanged throughout the 1980s, particularly in urban areas, although some countries

showed trends toward a reduction in inequality. Nevertheless, this took place within a general framework of real wage drops for the population as a whole.

A positive legacy of the 1980s was the decrease in wage differences among people with 13 years of schooling and over, and among those aged 15 to 24, precisely the groups in which women's activity rates were the highest. This fact shows how education reduces inequalities, especially when women gain access to post-secondary education or higher levels, as has been the case in Latin America.

WAGE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN IN URBAN AREAS ACCORDING TO YEARS OF SCHOOLING, IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

(Women's average salary as a percentage of men's average salary)

Country	Year	Total		0-3 years schooling		4-6 years schooling		7-9 years schooling		10-12 years schooling		13 & more years schooling	
		c. 1980	c. 1990	c. 1980	c. 1990	c. 1980	c. 1990	c. 1980	c. 1990	c. 1980	c. 1990	c. 1980	c. 1990
ARGENTINA	(80.90)	70.5	75.1
BOLIVIA	(...89)	...	58.6	...	38.0	...	48.2	...	64.9	...	81.7	...	48.7
BRAZIL	(79.90)	53.8	65.5	50.7	56.0	47.8	51.7	51.3	56.6	46.4	53.3	40.0	53.1
CHILE	(...90)	...	73.5	...	68.4	...	64.4	...	71.2	...	75.5	...	55.5
COLOMBIA	(80.90)	68.5	75.8	71.7	63.1	67.7	65.9	81.9	78.1	83.2	83.5	58.1	64.0
COSTA RICA	(81.90)	83.9	74.1	46.6	55.6	60.1	66.7	80.9	65.8	82.7	76.4	85.8	64.8
CUBA
DOMINICAN R.	(80....)	64.1
GUATEMALA	(...90)	...	77.3	...	45.4	...	67.1	...	80.9	...	91.3	...	69.3
HONDURAS	(...90)	...	77.1	...	53.1	...	53.8	...	64.6	...	80.5	...	63.3
MEXICO	(...90)	...	75.9	...	65.6	...	71.8	...	84.2	...	82.3	...	66.5
NICARAGUA
PANAMA	(79.89)	66.8	77.5	49.0	49.6	50.4	55.4	59.8	61.4	69.6	78.8	64.8	70.5
PARAGUAY	(...90)	...	63.9	...	49.7	...	50.5	...	59.4	...	72.8	...	59.0
PERU	(81.87)	53.7	67.1
URUGUAY	(81.90)	60.5	64.3	49.9	53.1	55.1	56.7	58.0	63.3	58.5	59.6	46.5	57.9
VENEZUELA	(81.90)	73.9	80.5	64.0	73.6	62.5	69.6	72.0	79.1	74.7	79.1	72.3	72.0
LATIN AMERICA (Simple average)		66.2	71.6	55.3	55.9	57.3	60.2	67.3	69.1	69.2	76.2	61.3	62.1

Note: (1) Data on salaries and wages were obtained for the main occupation. The data refers to population aged 15 years old and older.
c. = Circa.

INFORMAL URBAN SECTOR

Women are generally assumed to be engaged in the informal sector in greater numbers than men. Data from household surveys taken in the early 1990s shows that the percentage of women who are self-employed or working in domestic employment far exceeds the number of men that are active in the same type of jobs.

The above is chiefly accounted for by the fact that domestic employment is a typically women's occupation, which a large percentage of employed women are engaged in, but above all by the greater difficulties that women face -as compared to men- in finding work in the formal economic sector, due to the demands imposed by their household work.

In the early 1990s, two out of every five Latin American women employed in urban areas worked independently, or at home as non wage-earning family members, or as domestic employees. However, this average figure differed sharply from country to country. In relatively less developed countries, the percentage was 50% or higher (Bolivia and Guatemala), whereas in Argentina, Chile, Uruguay and Venezuela it amounted to approximately 35% of overall women's employment. Costa Rica and Panama recorded the lowest rates in the region, with 25.5% and 29.5% respectively.

Women's heavy participation in informal urban jobs is evident when examining the percentage they represent of employed individuals of both sexes in this sector. In five out of

13 countries, the percentage was over 50% (Bolivia, Guatemala, Honduras, Paraguay and Uruguay). In six other countries, it ranged from 45% to 50% (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica and Mexico). Panama and Venezuela were the only countries where the ratio of women in the informal sector was under 45%.

Nonetheless, it should be kept in mind that whenever data makes it possible to come closer to a more broadly accepted definition of informal labour, when it also includes bosses and employees of small businesses with low capital intensity, gender-based disparities in the ratio of informally employed persons decrease and, in some cases, the relative importance of informal employment among the men's labour force can even exceed that of the women's labour force.

Employment in domestic service is still very significant in the region. Data on the urban areas of 13 countries indicates that, around 1992, domestic employment accounted on the average for 6% of employment among both sexes. Evidently, its significance in the total women EAP was much higher. Only in one country -Mexico- did domestic employees represent less than 10% of all employed women (8%). In eight countries, the percentage was over 15%, and it ranged from 10% to 15% in three other countries.

URBAN DOMESTIC EMPLOYMENT IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, CIRCA 1980

Country	Year	(Percentages)		
		Age groups	Domestic employment and total of employed individuals	Domestic employment and total of employed women
ARGENTINA	1990	10 y +	4.5	12.4
BOLIVIA	1989	10 y +	5.4	12.9
BRAZIL	1990	10 y +	6.1	16.1
CHILE	1990	12 y +	7.0	21.8
COLOMBIA	1990	12 y +	5.5	14.0
COSTA RICA	1990	12 y +	4.4	15.7
GUATEMALA	1990	10 y +	7.0	18.1
HONDURAS	1990	10 y +	6.6	16.4
MEXICO	1990	12 y +	2.7	8.0
PANAMA	1989	15 y +	6.5	17.7
PARAGUAY	1990	12 y +	11.4	27.7
URUGUAY	1990	14 y +	6.9	17.0
VENEZUELA	1990	10 y +	4.0	11.9

The educational situation among the countries in the region is not homogeneous and available information on the subject also differs. Significant differences are found in the enrollment ratios or coverage provided by the educational systems at different levels and, consequently, in the degree of schooling of the population in general. Taking these aspects into consideration, Cuba seems to enjoy the most advanced situation in the region. The Cuban educational system provides almost full coverage at the primary level, and high school education is available to most people. In 1981, a very small percentage of the population aged over 15 had not received schooling (2.72%) and, at present, illiteracy is low. Guatemala was at the other end of the scale in 1981, with the worst educational ratio. At the time, almost half the population had no schooling while 40% of the population aged over 15 is illiterate at present.

Considering the enrollment ratios or coverage of the educational system, there is a top group of countries with high coverage in primary school education, close to or better than 90%, that have expanded coverage of high school education to reach percentages approximating or exceeding 50% of the age group. Argentina, Chile, Cuba, Panama and Uruguay are in this group. With somewhat lower coverage percentages, Costa Rica and Peru also form part of this group of countries. Generalized access to the

school system is reflected in the educational structure of the 15 years old age group. The uneducated percentage of the population in these countries is under 10%, and illiteracy rates are also below 10%.

Furthermore, in countries where the education system developed earlier, a higher ratio of people with high school education or higher education can be seen. In Cuba, over half the population was in this category in 1990. In the early nineties, half the population in Panama and Peru was in this category.

A second group is that of countries that have managed to provide almost full coverage in primary school education, but high school education is available only to one third or less of the age group; that is, it is still highly elitist. The number of uneducated individuals in such countries varies from 10 to 15 per cent of the population aged 15 and over, while illiteracy rates are similar. This was the situation in Colombia, Paraguay, and Venezuela in the eighties, and in Mexico and Ecuador in the nineties. Higher coverage in Mexico and Ecuador is recent, and therefore, the results are not yet evident in the educational structure of the older population.

The last group is made up of countries with educational systems that provide insufficient coverage, even at the basic level. In this group the population with no schooling reaches percentages above 16%, and the same occurs with illiteracy rates.

In the eighties, this group included El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras, and in the nineties, Bolivia, Brazil, the Dominican Republic, and Nicaragua. Educational underdevelopment in El Salvador is dramatic. In 1990, net coverage in El Salvador was 71% for primary school and 15% for high school, while the illiteracy rate was 27%. In Guatemala the figures were even worse, with an illiteracy rate of 40.7% that year.

The educational situation of women is not directly related to the educational development of the countries. Although countries with a more developed educational system tend to show a higher degree of equality, the relationship is not linear. Peru, for example, which currently has a highly developed educational system, is the country with the highest level of discrimination against women, because the system is highly segmented internally. Differences between men and women in Peru in terms of illiteracy, lack of education, women's presence in higher education, among others, are the highest in the region. Discrimination in numbers is also evident in the school curriculum, since Peruvian textbooks show one of the lowest percentages of women. In Nicaragua, on the other hand, with an undeveloped educational system, the figures tend to favor women. And in Honduras, another country with belated educational development, there is a relatively fair educational system.

Significant progress has been made in the last two decades in terms of the

sex distribution of the coverage provided by the school system. The most outstanding achievements are found in women's access to higher education, since this level showed the biggest lag in 1970. Colombia has made the most significant progress, as its female enrollment rose from 27% in 1970 to 51% in 1990. Although women in the nineties have more educational opportunities, in many countries their participation at the top of the system is still much lower than it is for men. In preschool, primary and secondary education, enrollment percentages by sex are practically identical. Nevertheless, women's enrollment in primary education tends to be slightly lower than that of men. This situation is reversed in secondary education where, in several countries, percentages of enrolled women reach slightly over 50%.

With regard to coverage, the preschool level shows the greatest growth, since enrollment increased six-fold at the regional level. This growth is linked, first, with increased demand resulting from the growing number of women looking for paid work, and second, with the need to improve the levels at which children enter the school system. So far, this last factor seems to predominate, as an in-depth analysis shows that the coverage provided by preschool education is significant only in groups of five years old children where the figures for the age group are close to 60%. This is not the case with children under five where coverage is even more limited.

Since equal access to the school system is relatively recent in many countries, the educational structure of the population over fifteen years old still shows evidence of discrimination against women. Illiteracy rates are always more unfavorable as far as women are concerned; the same is true among the population with no schooling. The figures get worse when the area of residence is considered. For example, rural women are very backward as regards education. The most striking data in this respect is found in Peru, where urban-rural differences are considerable as are those between men and women: the illiteracy rate among rural women reaches 45.6%, whereas among rural men it is 10.4%, and among urban men it only amounts to 2.2%.

Despite women's progress in improving their access to education, the school system helps to reproduce the traditional roles played by men and women. This is clearly evident in the professional choices made in secondary and higher education. In secondary education, women tend to choose, to a greater extent, professional careers that signal the end of their education. Instead, most men choose a general academic course in preparation for university. In professional high school education, men concentrate in industrial careers while women gravitate toward service-related careers.

In higher education, women show a tendency to study service-related careers such as professions in fields like health or education. Engineering

and farming are careers chosen primarily by men. Although feminine and masculine areas can be identified, there are several careers which, in most countries, have equally distributed enrollments, a fact that indicates the diversity of professional positions occupied by women at present. These are careers like mathematics, computer science, natural science, law, management and services.

The distribution of enrollment by field of study varies from one country to another, and some distributions can be identified as more equitable than others, depending on the number of careers with relatively equal enrollment between men and women. Cuba, Honduras, Mexico and Nicaragua are the most equitable countries in this respect. Panama, however, which has a high percentage of women in higher education, has a more segmented distribution.

The educational system reproduces traditional gender roles, not only in the departures from the system, but on a daily basis through the implied pedagogical discourse. A detailed analysis of school textbooks carried out in various countries repeatedly showed women in a lower profile within the system. When women do appear in textbooks, they do so primarily in the home and only in a considerably smaller proportion outside the home.

Although pedagogical discourse seems to make men stand out, women's experience in primary

education appears to be more successful than that of men. All the countries record lower repetition rates for women in primary education compared to their male classmates.

Regarding the percentage of women in teaching, there is segmentation by sex in all the countries: women's participation is higher at the bottom of the educational system and lower in the upper stages of education.

Although percentages vary from one country to another, the trend is for women's participation to be almost total in preschool education, reaching majority percentages in primary education -roughly about 70%-, around half in secondary education, and less than one third in universities. Variations by country are not directly consistent with the development of the educational systems at any level of the school system. There are countries where teaching is an eminently feminine activity, like Argentina, Nicaragua, Brazil or Costa Rica, and countries where there are fewer women teachers, like Guatemala, Peru and Mexico.

In the future, it is possible that teaching will be mostly carried out by women, since most of the students enrolled in teaching careers in all the countries are women.

ILLITERACY

In the last two decades, illiteracy has fallen considerably in the region as a direct result of the greater coverage provided by the basic school system and literacy campaigns. This progress, nevertheless, is expressed in different ways among the countries and in the countries themselves. Differences from one country to another fluctuate between those that have practically solved the problem like Uruguay, that has an illiteracy rate of 3.8%, and Guatemala, which is the most backward country in this aspect, with an illiteracy rate of 40.7% of its population over 15 years old.

Between these two extremes, there are three groups of countries: a) Countries with illiteracy rates below 10%, i.e. Argentina, Chile, Cuba, Costa Rica, Paraguay, Venezuela and Uruguay; b) Countries with illiteracy rates between 10% and 20%, i.e. Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru; and c) Countries where more than 20% of the population aged over 15 (or 10) is illiterate, i.e. El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and, at the head of this group, Guatemala.

Although the number of illiterate people dropped in all the countries in the region between 1970 and 1990, the evolution is unequal. Some countries have made a considerable effort for their population to learn to read and write. This is the case of Peru, which in the last two decades reduced its illiteracy rate by two thirds, moving from the twelfth place among the countries in the region up to the eighth. Significant efforts have also been seen in Bolivia, Nicaragua,

Honduras and El Salvador. Although these countries still show considerable signs of illiteracy, they have reduced the problem by about 16 percentage points. The reverse is the case in Colombia, which has not progressed at the same pace as the other Latin American countries. This is illustrated by the fact that Colombia dropped from the sixth place in 1970 to the twelfth in 1990. The way the problem has been tackled in Guatemala has not answered the needs of its population either, and it continues to be the country with the highest illiteracy rate in the region.

In this context, women's illiteracy rates also dropped. Most countries show a relative balance in the rates per sex. Nevertheless, in all the countries, with the exception of Costa Rica, there are more illiterate women than men. Peru is one of the countries with the biggest differences between men and women: women's illiteracy rates are four times higher than those of men. Bolivia is another case, where there are twice as many illiterate women as men. Other countries with important differences between women and men are Guatemala and El Salvador.

Differences inside the countries are especially significant depending on the place of residence. Illiteracy in rural areas continues to be a major problem in most of the countries in

the region. Only Uruguay has a rural illiteracy rate below 10%. The other countries show percentages that, in most cases, amount to over 20% or even higher. The worst situation is found, once again, in Guatemala where, in 1990, half the rural population was illiterate.

The lack of equality for women is worse among rural women. Peru has the most extreme figures in this respect, with an illiteracy rate of 2.2% among urban men and 45.6% among rural women. The situation is similar in Bolivia, with a rate of 3.8% for urban men and 49.9% for rural women. This trend is the opposite in Brazil and Nicaragua, where in 1990 literacy rates among women in the rural population were higher than among men.

Ethnic affiliation is another important factor of inequity. In countries where information broken down by ethnic group is available, illiteracy among the native Indian population is much higher than the national average, and it is especially acute among native Indian women. In Guatemala and Paraguay, countries with an important native Indian population, only one quarter of Indian women know how to read and write. In Panama the figure is cut almost by one half.

ILLITERACY RATE, ACCORDING TO SEX, AMONG THE NATIVE POPULATION OF GUATEMALA, PANAMA AND PARAGUAY

Country	Year	Age group	(Rates per hundred)		
			Both sexes	Women	Men
GUATEMALA	1981	10 and +	63.0	74.0	53.0
PANAMA	1990	10 and +	44.3	53.2	35.9
PARAGUAY	1981	15 and +	69.9	75.6	64.6

ILLITERACY RATES, ACCORDING TO SEX AND ZONE, 1970 -1990

(Percentage of illiterate people in the population of the mentioned age group)

Country	Age group	Both sexes			Women			Men			
		Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	
ARGENTINA	1970	15+	7.4	8.3	6.5
	1980	15+	6.1	4.1	14.6	6.4	4.5	15.1	5.7	3.6	14.2
	1990	15+	4.7	4.9	4.5
BOLIVIA	1970
	1976	15+	36.8	15.6	53.2	48.6	23.3	68.5	24.2	6.2	37.3
	1990	15+	20.0	8.9	36.5	27.7	15.5	49.9	11.8	3.8	23.1
BRAZIL	1970	10+	32.9	18.9	52.4	35.1	22.0	54.8	30.6	15.4	50.0
	1980	10+	25.5	16.5	46.2	26.5	18.3	46.9	24.4	14.5	45.6
	1988	10+	18.5	12.6	36.1	18.6	13.6	34.7	18.4	11.5	37.5
CHILE	1970	15+	11.0	6.6	25.6	11.8	7.7	27.9	10.1	5.4	23.6
	1982	15+	8.9	6.2	21.9	9.2	6.8	23.2	8.5	5.5	20.9
	1990	15+	5.9	4.1	16.8	6.1	4.4	17.5	5.7	3.6	16.3
COLOMBIA	1973	15+	19.2	11.2	34.7	20.2	13.0	36.8	18.0	9.0	32.8
	1981	15+	14.8	9.0	24.8	16.1	13.6
	1990	15+	13.3	14.1	12.5
COSTA RICA	1973	10+	11.6	4.4	14.7	11.4	5.1	14.8	11.8	3.7	14.6
	1974	15+	7.3	3.3	11.0	7.4	3.8	11.0	7.3	2.7	10.9
	1990	15+	7.2	6.9	7.4
CUBA	1970
	1980	10+	3.8	3.8	3.8
	1990	15+	6.0	7.0	5.0
DOMINICAN R.	1970	15+	33.0	18.7	43.5	34.6	21.9	45.2	31.4	15.5	41.7
	1981	15+	27.7	28.2	27.2
	1990	15+	17.7	9.8	30.6	17.9	10.8	31.4	17.5	8.7	29.7
ECUADOR	1974	15+	25.8	9.7	38.2	29.6	12.2	44.4	21.8	6.9	32.3
	1982	15+	16.5	6.2	27.7	19.6	7.9	33.4	13.2	4.3	22.4
	1990	15+	11.4	5.1	19.2	13.5	6.5	25.1	9.1	3.6	15.5
EL SALVADOR	1971	15+	42.9	21.8	59.0	46.4	26.7	63.1	39.2	15.9	55.1
	1980	10+	30.2	15.5	42.2	33.2	19.6	45.5	26.9	33.2	39.0
	1990	15+	27.0	30.0	23.8
GUATEMALA	1973	15+	54.0	28.2	68.6	61.5	35.5	77.6	46.4	20.0	59.9
	1980	15+	44.0	21.5	54.2	50.7	28.2	62.5	37.2	16.5	47.3
	1990	15+	40.7	21.0	52.3	47.8	27.0	60.0	34.2	16.5	45.6
HONDURAS	1974	15+	43.1	21.1	54.4	44.9	24.0	56.8	41.1	17.6	52.1
	1980
	1990	15+	26.9	29.4	24.5
MEXICO	1970	15+	25.8	16.7	39.7	29.7	20.0	45.3	21.8	13.1	34.3
	1980	15+	17.0	20.1	13.8
	1990	15+	12.4	15.0	9.6
NICARAGUA	1971	10+	41.8	18.3	64.8	41.7	20.3	65.7	42.0	15.7	64.0
	1985	10+	24.9	13.0	40.0	25.4	14.3	40.3	24.4	11.6	39.7
	1992	10+	23.7	11.6	38.9	24.1	13.5	38.7	23.2	9.6	39.1
PANAMA	1970	10+	20.7	7.0	41.1	20.9	20.4
	1980	10+	13.2	5.0	26.8	13.7	12.7
	1990	10+	10.7	4.1	23.6	11.1	10.3
PARAGUAY	1972	15+	19.9	11.3	26.0	24.5	14.7	32.2	15.0	7.4	19.8
	1982	15+	21.2	11.5	29.8	23.7	9.1	26.4	18.6	13.6	33.5
	1990	15+	9.9	11.9	7.9
PERU	1972	15+	27.5	12.5	51.9	38.2	19.1	69.2	16.7	5.9	34.3
	1981	15+	18.1	8.1	39.6	26.1	12.5	55.8	9.9	3.6	23.2
	1990	15+	10.7	4.2	28.1	17.4	6.3	45.6	4.1	2.2	10.4
URUGUAY	1975	15+	6.1	5.2	11.0	5.7	5.2	8.6	6.6	5.1	12.6
	1985	15+	5.0	4.3	9.6	4.5	4.2	7.4	5.6	4.4	11.1
	1990	15+	3.8	4.1	3.4
VENEZUELA	1971	10+	22.1	12.1	44.3	25.2	20.6
	1981	10+	14.1	10.2	36.2	15.3	11.7	38.2	12.8	8.6	34.5
	1990	10+	9.3	7.2	19.4	9.9	8.7

SCHOOLING

Available data on the educational attainment of the population is dissimilar with regard to dates. In half the countries, the information refers to the eighties whereas in the other half it corresponds to the nineties. Nevertheless, the data repeatedly shows that most countries in the region have a pyramidal educational structure with regard to the population over 15 years old. The structure is characterized by a broad base of people who merely have basic education or less; a much smaller group who possess a secondary education; and a small vertex formed by those who have university studies.

Cuba was the country with the highest education levels already in 1981, where the pyramid is inverted, and thus the population with secondary studies is larger than the one that only has primary studies. The remaining countries can be classified into three groups. The first is made up of countries with the highest education levels, where people with primary education or less number between 50% and 65% of the population. Chile and Colombia were in this group in the eighties, and Panama, Peru, Bolivia, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Mexico were in this group in the nineties. The second group is formed by countries with lower levels of schooling, where the population with primary schooling or less reaches percentages around 66% and 80%. At the beginning of the eighties, these countries included Argentina, Paraguay, and Venezuela, and in the nineties, Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic. The third group, that is, countries with the worst levels of schooling, where more than 80% of the population has primary schooling or less were, in 1980 and 1981, El Salvador and Guatemala, respectively,

and in 1989, Brazil.

Taking into account merely the population with no schooling, the most backward countries are Guatemala (47.9%), El Salvador (30.2%) and Nicaragua (27.7%). A more moderate degree of backwardness is present in Bolivia, Brazil, the Dominican Republic, Uruguay and Venezuela, where the population that lacks schooling fluctuates around 15% to 20% of the group over 15 years old. When the population with advanced education is examined, it is evident that in most countries it does not exceed 5% of the age group. The exceptions to this case are Bolivia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama and Peru where percentages of the population with advanced studies are over 11%.

Although the differences between men and women are minor in most countries, the general tendency is for women to have a lower level of education than men. The highest degree of discrimination is found in the population with no schooling, and it becomes more moderate within the school system itself. Regarding population that lacks schooling entirely, the country with the largest differences is Bolivia, where the female

population with no schooling amounts to 23.7%, i.e. double the rate for the male population.

Among the population with advanced education, differences between men and women are less than among the population with no schooling. At the higher level, the most outstanding discrimination against women occurs in Mexico. But there are also countries where the situation is reversed, i.e., the female population with university studies is greater than the male population. This is the case in Paraguay (1982) and Panama (1990).

As in other areas, the educational levels of the native Indian population are much lower than those of the general population. More than 90% of the Quechua and Aymara-speaking people in Bolivia had no schooling in 1988, and the majority of the small group that had gained access to the school system had only received primary education. The situation was slightly better in Paraguay, in 1982. Although the educational level of the Guarani population was lower to that of the Spanish-speaking population, 78.7% had received primary schooling as a result of national efforts to bring the Guarani population into the school system.

EDUCATIONAL LEVELS OF THE INDIGENOUS POPULATION, BY LANGUAGE IN BOLIVIA AND PARAGUAY

	(Percentages)				
	Total	Language			
		Only Guarani	Only Aymara	Only Quechua	Only Spanish
BOLIVIA (1988) (1)					
None	19.4	...	95.3	92.8	14.1
Primary	41.1	...	4.6	6.8	40.6
Secondary	32.6	...	0.0	0.3	32.6
Advanced	6.9	...	0.1	0.1	12.7
Total	100.0	...	100.0	100.0	100.0
PARAGUAY (1982) (2)					
None	10.6	18.2	3.1
Primary	69.9	78.7	43.5
Secondary	17.2	3.1	40.8
Advanced	2.3	0.0	12.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Notes: (1) The population 5 years old and more. (2) The population 7 years and more.

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION 15 YEARS OLD AND OVER, BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND BY SEX, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR⁽¹⁾

(Percentages)

Country		Highest level attained					
		No schooling	Incompleted primary ed.	Completed primary ed. ⁽²⁾	Incompleted secondary ed.	Completed secondary ed. ⁽³⁾	Completed and incompleted advanced ed.
ARGENTINA (1980)	Both sexes	5.1	29.9	31.5	28.2	—	7.3
	Women	5.6	28.7	33.5	25.4	—	6.8
	Men	—	—	—	—	—	—
BOLIVIA (1992)	Both sexes	17.4	43.4	—	34.6	—	14.6
	Women	23.7	41.1	—	22.3	—	13.0
	Men	10.7	45.8	—	27.3	—	16.2
BRAZIL (1989, Total)	Both sexes	18.7	57.0	6.9	11.9	—	5.5
	Women	18.7	56.3	6.9	12.7	—	5.4
	Men	—	—	—	—	—	—
CHILE (1982)	Both sexes	6.9	52.5	—	33.5	—	7.1
	Women	7.4	52.5	—	33.8	—	6.3
	Men	—	—	—	—	—	—
COLOMBIA (1985)	Both sexes	11.8	18.4	31.5	8.6	24.2	5.6
	Women	11.8	18.4	30.8	8.9	25.3	4.9
	Men	11.8	18.4	32.3	8.2	23.0	6.4
COSTA RICA (1992, 12+)	Both sexes	5.8	23.5	31.5	17.5	9.6	12.1
	Women	5.8	23.5	30.7	17.7	10.4	11.9
	Men	5.7	23.4	32.2	17.3	8.7	12.7
CUBA (1981)	Both sexes	2.7	16.4	22.1	53.5	—	5.3
	Women	2.9	19.2	23.0	50.4	—	4.5
	Men	—	—	—	—	—	—
DOMINICAN R. (1991)	Both sexes	17.5	19.9	29.6	22.9	—	10.1
	Women	17.7	19.0	30.0	23.6	—	9.7
	Men	17.3	21.2	29.2	22.3	—	10.0
ECUADOR (1990)	Both sexes	12.1	11.9	31.2	15.4	17.1	12.3
	Women	14.3	12.1	30.2	15.0	17.0	11.4
	Men	9.8	11.6	32.3	15.8	17.2	13.2
EL SALVADOR (1980, 10+)	Both sexes	30.2	60.7	—	6.9	—	2.2
	Women	33.1	58.3	—	6.6	—	2.0
	Men	—	—	—	—	—	—
GUATEMALA (1981)	Both sexes	47.9	29.3	10.1	7.9	2.8	2.0
	Women	54.4	24.8	9.2	7.0	3.4	1.2
	Men	—	—	—	—	—	—
MEXICO (1991, 12+)	Both sexes	13.1	46.6	—	26.2	—	14.1
	Women	14.9	47.8	—	26.8	—	10.5
	Men	11.1	45.3	—	25.6	—	18.0
NICARAGUA (1992)	Both sexes	27.7	16.1	25.8	16.5	9.5	4.4
	Women	27.8	16.2	25.3	16.8	10.1	3.8
	Men	27.6	16.1	26.2	16.2	8.8	5.1
PANAMA (1990)	Both sexes	9.5	9.7	30.9	16.7	21.8	11.3
	Women	10.2	9.1	28.9	16.1	23.4	12.3
	Men	8.7	10.3	33.0	17.3	20.3	10.3
PARAGUAY (1982)	Both sexes	10.6	63.5	—	18.2	—	7.7
	Women	13.2	62.5	—	16.3	—	8.0
	Men	7.9	64.6	—	20.0	—	7.5
PERU (1991/92, 6+)	Both sexes	6.8	42.8	—	33.3	—	17.1
	Women	9.7	43.3	—	31.3	—	15.7
	Men	3.8	42.2	—	35.5	—	18.5
URUGUAY (1985)	Both sexes	5.0	51.9	—	26.2	—	16.9
	Women	5.2	51.5	—	28.1	—	15.2
	Men	4.8	52.3	—	24.1	—	18.8
VENEZUELA (1981)	Both sexes	15.1	56.8	—	23.4	—	4.7
	Women	17.4	54.4	—	24.0	—	4.2
	Men	12.7	59.4	—	22.6	—	5.3



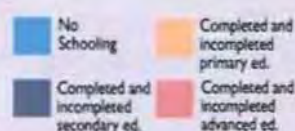
BOLIVIA
(1992, 15 and +)



COSTA RICA
(1992, 12 and +)



MEXICO
(1991, 12 and +)



Notes: (1) When the population considered differs from the 15 year and over age group, this fact is indicated in parenthesis beside the year for each country. (2) When there is no information on complete primary, it is included in incomplete primary. (3) When there is no information on complete secondary, it is included in incomplete secondary. No information was obtained for Honduras.

PRESCHOOL EDUCATION

Enrollment in preschool education in the region has grown substantially between 1970 and 1990. In 1970 the boys and girls who received preschool education amounted to 1.6 million, while in 1990 there were ten million, that is, the system increased its educational capacity ten-fold for children under the age of six. Two of the principal causes that have influenced growth at this level are women's increased participation in the labor market and the desire to improve the level at which children enter primary school so scholastic failures can be reduced in the early grades.

The enrollment of girls in preschool education practically equals that of boys in all countries in the region, even including the 1970 figures. In fact, in 1970 feminine enrollment in the region was 51% and in 1990 it was 50%.

Although preschool enrollment has increased in all the countries, the rate of growth is uneven. Variations fluctuate between countries that have practically maintained the same enrollment rates and countries that, in 1990, show figures twelve times higher than in 1970. Between these two extremes, the countries can be divided into four groups: a) Countries with little growth: Bolivia, Cuba and the Dominican Republic. In the case of Cuba, this is influenced by lower birth rates. b) Countries where preschool enrollment between 1970 and 1990 increased three-fold or four-fold: Argentina, Chile, Colombia, El Salvador, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay. c) Countries in which

enrollment has increased six or seven times: Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua. And d) Countries with a high growth rate, that have increased their preschool enrollment rate more than eight times: Brazil, Peru and Venezuela.

Over and above the general increase in preschool enrollment, coverage at this level is still insufficient. Most of the countries provide coverage to less than 30% of the age group. Coverage in Colombia, Guatemala and the Dominican Republic is lower than 10%. The countries with the best coverage, therefore, are Panama, Mexico and Venezuela, with figures close to 60%.

A fact that must be emphasized with regard to coverage is that the available data is not consistent. In some cases, it covers the under-six

age group while in others it refers only to 5 years olds. In countries where the distinction can be made, an overall study of the 2 to 6 years old age group shows that coverage is close to 10%, while if only the 5 years old group is considered, coverage fluctuates around 60%. The increase in coverage has been especially significant at the preparatory level for primary education. From these figures it is evident that enrollment at the preschool level has grown more as a reply to the internal logic of the system than as a response to the demand caused by women entering the labor market. In this respect, therefore, a long road still remains to be traveled.

PRESCHOOL ENROLLMENT ⁽¹⁾, ACCORDING TO SEX, 1970-1990

Country	Age ⁽²⁾	Number of minors enrolled of both sexes (thousands)			Percentage of women in total enrollment		
		c.1970	c.1980	c.1990	c.1970	c.1980	c.1990
ARGENTINA	3	223.3	480.2	861.4	51
BOLIVIA	4	62.0	90.0	121.1	47	49	49
BRAZIL	4	374.3	1,335.3	3,740.5	50	49	...
CHILE	5	60.4	174.9	220.4	52	...	49
COLOMBIA	5	95.9	174.4	328.4	50
COSTA RICA	5.5	7.5	21.9	46.6	52	49	49
CUBA	5	134.3	123.7	144.7	49	49	...
DOMINICAN R.	3	16.9	27.3	22.2	48
ECUADOR	4	13.8	50.8	108.3	51	51	50
EL SALVADOR	4	24.2	48.7	83.9	53	52	51
GUATEMALA	4	21.5	48.9	145.7	50	50	48
HONDURAS	4	9.7	33.0	60.1	51	42	51
MEXICO	4	422.7	1,071.6	2,734.1	51	50	50
NICARAGUA	3	10.1	30.5	63.2	53	51	51
PANAMA	5	6.9	18.1	30.7	51	50	...
PARAGUAY	6	7.7	10.9	34.2	51	...	50
PERU	3	74.3	228.2	603.8	52	50	...
URUGUAY	3	20.1	42.4	65.8	49
VENEZUELA	5	50.2	421.1	634.8	49	...	50
LATIN AMERICA	-	1,635.8	4,431.9	10,049.9	51	49	50

Notes: (1) Kindergartens, pre-primary schools and classes of infants up to two years of age. Day-care centers and play-schools have been excluded. The age of the young children enrolled in preschool education depends on the legislation in effect in each country. C. = Circa.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

Primary education, designed as the basis for knowledge and skills to be shared by the entire population, is the level within the school system with the greatest coverage. In several countries, coverage is provided to practically 100% of the age group, and countries where this goal has not been achieved are moving in that direction. Within this framework, the countries in the region that are lagging far behind the others in the development of their primary school system are Guatemala, El Salvador, Nicaragua and Colombia, with net coverage rates below 80% in 1990. A lower percentage of female enrollment is also observed in Guatemala, i.e. 46% in 1990. The next in line is Bolivia with a female enrollment percentage of 47% that same year. In the remaining countries, the figures for male and female enrollment are practically the same, although the percentage of women tends to be slightly lower than it is for men.

The systems are oriented towards achieving total coverage of basic education, and most of the countries show an increase in enrollment between 1970 and 1990. Nevertheless, there are different growth rates according to the actual situation of each nation. Thus, there is a group of countries with moderate growth in its primary school enrollment rate. Basic enrollment in these countries has increased by 4% or less over the last twenty years either due to demographic dynamics as in the case of Argentina, or because of the policies implemented, as in the case of the Dominican Republic. The

countries with moderate growth are Colombia, Costa Rica and Panama, together with Argentina and the Dominican Republic.

Another group of countries has reduced its primary school enrollment in absolute figures. This is the case of countries like Cuba, Chile and Uruguay, which had gross coverage rates close to 100% in 1970. Due to demographic dynamics characterized by substantially reduced fertility rates, the actual demand per level has dropped in these countries.

At the other extreme are the countries with the most significant growth in the number of enrolled students: Bolivia, Nicaragua, El Salvador, Honduras and Guatemala, which have more than doubled their primary school enrollment. These are

all countries with recently developed educational systems, which have not yet reached total coverage. Enrollment also increased considerably in Venezuela: rates have doubled in recent decades. Nevertheless, the increase is linked to the fact that the years of primary schooling were raised from six to nine, i.e., it is more the result of an internal change in the system than an expansion of coverage. The growth of enrollment has been specially significant for women. In the last two decades they have increasingly enrolled in basic schooling and in most cases it is almost equal to that of men. Nevertheless, in ten of the fourteen countries where available information is divided by sex, the percentage of women is less than 50%.

PRIMARY EDUCATION ENROLLMENT ⁽¹⁾ ACCORDING TO SEX, 1970-1990

Country	Number of students enrolled of both sexes (thousands)			Percentage of women in total enrollment		
	1970	1980	c.1990	1970	1980	c.1990
ARGENTINA	3,385.8	3,917.5	4,874.3	49	49	...
BOLIVIA	679.1	978.3	1,278.8	41	47	47
BRAZIL	17,066.1	22,598.3	28,943.6	50	49	...
CHILE	2,040.1	2,185.5	1,991.2	50	49	49
COLOMBIA	3,286.1	4,168.2	4,246.7	50	50	...
COSTA RICA	349.4	348.7	435.2	49	49	49
CUBA	1,530.4	1,468.5	887.7	49	47	48
DOMINICAN R.	764.1	1,105.7	1,032.1	50	...	49
ECUADOR	1,016.5	1,534.3	1,827.9	48	49	...
EL SALVADOR	510.0	834.1	1,016.2	48	49	50
GUATEMALA	505.7	803.4	1,249.4	44	45	46
HONDURAS	381.7	601.3	908.5	50	50	50
MEXICO	9,248.3	14,666.3	14,401.6	48	49	49
NICARAGUA	285.3	472.2	632.9	50	51	51
PANAMA	255.3	337.5	350.9	48	48	...
PARAGUAY	424.2	519.0	687.3	47	48	48
PERU	2,341.1	3,161.4	4,019.5	46	48	...
URUGUAY	354.1	331.3	346.4	48	49	49
VENEZUELA	1,769.7	3,158.5	4,053.0	50	...	50
LATIN AMERICA	46,193.0	63,190.0	73,183.2	48	49	49

Note: (1) Includes public and private schools that teach first level. In general, the ages fluctuate between 5 and 13 years, depending on the official age for entering school in each country. C = Circa.

EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT

Latin American educational systems show a tendency to improve their internal efficiency, at least with regard to repetition rates. Guatemala records the most notable improvement in this area since its school system is, in many ways, the most backward in the region. Repeaters dropped from 15% in 1980 to 4% in 1986 in Guatemala. Chile, Ecuador, Honduras, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay show minor changes, which nonetheless amount to four to

six percentage points. The remaining countries have made less progress, and in some cases have even worsened, as is the case of repeaters in Costa Rica and Venezuela.

The countries with the highest repeater rates are Brazil, the Dominican Republic and Nicaragua with percentages over 16% and only a slight improvement in the decade. Furthermore, in Brazil and the Dominican Republic, repeater rates are very high in all grades of primary education.

Women have a better student achievement rate than men. In prac-

tically all countries where educational statistics collected by sex are available, repeater rates for women are one or two percentage points lower than the national average. In Nicaragua it is even five points less. Women's higher student achievement rate has been interpreted in different ways. The most common explanation emphasizes the fact that women are more disciplined and comply better with school rules, which is consistent with their gender socialization. Beyond the actual causes, what is significant is that despite their higher achievement rates at the basic level, their access to advanced education is more restricted.

PRIMARY EDUCATION: PERCENTAGE REPEATERS BY GRADE, ACCORDING TO SEX

Country		(Percentages)													
		Both sexes						Women							
		Total	Primary education grade					Total	Primary education grade						
	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6		
ARGENTINA	1975	9	18	10	9	7	5	3	8	16	9	8	6	4	3
	1976	8	15	10	9	7	5	3	7	14	9	8	6	4	3
BOLIVIA	1980	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	1990	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	4
BRAZIL	1980	20	29	19	15	12	19	18	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	1990	19	23	21	17	14	23	19	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
CHILE	1977	13	18	15	13	12	13	11	13	18	15	13	12	13	11
	1983	7	12	9	7	7	8	5	6	11	7	6	6	6	5
COLOMBIA	1982	13	20	14	11	8	6	—	12	18	13	11	8	6	—
	1991	11	18	11	9	9	5	—	11	17	10	9	8	5	—
COSTA RICA	1982	8	—	20	14	—	9	2	7	—	19	13	—	8	2
	1991	11	17	12	10	9	7	1	9	15	11	9	8	6	1
CUBA	1982	6	—	14	2	8	5	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	1991	3	0	8	0	4	2	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
DOMINICAN R.	1980	18	27	16	13	12	11	14	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	1987	17	25	17	14	13	12	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
ECUADOR	1979	11	16	13	10	9	7	5	10	15	12	10	9	7	5
	1987	6	9	8	6	5	3	2	6	9	8	5	5	3	2
EL SALVADOR	1981	9	16	11	8	7	5	4	8	16	10	8	6	5	4
	1990	8	20	9	7	5	3	2	7	19	9	6	4	3	2
GUATEMALA	1980	15	26	13	33	7	5	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	1986	4	10	3	2	1	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
HONDURAS	1980	16	26	15	12	10	6	3	15	25	15	12	10	6	3
	1991	12	22	13	10	7	4	1	13	22	14	11	8	5	2
MEXICO	1982	10	20	12	9	7	5	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	1991	9	17	11	9	7	5	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
NICARAGUA	1980	17	26	13	11	9	6	4	12	16	13	11	9	8	5
	1991	16	28	12	12	9	8	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
PANAMA	1980	13	20	16	13	11	9	3	11	17	13	11	9	7	3
	1989	10	17	13	10	7	5	2	8	15	11	8	5	4	1
PARAGUAY	1982	14	20	17	14	9	6	3	12	19	15	12	8	5	2
	1991	9	13	12	10	7	4	1	8	12	10	8	5	3	1
PERU	1980	19	28	20	18	15	14	8	18	28	19	18	15	12	7
	1985	14	21	13	12	13	11	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
URUGUAY	1980	15	27	16	13	13	10	7	13	24	14	11	11	8	7
	1991	10	19	12	10	9	7	4	8	16	11	8	7	5	3
VENEZUELA	1980	10	14	11	10	10	7	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	1991	11	18	12	10	9	7	3	9	15	10	8	7	5	2

WOMEN IN SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

Although the school system is moving towards equitable access for women, it participates in the reproduction of hierarchic relationships between genders through its pedagogical discourse. With the aim of revealing implicit sexist discourse in the school system, one line of research has turned out to be very important: the analysis of school textbooks. Research carried out in different countries coincides in showing that women appear much less frequently than men in textbooks, and if they do appear, they are depicted in the roles traditionally assigned to females.

In Chilean textbooks, which are viewed as comparatively more advanced, only one quarter of the titles feature women, and feminine figures and references in the text barely amount to one third of the total. In the case of Costa Rica, feminine figures are also approximately one third; nevertheless, references in the text amount to only one fifth of the total, and only 11% of the titles mention women. In Guatemala and Uruguay women appear in an even smaller proportion. In Uruguayan textbooks, feminine figures amount to 16%, and in Guatemala, to 19.1%. The situation, however, is even worse in Peru where the greatest inequities regarding women are found in areas like literacy and the level of studies achieved by the population. Women are practically non-existent in school textbooks, and only 6.5% of the figures and 7.8% of the references are related to women.

PRESENCE OF WOMEN IN TEXTBOOKS ACCORDING TO SPACE OF REPRESENTATION IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Space of representation	Total N°	Men N°	Women N°	♀/Total %
CHILE (1990)				
Titles	126	94	32	25.4
Figures	2,358	1,499	859	36.4
Text	2,999	2,099	900	30.0
COSTA RICA (1991)				
Titles	173	1,545	19	11.0
Figures	4,817	3,083	1,734	36.0
Text	3,855	3,046	809	21.0
GUATEMALA (1989)				
Figures	503	407	96	19.1
PERU (1986) ⁽¹⁾				
Figures	576	527	49	8.5
Text	1,373	1,266	107	7.8
URUGUAY (1991) ⁽²⁾				
Figures	119	100	19	16.0

Notes: (1) Corresponds to books for fifth and sixth grade of primary education. (2) Corresponds to books for primary education.

ENVIRONMENT WHERE ACTIVITIES ARE CARRIED OUT ACCORDING TO SEX IN THE ILLUSTRATIONS OF TEXTBOOKS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Environment	Total N°	Men N°	Women N°	♀/Total %
CHILE (1990)				
At home	361	183	178	49.3
Outside the home ⁽¹⁾	746	612	134	18.0
COSTA RICA (1991) ⁽²⁾				
At home	49	21	28	57.0
Outside the home	773	587	186	24.0
GUATEMALA (1989)				
At home	67	35	32	47.8
Outside the home	686	550	136	19.8

Notes: (1) Associated with the working environment. (2) Corresponds to "Hacia la Luz" collection.

When considering the domains where the activities are carried out, the first evident fact is that activities preferably take place outside the home. In other words, in textbooks, the domestic world is shown much less. Secondly, women are depicted as people who occupy a priority

position inside the home, but not outside it. In Chile, Costa Rica and Guatemala, almost 50% of the people shown in the home are women, while in activities outside the home, women figure in less than 25% of the cases.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

In the last two decades, enrollment in secondary education has increased in a higher proportion than growth in basic enrollment, as a result of the limited secondary education coverage in the early seventies and the pressure for more education that resulted from the general increase in the population's schooling.

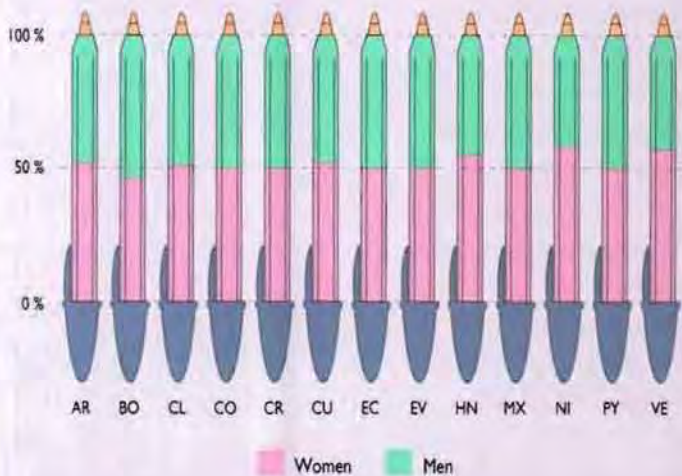
Countries with the higher enrollment growth in secondary education are Cuba, Honduras and Mexico, where the number of students increased four-fold. Although these countries show similar growth patterns, coverage provided by secondary education is very uneven. Cuba is by far the country with the largest coverage in high school education in the region, with a net rate of 70%. Brazil and Venezuela are at the other extreme, as enrollment in secondary education decreased in absolute terms. In the case of Venezuela, this is accounted for by the fact that the first grades of secondary education were transferred to primary education. Another country with almost no increase in enrollment in this level is El Salvador which, furthermore, provides the lowest coverage in the region.

Although secondary education has grown a great deal, coverage of the level is much more limited than it is for basic education. There are larger variations among countries and three groups can be distinguished: a) Countries with net coverage rates below 30%, i.e. Bolivia, Brazil, El Salvador, Honduras, Paraguay and Venezuela; b) Countries like Costa Rica, with a slightly higher coverage

SECONDARY EDUCATION ENROLLMENT ⁽¹⁾ ACCORDING TO SEX

Country	Number of students enrolled of both sexes (thousands)			Percentage of women in total enrollment		
	1970	1980	c.1990	1970	1980	c.1990
ARGENTINA	977.0	1,366.4	1,974.1	53	53	52
BOLIVIA	89.6	170.7	219.2	...	43	46
BRAZIL	4,086.1	2,819.2	3,498.8	51	54	...
CHILE	302.1	538.3	719.8	53	53	51
COLOMBIA	750.1	1,733.0	2,282.8	49	50	50
COSTA RICA	61.1	135.8	130.6	51	53	50
CUBA	235.2	1,146.4	1,002.3	...	50	52
DOMINICAN R.	126.3	356.1
ECUADOR	216.7	592.0	772.0	45	...	50
EL SALVADOR	88.3	73.0	95.1	47	48	50
GUATEMALA	75.5	171.9	241.1	41	45	...
HONDURAS	39.8	127.3	194.1	47	50	55
MEXICO	1,584.3	4,741.9	6,704.3	39	47	50
NICARAGUA	51.4	139.7	168.9	47	53	58
PANAMA	78.5	171.3	191.3	52	52	...
PARAGUAY	55.8	118.8	163.7	50	...	50
PERU	546.2	1,203.1	1,746.2	43	45	...
URUGUAY	168.1	148.3	266.0	53	53	...
VENEZUELA	425.2	222.3	281.4	51	58	57
LATIN AMERICA	9,957.3	15,975.5	20,651.7	48	51	52

Notes: (1) Corresponds to the category "general secondary schooling" and secondary schools have been included (the ones that impart general or specialized schooling, which implies a minimum of four years of previous study in a primary school). The ages of the high school students fluctuate between 11 and 19 years of age, depending on the official age for entering school in effect in each country.
C. = Circa.



of 36%; and c) Countries with net rates close to or slightly higher than 50%, which include Chile, Ecuador, Mexico and Panama. The rate in Cuba is much higher than in the rest

of the countries.

As secondary education has expanded, women have seen an improvement in their opportunity to

participate at this level. Whereas in 1970 female enrollment was less than 49% in seven out of sixteen countries, in 1990 this was only the case in one out of thirteen countries. The most significant development towards equality in enrollment by sex has been seen in Mexico, where female enrollment increased from 39% in 1970 to 50% in 1990.

In 1990, the country with the lowest percentage of female enrollment was Bolivia, with 46%. Although information broken down by sex is only available up to 1980, the situation of Guatemala and Peru also shows how far behind they are in this area compared to other countries in the region. In contrast, the high female enrollment rates in Nicaragua and Venezuela, 58% and 57% respectively, is outstanding.

Although access to secondary education has become more equitable for women, the internal distribution by special fields of study shows important sex-related disparities. This situation, which is described here in detail only for a select group of countries, is widespread throughout the region.

The first disparity is in the choice between general academic schooling

or professional-technical education. Regardless of the distribution of total enrollment between these two branches of high school education, men always apply for general academic education in a larger proportion than women. On the other hand, more women select a professional course. It should be pointed out that general academic schooling has traditionally been thought of as a preparation for university, whereas technical education is the last stage a student reaches in the system. Thus, in Brazil, for example, where there is a relatively higher percentage of professional schooling than in the other countries in the sample, female enrollment is close to 50%, while only one third of the men take the professional option.

With regard to the choice of courses in technical-professional schooling, there are differences between countries according to the courses that are offered. Even so, there is a certain consistency. Female enrollment is concentrated mainly in service-oriented courses. In Colombia and Chile, the highest percentage of women are found in business courses; in Brazil and Venezuela the highest female enrollment is found in teaching, followed by business. Men's

first choice is industrial schooling, except for Brazil, where a large proportion go in for business careers. In all the countries examined, enrollment in industrial and farming courses, the two areas most closely connected to production, is predominantly masculine. The most significant difference in this respect is found in Chile where 66.3% of the men and only 3.9% of the women take the industrial course.

Although coverage in secondary schooling is still insufficient in many countries, from the women's point of view, the main problems lie more in the structure and internal processes of the system than in women's access to education. In terms of access, the trend in secondary education points toward equal levels of enrollment for men and women. Nevertheless, the different options in secondary education reproduce traditional sex-related differences: women are guided more rapidly to a final stage of education, and in this respect, they are oriented mainly towards services rather than production.

ENROLLMENT FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION, BY SEX, ACCORDING TO TYPE OF EDUCATION, IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Type of education	BRAZIL (1980)		CHILE (1990)		COLOMBIA (1984)		VENEZUELA (1980)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Academic, general ⁽¹⁾	54.9	69.6	-	-	75.2	82.6	62.4	75.9
Commercial	13.0	20.7	58.8	25.9	17.3	5.9	7.2	2.6
Teaching	28.4	1.4	-	-	4.9	2.2	21.7	2.2
Others ⁽²⁾	2.4	1.3	35.7	3.1	1.2	0.3	5.9	1.3
Mixed farming	0.1	1.2	1.7	4.7	1.0	2.3	1.0	5.2
Industrial	1.2	5.8	3.9	66.3	0.4	6.7	1.7	12.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.1	100.0

Notes: (1) In Venezuela, it corresponds to sciences and humanities. (2) In Colombia, it corresponds to social advancement. In Brazil, to health and others. In Venezuela, to medical. In Chile, to technical and marine.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

Between 1970 and 1990, enrollment in university education grew substantially, as it did at other levels in the system. Four times more people were studying at the university in 1990 than in 1970. The growth pattern was not homogeneous, fluctuating between the high growth in Cuba and Honduras, where enrollment in 1990 was nine times greater than in 1970, and the relatively low growth recorded in Uruguay, Ecuador and Nicaragua, where enrollment was only twice as large.

University education, the top of the school system, is the level with the smallest number of women. Although progress in terms of women's access to higher education is seen in all the countries, many countries have not yet reached equal enrollment. Of the fourteen countries for which information broken down by sex is available, the figures for female enrollment are under 50% in seven of them.

Although it is evident that women continue to have fewer opportunities than men as far as higher education is concerned, the progress that has been made in the last two decades is significant in light of the figures for 1970. Only twenty five years ago, in Guatemala and Mexico merely one fifth of the enrollment in advanced education was female, and the percentages reached 40% in only five out of 16 countries. In the eighties the situation improved, but only the Dominican Republic, Panama and Uruguay had reached parity. In the nineties, those three countries have been joined by Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador and Venezuela, all with

female enrollment rates over 50%. The countries with the highest numbers of women in advanced education in 1990 were Panama, Uruguay and Cuba, with 66%, 59% and a 58%, respectively.

In terms of the progress achieved in the last two decades, the change that has taken place in Colombia should be noted: female enrollment rose from 27% in 1970 to 51% in 1990. Cuba, Ecuador, Mexico and Panama also made considerable progress, with variations higher than 19 percentage points. Conversely, very little progress has been made in El Salvador, Honduras, Paraguay and Peru where,

despite an expansion in total enrollment, the percentage of enrolled women did not vary substantially. In Honduras, total enrollment grew 9.6 times, and women's presence increased by only 5 points. In El Salvador, although total enrollment expanded five times between the eighties and the nineties, the percentage of women did not change. The countries with the lowest female enrollment in 1990 were El Salvador and Peru, where women represented only about one third of the total.

Together with unequal access, there are significant differences in university

UNIVERSITY ENROLLMENT ⁽¹⁾ ACCORDING TO SEX

Country	Number of enrolled of both sexes (thousands)			Percentage of women in total enrollment		
	1970	1980	c.1990	1970	1980	c.1990
ARGENTINA	236.5	465.2	755.2	36	42	47
BOLIVIA	28.7	60.9	106.0
BRAZIL ⁽²⁾	430.5	1,409.2	1,518.9	38	48	52
CHILE	78.4	119.0	255.4	38	42	...
COLOMBIA ⁽³⁾	85.6	234.7	410.4	27	43	51
COSTA RICA ⁽⁴⁾	12.9	36.9	39.7	38	47	45
CUBA	26.3	151.7	242.4	39	48	58
DOMINICAN R.	23.1	114.6	...	43	52	...
ECUADOR	38.6	122.0	76.8	30	39	50
EL SALVADOR ⁽⁵⁾	9.1	12.7	66.1	...	31	31
GUATEMALA ⁽⁶⁾	15.6	50.9	57.4	19
HONDURAS	4.1	24.0	39.3	...	38	43
MEXICO	247.6	817.6	1,252.0	20	30	43
NICARAGUA	8.7	28.8	19.8	31
PANAMA	8.9	36.1	37.4	43	54	66
PARAGUAY	7.9	25.3	29.4	41	...	46
PERU	108.5	257.2	490.3	30	35	36
URUGUAY ⁽⁷⁾	32.6	36.3	62.5	44	53	59
VENEZUELA	94.8	230.7	337.1	40	48	55
LATIN AMERICA	1,498.4	4,233.8	5,796.1	35	43	48

Notes: (1) The data refers to students registered at all establishments, both public and private, of third level schooling, except for the countries detailed in the following notes. (2) Excludes students at postgraduate level. (3) The data referring to universities includes home learning. (4) Costa Rica: As of 1980, the data refers to institutions recognized by the National Council for Education. (5) As of 1980, the data excludes the Universidad Nacional. (6) The data refers to the University of San Carlos. (7) Data related to public universities. c. = Circa



education with regard to the composition of enrollment by field of study. There are certain careers that are basically feminine, in which women's enrollment amounts to over 60%; careers where enrollment is practically

equal in composition with a percentage of women between 40 and 60 percent; and careers that are fundamentally masculine, where the percentages of women are under 40%. According to these distinctions, the feminine careers

are mass communication and documentation, education science and teacher training, the humanities, religion and theology, medicine and other health-related studies. Careers with a more equal composition are natural

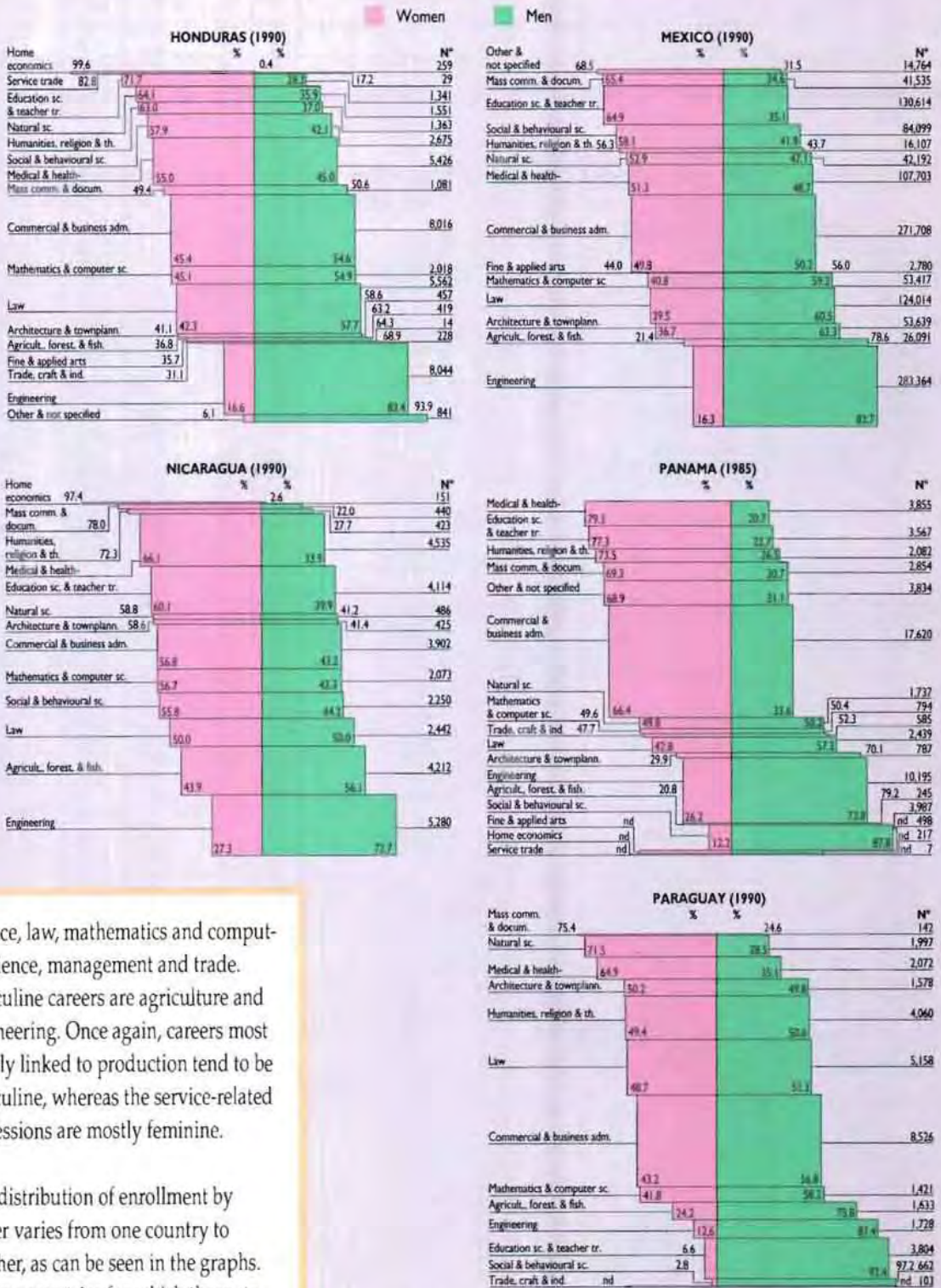
THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION ENROLLMENT, BY SEX AND BY FIELD OF STUDY, IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR ⁽¹⁾



Note: (1) The definitions used are based on the International Standard Classification of Education, ISCED.

(Continued)

THIRD LEVEL EDUCATION ENROLLMENT, BY SEX AND BY FIELD OF STUDY, IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR ⁽¹⁾



Note: (1) The definitions used are based on the International Standard Classification of Education, ISCED.

science, law, mathematics and computer science, management and trade. Masculine careers are agriculture and engineering. Once again, careers most closely linked to production tend to be masculine, whereas the service-related professions are mostly feminine.

The distribution of enrollment by career varies from one country to another, as can be seen in the graphs. Among countries for which these statistics are available by sex, Nicaragua appears to offer women the best opportunities: only one career can be considered masculine, while seven out of a total of thirteen are equal in composition. The distribution is similar in Cuba. On the other hand, there is a more segmented structure in

Panama, which has the highest total female enrollment; only three careers are equal in composition, four are masculine, and five are feminine. In El Salvador, where female enrollment is

less than one third of the total, none of the careers is predominantly feminine; on the contrary, only four careers are equal in composition and nine are masculine.

COVERAGE PROVIDED BY THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

There is considerable inequality between the different levels in the educational system with regard to enrollment rates or coverage which are caused by differences in their development and orientation. Primary education is the level with the highest coverage. In 1990 it was over 70% in all the countries for which data are available. Eight of them offered virtually full coverage, with net enrollment rates of over 90%.

Secondary education, on the other hand, was much more restricted, and the differences between countries in the region were larger. This point can be demonstrated by comparing the situation in El Salvador, where high school education is completely elitist, and the situation in Cuba, which has a broad-based secondary education with a net coverage of 70%. Advanced education in the region is still highly selective, and coverage rates are below 25% in most of the countries in the region.

Enrollment rates also illustrate the differences in women's situation by educational level. In most countries, pri-

mary education is practically equal in composition, and progress for women can be seen at this level between 1970 and 1990. The countries that are farthest behind in this respect are Guatemala (1970), Peru (1970) and Bolivia (1990). Secondary education is also practically equal in composition, although the fact that the variations tend to favor women, particularly in Cuba, is worth mentioning. Bolivia and Peru contradict this tendency as the percentage of men is much higher. In advanced education the situation is reversed. In most cases, masculine coverage is greater, with the exception of Cuba once again.

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT RATIOS ACCORDING TO SEX AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Primary education			Secondary education			Advanced education ⁽¹⁾		
		Both sexes	Women	Men	Both sexes	Women	Men	Both sexes	Women	Men
ARGENTINA	c. 1970	95	96	94	34	37	32	14	12	16
	c. 1990
BOLIVIA	c. 1970	9
	c. 1990	81	78	85	27	25	29	22
BRAZIL	c. 1970	17	5	4	6
	c. 1990	88	16	12	12	12
CHILE	c. 1970	93	29	9	7	12
	c. 1990	86	55	21
COLOMBIA	c. 1970	5	3	7
	c. 1990	70	38	14	14	13
COSTA RICA	c. 1970	89	89	89	22	23	21	11	8	12
	c. 1990	87	87	86	36	37	35	26
CUBA	c. 1970	4	3	4
	c. 1990	94	94	94	70	75	65	21	25	17
DOMINICAN R.	c. 1970	7	6	8
	c. 1990	95	96	95
ECUADOR	c. 1970	79	78	80	8	5	11
	c. 1990
EL SALVADOR	c. 1970	66	66	67	14	14	14	3	2	5
	c. 1990	71	72	70	15	16	14	17	15	20
GUATEMALA	c. 1970	48	44	52	8	3	1	5
	c. 1990
HONDURAS	c. 1970	2
	c. 1990	93	19	9	7	11
MEXICO	c. 1970	81	81	81	16	6	2	9
	c. 1990	100	46	15	13	17
NICARAGUA	c. 1970	62	6	4	8
	c. 1990	76	77	74	10	9	12
PANAMA	c. 1970	74	74	74	28	30	26	7	6	8
	c. 1990	91	92	91	48	51	45	21
PARAGUAY	c. 1970	88	86	91	4	4	5
	c. 1990	95	94	95	25	26	25	8	8	9
PERU	c. 1970	78	74	81	27	24	30	11	8	15
	c. 1990
URUGUAY	c. 1970
	c. 1990	91	92	91	32
VENEZUELA	c. 1970	77	25	26	25	11	9	13
	c. 1990	89	90	88	18	22	15	30

Note: (1) Includes university and post-secondary technical. Corresponds to gross rates.

WOMEN TEACHERS

The composition of the teaching staff by sex is highly stratified in the region. Women are the majority at the base of the system, and the situation reverts higher up the scale of education. Therefore, at the preschool level nearly all the teaching is carried out by women. At the primary level, women represent two thirds or more of the teaching staff. In secondary education the percentages even out, and then decrease to one third at the advanced level.

The composition of the teaching staff shows important variations from one country to another. At the preschool level, Chile and Cuba record the smallest percentages of women, 88% and 89%, respectively; in those countries male teachers have only recently been accepted in preschool education. In basic education the percentages of women vary between 57% of the teachers in Bolivia and 91% in Argentina. Apparently, the sex composition of the teaching staff is not related to the coverage provided by the educational level; it is more closely related to the characteristics of the education processes and the value given to the teaching profession.

At the secondary level, the presence of women does not reach the same levels as in primary education. The country with the largest number of women at this level is once again Argentina, with 67% of the women teachers in secondary education. El Salvador, on the other hand, has a lower number, just 31% of the women teachers.

In higher education, the numbers of women are even smaller. Cuba, for instance, the country with the largest number of female university professors, has 44% of women on the teaching staff, whereas in Paraguay women only amount to 15%.

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN THE TEACHING STAFFS, BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION ⁽¹⁾, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

Country	(Percentages)			
	Preschool education	Primary education	Secondary education	Advanced education
ARGENTINA	99 (1988)	91 (1988)	67 (1988)	35 (1987)
BOLIVIA	96 (1990)	57 (1990)	49 (1990)	—
BRAZIL	98 (1980)	85 (1980)	53 (1980)	38 (1991)
CHILE	89 (1989)	73 (1991)	51 (1989)	22 (1989)
COLOMBIA	96 (1986)	76 (1986)	44 (1986)	24 (1989)
COSTA RICA	97 (1991)	80 (1991)	54 (1991)	34 (1991)
CUBA	88 (1989)	78 (1991)	47 (1991)	44 (1990)
DOMINICAN R.	—	66 (1987)	48 (1987)	28 (1987)
ECUADOR	95 (1988)	65 (1988)	42 (1988)	18 (1988)
EL SALVADOR	95 (1988)	68 (1991)	31 (1988)	26 (1990)
GUATEMALA	93 (1987)	62 (1987)	38 (1987)	19 (1987)
HONDURAS	100 (1991)	74 (1991)	—	29 (1989)
MEXICO	100 (1991)	62 (1975)	33 (1975)	—
NICARAGUA	99 (1992)	85 (1992)	57 (1992)	36 (1992)
PANAMA	100 (1989)	63 (1989)	54 (1989)	34 (1986)
PARAGUAY	—	—	—	15 (1987)
PERU	99 (1985)	60 (1985)	46 (1983)	22 (1987)
URUGUAY	—	—	—	34 (1986)
VENEZUELA	99 (1991)	74 (1991)	52 (1991)	37 (1989)

Note: (1) The last year for which information was available is placed in parenthesis beside each percentage.



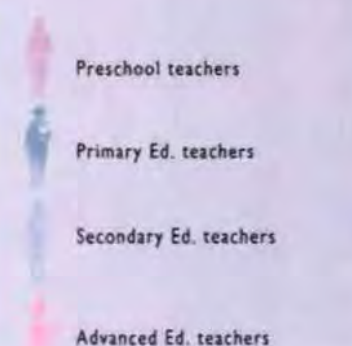
CUBA (1990)



ECUADOR (1988)



CHILE (1989)





Over the past three decades, significant progress has taken place in the region as regards health. The increase in life expectancy at birth, from 54 to 71 years for women and from 50 to 66 for men, as an average for the region, is a clear indicator of those achievements. There are many cracks in the image of progress, however; not all the dimensions included have advanced at the same rate. There are also significant gaps between countries.

With respect to basic sanitary conditions, piped water service reaches 86% of the urban population and 48% of the rural population. Waste disposal covers 81% in urban areas and 39% in rural areas. Although total coverage has not been achieved, at least most of the population has access to those basic sanitary services.

Human resources in the health system have also increased during the past decades in all of the countries in the region. In some cases, the increase has been mainly in medical personnel and in others, in medical assistants, but in both cases the number of trained health-care providers per inhabitant has risen. Developments in infrastructure, measured by the number of hospital beds per inhabitant, have not been favorable. This has been influenced by the restrictive budgetary policies applied in every country. Even in Cuba, the economic crisis has affected investment in health.

Progress has also had an impact on the mortality structure, which has decreased and moved towards higher age groups. Two significant changes in this respect are reduction in mortality in the 0-4 year age group, which in the 1985-1990 period was at an average regional rate of 12.0 per one thousand inhabitants, and reduction in maternal mortality in most of the countries. The latter is consistent with the improvement in coverage of professional care during pregnancy and delivery.

When analyzing the main causes of death we can talk of an epidemiologic transition in most of the countries in the region, although information is heterogeneous regarding dates. In the region, the main causes of death, considering a simple average are: heart disease, malignant tumors and cerebrovascular disease. Deaths related to poverty, like nutritional disease, intestinal infections or respiratory disease are less important although in some countries there is still a high incidence of them in the years indicated.

Nevertheless, not everything is so encouraging; very important problems still exist. In reproductive health, a particularly sensitive issue for women, there is still a long way to go; maternal mortality has fallen but it is still high in several countries; abortion is a frequent practice, and, when carried out in inappropriate conditions, it results in hospitalization and death. Abortion is the main cause of maternal death.

The high incidence of abortion is consistent with the limited coverage of family planning services.

The other important problem refers to differences between countries and within them. The difference between countries like Bolivia and Guatemala, with the worst health conditions in the region, and others like Costa Rica or Cuba, with the highest level of development, is amazing.

In Costa Rica, life expectancy is 79 years for women and 74 for men; there are 12.6 doctors and 22.0 medical assistants for every 10,000 inhabitants; there is total coverage of basic sanitary services in the urban area; 90% of women and 84.8% of men die after 60 years of age. Infant mortality is 13.7 per thousand live births and mortality of children under 5 years is 3.3 per thousand. Maternal mortality is 4.0 per ten thousand live births, and professional prenatal and delivery care exceeds 90%. In Cuba, where significant progress has been achieved in health, figures are similar, and, in some cases, even better.

In Bolivia, on the contrary, life expectancy barely exceeds 60 years for women and 57 for men. (In Guatemala, with somewhat higher figures, life expectancy does not exceed 70 years for men or women). There are 4.5 physicians and 8.8 medical assistants for every 10,000 people; sanitary coverage reaches 80% of the urban population and is very scarce in the rural area; only 64% of the women and 58% of the men die

after 60 years of age. Infant mortality is 75.1 per one thousand, and that of children under 5 years is 21.6 per one thousand. The maternal mortality rate is 24.7 per ten thousand live births and professional care during delivery does not exceed 40% of the births.

The other countries in the region are located between these extremes. The following list, roughly in order, makes it possible to recognize the most advanced countries, among which are Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Mexico, Panama, Uruguay and Venezuela. Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru and the Dominican Republic show less progress.

From the point of view of women, the most general indicators seem to favor them: their life expectancy is higher, fewer women die compared with men and they do so at a more advanced age. On reproductive health issues, however, the region is far behind. An expression of deficiencies in this area is the lack of complete and systematic information related to reproductive behavior. There are no national records on the use of contraceptives, and information about abortion is practically concealed. Information on women's desires and demands is even less rigorous; only in a few countries are surveys carried out asking about the desirable number of children.

A major issue of concern in reproductive health is related to

maternal mortality. Although figures are not extremely high, a significant percentage of maternal deaths can be avoided with appropriate resources and timely care. Thus, it is alarming that almost at the end of the century, in 10 of the 19 countries analyzed this rate still exceeds 14.0 per ten thousand live births. Ratifying the fact that maternal mortality can be avoided it should be mentioned that the main cause of death is infection complications from abortions.

A second well-known problem is the high incidence of abortion in the region; it is used in practice as a birth control method, implying a high risk to women's health. It is not surprising that women resort to abortion, considering the use and type of contraceptive methods applied. As seen in most of the countries for which information was available, coverage of modern contraceptive methods is limited. In some cases, women resort to low-efficiency contraceptive methods, like the rhythm method, which in Peru and Bolivia is the most commonly used birth control method. In many countries, a final solution is adopted: women sterilize themselves (or they are sterilized). Among the contraceptive methods used, sterilization is the predominant one in Colombia, Brazil, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, the Dominican Republic.

Lastly, women's desires and interests must be considered on these issues. According to information available, women adhere to an ideal model of low birth rates: most of them want to

have two children or fewer, with the exception of some countries. More detailed information is required, however, in order to analyze the context of this demand and its variations according to age, urban or rural area of residence, social class, education and employment, to determine what the unsatisfied demand is regarding birth control and the demographic inequity in those aspects. With that information, more specific measures can be adopted so all women can effectively exercise their reproductive rights.

LIFE EXPECTANCY

Life expectancy at birth has increased significantly over the past forty years in the region, which is a clear expression of the developments in the population's general health conditions. According to CELADE estimates, the increase in life expectancy for women has been of 18 years. Thus, it has risen from 53.5 years in 1950 to 71.4 years in 1990. In the case of men, the increase, although significant, is lower, and the difference in favor of women in 1990 is larger than in 1950; in that year, the difference in the region between women and men was 3.4 years, whereas in 1990 it was 5.2 years.

In 1990, Panama, Argentina and Chile showed the highest sex differences in life expectancy (more than 7 years); Bolivia, Nicaragua, Cuba and Paraguay showed the lowest differences between men and women (less than 3.8 years). Even though there is no direct relationship between higher life expectancy and a higher gap between men and women, there is a trend in this sense, as the population's life expectancy increases, differences by sex also increase.

Although in most countries the difference between men and women has increased, in Paraguay and Bolivia it is the opposite. The increase in life expectancy for men is slightly higher than it is for women, resulting in a reduction of the difference between the sexes.

While the region in general shows an increase in the difference between men and women, the gap between the countries is smaller both for men and

LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH, ACCORDING TO SEX, 1950-1960

(Life expectancy at birth, in years)

Country	Women			Men		
	1950-1955	1970-1975	1990-1995	1950-1955	1970-1975	1990-1995
ARGENTINA	65.1	70.8	75.7	60.4	64.1	68.6
BOLIVIA	42.5	49.0	61.0	38.5	44.6	57.7
BRAZIL	52.8	62.2	68.7	49.3	57.6	64.0
CHILE	56.8	66.8	77.4	52.9	60.5	70.4
COLOMBIA	52.3	63.5	72.3	49.0	59.9	66.4
COSTA RICA	58.6	70.2	78.7	56.0	66.1	74.0
CUBA	61.3	72.7	77.3	57.8	69.4	73.5
DOMINICAN REP.	47.3	61.8	71.7	44.7	58.2	67.6
ECUADOR	49.6	60.5	71.4	47.1	57.4	66.4
EL SALVADOR	46.5	61.1	68.8	44.1	56.6	63.9
GUATEMALA	42.4	55.5	67.3	41.9	52.6	62.4
HONDURAS	43.2	56.2	70.1	40.5	52.1	65.4
MEXICO	52.5	65.2	74.5	48.9	60.1	68.5
NICARAGUA	43.7	56.8	68.5	40.9	53.7	64.8
PANAMA	56.2	68.0	75.0	54.4	65.0	70.9
PARAGUAY	64.7	67.6	71.9	60.7	63.7	68.1
PERU	45.0	57.3	68.0	42.9	53.9	64.1
URUGUAY	69.4	72.2	75.7	63.3	65.6	69.3
VENEZUELA	56.6	68.9	74.7	53.8	63.3	69.0
LATIN AMERICA	53.5	63.6	71.4	50.2	59.0	66.2



for women. The regional difference for women was 17.7 years in 1990 and it was 27 years in 1950; however, the situation among the countries is not at all homogeneous.

Although all of the countries show an increase in life expectancy, not all of them modified their situation at the same rhythm. Honduras shows the largest increase in life expectancy, with a variation of 26.9 years for women and 24.9 years for men. Uruguay, on the contrary, shows the least change, with a difference of 6.3 years for women and 6.0 for men. Paraguay, Argentina and Brazil are also countries with comparatively slower growth than the others.

The irregular growth rate has resulted in a new ranking of the countries in the region on this matter. Thus, Costa Rica, which was in fifth place in the region in 1950 is the highest-ranked country in 1990. Uruguay and Argentina, on the contrary, which had the highest life expectancies in the region in 1950, occupied the fourth and fifth places respectively in 1990. Paraguay fell

more sharply, from third to tenth place, and Brazil descended from ninth to fifteenth.

As is true in other spheres linked to access to modern technologies and services, life expectancy is lower in rural areas. According to information available for a group of selected countries, life expectancy in rural areas is 2 to 5 years lower than in urban areas. In Colombia, the Dominican Republic and Mexico, the differences are similar between men and women; if life expectancy is two years higher for women in urban areas, it is also two years more for

men, as in the Dominican Republic. In that country, life expectancy for urban women is 5.3 years higher than it is for rural women, whereas life expectancy for urban men is only 1.8 years higher than it is for rural men.

LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH, BY AREA IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

(Life expectancy at birth, in years)

Country		Urban		Rural	
		Women	Men	Women	Men
COLOMBIA	1981	65.8	62.0	60.2	56.7
DOMINICAN REP.	1985-1990	69.2	64.8	66.9	62.8
MEXICO	1985-1990	71.1	66.5	67.9	62.7
PANAMA	1985-1990	76.6	71.8	71.3	70.0

LIFE EXPECTANCY BY SEX, 1990-1995

Women



Men



Source: Valdes, Teresa and Gomartz, Enrique (Coord.), Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Cifras. Series (19 countries-volumes). Women's Institute, Ministry of

Source: CELADE's latest official estimates, Demographic Bulletin, Year 27, N° 53, Santiago, Chile, January 1994.

HEALTH CONDITIONS AND HEALTH SYSTEMS

The health systems of the countries in the region show general growth in human resources. Figures doubled in 1970-1990 both in the number of doctors and medical assistants. In the case of doctors, the average for the region rose from 6.2 to 14.9 doctors for every 10,000 people, and in the case of medical assistants, it increased from 10.9 to 19.6 medical assistants for every 10,000 people.

Those figures, which reflect a favorable global situation, become relative when the situation is analyzed country by country, as there is significant heterogeneity in the region and an increase in the regional gap. The difference between countries was 17.2 doctors in 1970, for every 10,000 people, and it was 38.9 doctors in 1990. In the case of medical assistants, the gap increased from 17.0 to 59.5. In both areas, Cuba was the country with the best situation in the 1990s, and Bolivia was one of the less developed. This is closely related to the policies applied in both countries on this matter.

If we compare the increase in the number of doctors and medical assistants between 1970 and 1990, we can see that there is a trend in most developed countries to increase the number of doctors, and in less developed countries to increase the number of medical assistants. Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico, Panama and Venezuela are in the first case; Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, Guatemala,

**HEALTH SYSTEM RESOURCES
1970-1990**

Country	Number of physicians per 10,000 inhabitants			Number of medical assistants per 10,000 inhabitants ⁽¹⁾			Number of hospital beds per thousand inhabitants		
	1970	1980	1990	1970	1980	1990	1970	1980	1990
AR	18.9	28.1	26.8	15.9	16.1	20.8	5.6	5.3	4.5
BO	5.0	5.1	4.5	4.2	10.1	8.8	2.2	1.8	2.0
BR	4.8	12.0	13.6	3.4	6.5	32.9	3.7	4.2	3.6
CL	4.6	3.7	11.0	20.4	23.0	25.4	3.8	3.4	3.2
CO	4.4	6.3	10.9	4.4	9.3	13.9	2.2	1.7	1.5
CR	6.2	6.8	12.6	19.8	18.2	22.0	4.0	3.0	2.5
CU	7.2	15.8	43.3	13.9	28.1	68.3	6.8	5.5	5.8
DO	2.1	5.6	14.9	8.1	2.6	2.5	1.8
EC	3.5	8.0	14.2	11.2	13.1	15.6	2.7	1.8	1.6
EV	2.4	3.5	8.4	6.8	8.9	9.4	2.0	1.3	1.3
GT	2.7	5.6	7.8	8.1	6.9	14.8	2.3	1.8	1.1
HO	1.7	1.7	7.0	6.8	10.7	11.5	1.7	1.4	1.2
MX	6.8	9.2	17.0	7.3	11.7	16.2	1.4	0.8	0.7
NI	4.7	4.8	4.4	12.4	16.7	12.1	2.3	1.7	1.3
PA	5.7	9.3	16.4	17.8	22.6	23.8	3.3	3.8	2.5
PY	10.9	7.8	6.5	5.4	38.9	10.2	1.6	1.0	1.7
PE	6.1	7.2	10.6	5.0	5.8	26.0	2.2	1.7	1.4
UY	10.9	18.5	36.8	5.5	5.9	6.0	4.8
VE	8.9	10.8	16.2	23.2	30.5	27.3	3.1	2.8	2.3
LA (Simple average)	6.2	8.9	14.9	16.7	23.0	19.6	3.1	2.7	2.4

Note: (1) Includes registered nurses and nursing aides.

Paraguay and Peru are in the second.

Although in general terms the region has seen an improvement in its human resources in the health area, at the same time there has been a deterioration in the infrastructure and equipment, expressed in the number of hospital beds per inhabitant. There was an average of

3.1 hospital beds for every thousand inhabitants in the region in 1970, a figure that fell to 2.4 beds in 1990. Although there were differences in the time when the reduction occurred, there was a decrease in the bed/inhabitant ratio in all of the countries after two decades, except for Paraguay, which, after a sharp decrease was able to recover its 1970

figure with a slight improvement. As regards the number of beds, Cuba is once again the country in the best situation, while Mexico shows the largest deficit.

In terms of basic sanitary conditions, there has been significant improvement in the region over the past two decades. Piped water, which reached an average of 63% of the urban population in 1970, covered 86% in 1990, and coverage of the rural population rose from 15% to 48%. Coverage of the waste disposal system also grew during the period, from 38% to 81% in urban areas. An increase was also seen in rural areas: coverage was 15% in 1980 and it was 39% in 1990. In 1970 no country had total coverage of those services, and in 1990, Chile, Costa Rica, Cuba and Panama had 100% coverage in urban areas of both services.

There are important differences in the coverage of piped water and waste disposal inside the countries, between urban and rural areas. In urban areas, both services have a much larger coverage. The country with the most significant urban-rural differences is Chile, and Venezuela is the most homogeneous.

Radical differences are also encountered when comparing countries. Paraguay is a particularly backward country in this respect: in 1990, only 50% of the urban population and 17% of the rural population had piped water. Paraguay also has one of the most moderate growths, especially if we consider the country's situation in 1970. Cuba and Panama, on the other hand, are the ones with the best levels of coverage in the region, with percentages of 100% in urban

BASIC HEALTH CONDITIONS, BY AREA, 1970-1990

(Percentage with respect to total inhabitants)

Country	Potable water system						Sewerage system					
	1970		1980		1990		1970		1980		1990	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
AR	...	16	61	17	73	17	36	...	89	32	100	29
BO	48	3	69	10	82	21	23	4	37	4	64	18
BR	53	24	80	51	99	68	29	3	32	1	83	35
CL	69	5	93	17	100	31	40	5	99	...	100	6
CO	...	25	74	79	90	90	64	4	70	27
CR	95	57	95	68	100	68	40	...	92	...	100	24
CU	85	5	100	91	40	3	100	68
DO	58	10	60	34	75	40	19	...	25	4	75	38
EC	...	9	47	16	79	45	38	12	69	35
EV	52	6	62	...	95	16	37	...	48	26	91	53
GT	40	2	51	18	84	51	45	20	82	64
HN	...	7	46	40	90	54	46	...	49	26	91	45
MX	...	36	61	43	90	66	48	...	51	12	81	29
NI	52	7	67	9	74	30	22	...	34	...	78	16
PA	91	10	93	64	100	65	69	27	100	84
PY	21	0	39	10	50	17	16	56	60
PE	55	3	57	21	76	24	55	...	57	...	60	17
UY	86	17	90	...	93	...	51	46	59	...	92	...
VE	73	42	82	50	68	67	47	4	55	59
LA	63	15	68	34	85	48	38	...	55	15	81	39



areas in both services and also with relatively high percentages of coverage in rural areas. In both countries, significant investment was carried out during the period being analyzed, especially in rural areas.

MORTALITY AND ITS CAUSES

The higher life expectancy of Latin America's population at present is consistent with the transformations in the mortality structure that have taken place between 1950 and 1990: mortality rates have fallen in all of the countries in the region, and mortality has moved towards higher age groups.

If we analyze the mortality structure, we can see that the most significant change has taken place in mortality in the 0-4 year age group. At the regional level (simple average) that rate was 42.6 per one thousand inhabitants in 1950-55 whereas it was 12.0 in 1985-90. Mortality for this age group represented about one fifth of all deaths in 1950-55, and it reached 5.6% in 1985-90. A fact that reflects the dramatic changes in the mortality of the 0-4 age group is that in 1985-90 the highest death rate was in Bolivia, with 26.5 deaths for every one

thousand inhabitants; all of the countries have rates below 26.5 for every one thousand inhabitants. Only three countries had rates below that figure in 1950-55 for that age group, and the highest figure was also in Bolivia, with a mortality of 73.1 for every one thousand inhabitants.

A characteristic of the mortality structure that has remained constant during this period is that male death rates are slightly higher than female rates in all countries. In the case of women, 80% of deaths occur after 60

MORTALITY ACCORDING TO SEX AND AGE, 1950-1990

(Rates per one thousand and percentages)

Country period	Women					Men																
	0-4 years		5-19 years		20-59 years		60 and older		All ages		0-4 years		5-19 years		20-59 years		60 and older		All ages			
	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%		
ARGENTINA																						
1950-55	17.1	8.0	1.2	1.7	5.2	17.4	55.9	73.0	15.4	100.0	18.9	8.7	1.4	1.9	7.7	25.0	66.8	64.4	16.6	100.0		
1970-75	11.2	5.3	0.6	0.8	3.4	12.2	51.4	81.6	14.1	100.0	13.1	6.2	0.9	1.2	6.4	22.1	64.4	70.5	15.6	100.0		
1985-90	5.9	2.9	0.4	0.6	2.8	10.4	48.3	86.2	13.4	100.0	7.2	3.5	0.6	0.9	5.5	19.8	61.4	75.8	14.8	100.0		
BOLIVIA																						
1950-55	73.1	28.5	5.5	5.7	10.1	22.5	72.4	43.3	23.5	100.0	85.9	32.2	5.7	5.5	12.8	26.2	78.9	36.1	26.0	100.0		
1970-75	54.9	22.6	3.5	4.0	8.3	21.6	67.2	51.9	20.4	100.0	66.0	26.2	4.3	4.7	10.2	24.1	72.5	45.1	22.4	100.0		
1985-90	26.5	11.9	2.8	3.6	6.6	20.3	61.0	64.2	17.1	100.0	30.1	13.4	3.3	4.1	8.2	24.1	66.9	58.4	18.1	100.0		
BRAZIL																						
1950-55	40.1	17.2	2.5	3.1	9.4	26.1	63.6	53.6	19.0	100.0	48.4	20.2	3.0	3.5	10.7	27.9	66.2	48.5	20.3	100.0		
1970-75	23.2	10.6	1.4	1.9	6.2	19.9	55.4	67.6	16.1	100.0	32.4	14.3	2.0	2.5	7.4	22.2	57.6	61.0	17.4	100.0		
1985-90	15.2	7.2	1.0	1.4	5.0	17.2	51.3	74.3	14.9	100.0	22.5	10.3	1.4	1.9	6.2	20.1	54.6	67.8	16.0	100.0		
CHILE																						
1950-55	34.0	14.8	2.0	2.5	7.6	22.5	59.3	60.2	17.6	100.0	37.6	16.1	2.2	2.8	9.7	27.5	68.5	53.6	18.9	100.0		
1970-75	15.7	7.3	0.7	1.0	4.9	16.8	54.4	74.9	15.0	100.0	18.7	8.6	1.1	1.5	8.3	26.8	63.6	63.1	16.5	100.0		
1985-90	4.0	2.0	0.3	0.5	2.6	9.8	47.6	87.7	13.2	100.0	4.9	2.4	0.6	0.9	5.3	19.1	57.5	77.6	14.4	100.0		
COLOMBIA																						
1950-55	41.2	17.7	3.6	4.3	8.0	22.0	65.9	56.0	19.1	100.0	47.4	20.0	3.8	4.4	10.0	26.0	71.1	49.6	20.4	100.0		
1970-75	20.1	9.3	1.3	1.7	5.3	17.7	59.1	71.4	15.8	100.0	23.9	10.9	1.6	2.1	7.0	22.1	61.7	64.9	16.7	100.0		
1985-90	8.9	4.3	0.6	0.8	3.7	13.5	52.0	81.4	14.1	100.0	11.5	5.5	1.1	1.5	6.2	20.9	56.6	72.1	15.3	100.0		
COSTA RICA																						
1950-55	30.3	13.5	1.7	2.2	6.5	20.0	61.5	64.3	17.1	100.0	34.1	15.0	2.0	2.5	7.5	22.4	65.6	60.2	17.8	100.0		
1970-75	12.4	5.9	0.6	0.9	3.3	11.7	52.3	81.5	14.2	100.0	14.9	7.0	1.0	1.3	4.9	16.8	57.5	74.9	15.1	100.0		
1985-90	3.4	1.7	0.3	0.4	2.0	7.7	45.7	90.2	12.9	100.0	4.3	2.1	0.5	0.7	3.3	12.4	52.2	84.8	13.7	100.0		
CUBA																						
1950-55	22.0	10.1	1.8	2.4	5.9	19.0	60.9	68.6	16.3	100.0	27.5	12.4	1.9	2.5	7.6	23.1	63.6	62.0	17.3	100.0		
1970-75	8.1	3.9	0.6	0.9	3.0	11.2	49.9	84.1	13.7	100.0	10.1	4.8	0.8	1.1	3.9	13.8	55.0	80.2	14.4	100.0		
1985-90	2.8	1.4	0.5	0.7	2.8	10.5	46.2	87.3	13.1	100.0	3.7	1.8	0.7	1.1	3.9	14.3	51.2	82.9	13.7	100.0		
DOMINICAN R.																						
1950-55	59.5	24.2	3.8	4.1	9.1	22.8	67.0	48.9	21.1	100.0	64.6	25.8	4.1	4.4	10.7	25.4	72.6	44.4	22.4	100.0		
1970-75	27.5	12.3	1.4	1.8	5.1	16.3	56.7	69.5	16.2	100.0	31.9	14.1	1.6	2.0	6.3	19.3	63.8	64.5	17.2	100.0		
1985-90	13.2	6.3	0.7	1.0	3.3	11.8	50.7	80.9	14.2	100.0	16.4	7.7	0.8	1.2	4.6	15.8	56.1	75.4	15.1	100.0		
ECUADOR																						
1950-55	46.4	19.6	4.5	5.2	9.4	24.6	65.7	50.7	20.2	100.0	52.6	21.7	4.6	5.2	10.3	26.0	71.7	47.1	21.2	100.0		
1970-75	28.3	12.7	1.9	2.5	5.7	17.8	56.9	67.0	16.5	100.0	32.8	14.5	2.1	2.7	6.8	20.5	61.0	62.3	17.4	100.0		
1985-90	14.6	6.9	1.0	1.4	3.7	12.9	49.4	78.8	14.4	100.0	18.0	8.4	1.2	1.7	5.5	18.2	55.0	71.7	15.4	100.0		
EL SALVADOR																						
1950-55	52.3	21.7	4.8	5.4	11.2	27.3	70.1	45.6	21.5	100.0	58.1	23.5	4.3	4.8	13.1	30.9	75.9	40.8	22.7	100.0		
1970-75	31.0	13.8	1.5	1.9	4.8	15.3	56.7	69.0	16.4	100.0	35.7	15.6	1.7	2.2	7.1	21.1	61.4	61.2	17.7	100.0		
1985-90	18.6	8.7	1.0	1.4	4.3	14.5	51.4	75.5	14.9	100.0	22.1	10.2	2.0	2.7	9.2	27.4	58.2	59.8	17.2	100.0		

(Continued)

years of age, and in the case of men the percentage falls to 72.1%, always considering a simple regional average.

The gap between countries in general death rates has narrowed between 1950 and 1990. Differences were relatively small in the 1985-1990 period. Female death rates were mostly between 13.0 and 15.9 per one thousand inhabitants and male death rates, between 14.0 and 16.9. Bolivia is the country with the biggest

difference with respect to both women and men. The gap between the countries with the highest and lowest death rate was 4.2 points for women and 4.4 points for men in 1985-1990, while it was 9.2 and 10.2 points in 1950-55, respectively.

Differences between countries are more significant with respect to the age composition of mortality. The higher life expectancy of some countries is expressed in the concentration of deaths after 60 years

of age. The country in the best situation is Costa Rica, where 90% of female deaths and 84.8% of male deaths occur after 60 years of age. Bolivia is at the other end, where only 64.2% of female deaths and 58.4% of male deaths occur after 60 years of age.

According to their mortality structure, the countries in the region can be classified into two large groups. A first group of less developed countries, with a

MORTALITY ACCORDING TO SEX AND AGE, 1950-1990

(Rates per one thousand and percentages)

Country period	Women					Men					All ages									
	0-4 years		5-19 years		20-59 years		60 and older		All ages											
	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%	Rate	%		Rate	%							
GUATEMALA																				
1950-55	61.7	25.3	6.8	7.2	13.0	28.6	68.8	39.0	23.6	100.0	66.0	26.5	6.4	6.7	13.0	28.6	70.9	38.2	23.9	100.0
1970-75	35.6	15.7	3.1	3.8	7.5	21.6	59.5	58.9	18.0	100.0	38.6	16.8	3.2	3.9	9.4	26.1	63.3	53.2	19.0	100.0
1985-90	20.4	9.5	1.8	2.4	5.1	16.7	52.6	71.4	15.5	100.0	22.4	10.3	2.0	2.7	7.8	24.2	57.6	62.8	16.8	100.0
HONDURAS																				
1950-55	66.8	26.8	4.6	4.8	12.0	27.3	71.1	41.0	23.1	100.0	72.0	28.5	5.3	5.4	13.8	29.6	76.0	36.5	24.7	100.0
1970-75	34.9	15.4	2.5	3.2	7.6	22.1	58.4	59.4	17.8	100.0	40.5	17.5	3.1	3.7	9.4	25.8	63.9	53.0	19.2	100.0
1985-90	14.1	6.7	1.3	1.8	4.9	16.6	50.0	74.9	14.8	100.0	17.3	8.1	1.6	2.2	6.6	21.4	55.1	68.2	15.8	100.0
MEXICO																				
1950-55	44.3	19.0	3.1	3.7	8.5	23.1	60.4	54.2	19.1	100.0	46.3	19.6	3.5	4.1	11.2	28.9	64.8	47.4	20.3	100.0
1970-75	19.1	8.8	1.2	1.6	5.1	17.0	53.0	72.5	15.3	100.0	21.6	9.9	1.6	2.2	7.7	24.2	57.1	63.7	16.5	100.0
1985-90	9.9	4.7	0.6	0.8	3.3	11.9	48.4	82.6	13.8	100.0	12.2	5.8	1.0	1.4	6.1	20.7	53.5	72.0	15.1	100.0
NICARAGUA																				
1950-55	60.8	24.5	5.3	5.8	12.1	27.9	72.1	41.8	22.9	100.0	66.5	26.2	5.1	5.4	15.0	32.7	79.9	35.7	24.5	100.0
1970-75	32.3	14.3	2.7	3.4	7.3	21.5	58.6	60.7	17.6	100.0	36.2	15.8	3.0	3.7	8.6	24.4	64.5	56.1	18.6	100.0
1985-90	21.2	9.8	1.1	1.5	4.5	15.1	50.4	73.7	15.2	100.0	25.1	11.4	2.2	2.9	7.5	22.8	58.2	62.9	16.9	100.0
PANAMA																				
1950-55	28.5	12.8	2.8	3.5	8.3	24.6	62.6	59.1	17.8	100.0	32.7	14.4	2.8	3.6	8.9	25.8	67.3	56.2	18.4	100.0
1970-75	13.4	6.4	1.3	1.8	4.2	14.6	52.9	77.3	14.7	100.0	15.6	7.3	1.6	2.1	5.2	17.5	57.2	73.0	15.4	100.0
1985-90	7.2	3.5	0.6	0.9	2.8	10.5	47.4	85.1	13.5	100.0	8.5	4.1	0.9	1.3	4.4	15.6	53.9	79.0	14.4	100.0
PARAGUAY																				
1950-55	20.2	9.3	1.4	1.9	4.4	14.9	56.6	73.9	15.5	100.0	24.3	11.0	1.7	2.2	5.9	19.0	63.2	67.7	16.5	100.0
1970-75	14.6	6.9	1.0	1.4	3.9	13.6	55.5	78.1	14.8	100.0	17.5	8.2	1.3	1.8	5.3	18.0	62.1	72.0	15.7	100.0
1985-90	10.8	5.2	0.8	1.2	3.3	12.0	51.6	81.7	14.1	100.0	13.4	6.4	1.1	1.5	4.6	16.0	57.7	76.2	15.0	100.0
PERU																				
1950-55	65.5	26.2	4.8	5.2	9.2	21.8	70.3	46.9	22.2	100.0	70.1	27.5	4.5	4.8	11.2	25.6	75.2	42.1	23.3	100.0
1970-75	36.6	16.0	2.2	2.7	5.6	16.7	60.9	64.5	17.5	100.0	40.2	17.3	2.4	2.9	7.6	21.7	66.9	58.1	18.6	100.0
1985-90	19.9	9.2	1.3	1.7	4.1	13.8	56.8	75.3	15.4	100.0	22.4	10.3	1.5	2.0	6.0	19.4	63.2	68.4	16.4	100.0
URUGUAY																				
1950-55	12.5	5.9	0.6	0.8	3.9	13.8	53.1	79.5	14.4	100.0	14.6	6.9	0.9	1.2	6.6	22.6	65.6	69.4	15.8	100.0
1970-75	9.7	4.6	0.4	0.6	3.1	11.4	50.2	83.3	13.8	100.0	12.0	5.7	0.7	1.0	5.7	19.8	62.6	73.5	15.2	100.0
1985-90	5.2	2.5	0.3	0.5	2.9	10.8	47.4	86.2	13.3	100.0	6.2	3.0	0.6	0.8	5.0	18.3	59.9	77.9	14.5	100.0
VENEZUELA																				
1950-55	32.3	14.2	1.7	2.1	8.3	25.0	62.4	58.6	17.7	100.0	35.0	15.3	2.2	2.7	9.5	27.5	67.5	54.5	18.6	100.0
1970-75	13.2	6.2	0.8	1.0	4.3	15.0	51.9	77.7	14.5	100.0	15.4	7.2	1.3	1.8	6.5	21.8	60.5	69.2	15.8	100.0
1985-90	6.0	2.9	0.5	0.7	3.1	11.4	50.3	85.0	13.6	100.0	7.5	3.6	1.0	1.4	5.4	19.2	58.1	75.8	14.8	100.0
L. AMERICA (Simple average)																				
1950-55	42.6	17.9	3.3	3.8	8.5	22.7	64.2	55.7	19.3	100.0	47.5	19.5	3.4	3.9	10.3	26.3	70.1	50.2	20.5	100.0
1970-75	23.3	10.4	1.5	1.9	5.2	16.5	55.8	71.1	15.9	100.0	27.2	12.0	1.9	2.3	7.0	21.5	61.9	64.2	17.1	100.0
1985-90	12.0	5.6	0.9	1.2	3.7	13.0	50.5	80.1	14.3	100.0	14.5	6.7	1.3	1.7	5.8	19.5	57.2	72.1	15.4	100.0

mortality rate in the 0-4 year group exceeding 12.0 for every one thousand inhabitants and a death rate of more than 80% in the group of 60 years and over. Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Peru and the Dominican Republic are included in this group. The second group is made up of more developed countries, where mortality in the 0-4 year group is under 12.0 for every one thousand and the death rate of the group that is 60 years and over exceeds 81%. Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela belong in this group.

In global figures, the sex composition

of mortality is quite homogeneous in the region; in all of the countries, the total number of deaths is distributed almost equally between men and women, although percentages for men are slightly higher. Homogeneity between countries as regards percentage distribution between women and men at each age level is surprising, especially in light of the differences between countries observed in the mortality structure analyzed above. It should be pointed out that, regardless of the mortality rate, distribution by sex of mortality is equivalent in all countries.

Distribution of deaths by sex has the following characteristics: in the 0 - 4 year age group, male deaths are more

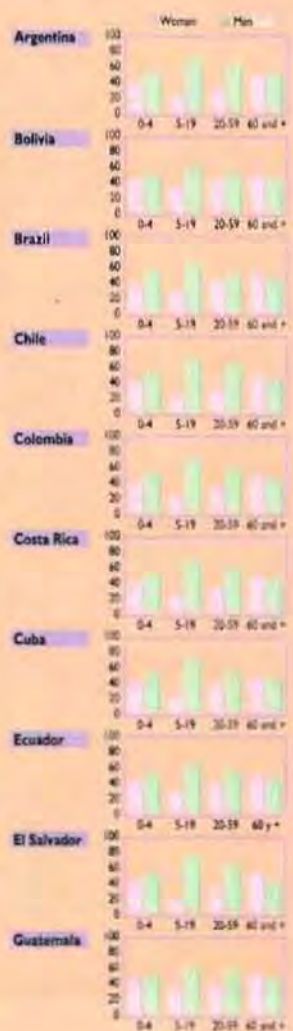
numerous, reaching figures near 55%; also, in the 5-19 and 20-59 year age group male deaths are more numerous, especially in the 5-19 year age group. In the last age group, however, the ratio reverts and deaths of women are more numerous.

This distribution is consistent with the higher life expectancy of women in the region, which indicates that female deaths are concentrated after 60 years of age while male deaths occur most frequently in lower age segments.

MORTALITY ACCORDING TO AGE, 1950-1990; DISTRIBUTION OF THE SEXES

(Percentages)

Country		0-4 years		5-19 years		20-59 years		60 and older		All age	
		Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
ARGENTINA	1950-55	47.7	52.3	32.7	67.3	41.0	59.0	53.1	46.9	49.8	50.2
	1970-75	46.2	53.8	29.7	70.3	35.6	64.4	53.6	46.4	49.9	50.1
	1985-90	45.0	55.0	27.5	72.5	34.4	65.6	53.2	46.8	49.9	50.1
BOLIVIA	1950-55	47.0	53.0	41.1	58.9	46.2	53.8	54.5	45.5	49.5	50.5
	1970-75	46.3	53.7	36.3	63.7	47.3	52.7	53.5	46.5	49.7	50.3
	1985-90	47.1	52.9	37.3	62.7	45.7	54.3	52.3	47.7	49.7	50.3
BRAZIL	1950-55	46.0	54.0	36.6	63.4	48.3	51.7	52.5	47.5	49.7	50.3
	1970-75	42.5	57.5	33.3	66.7	47.3	52.7	52.6	47.4	49.8	50.2
	1985-90	41.1	58.9	32.3	67.7	46.1	53.9	52.3	47.7	49.9	50.1
CHILE	1950-55	47.9	52.1	34.1	65.9	45.0	55.0	52.9	47.1	49.7	50.3
	1970-75	46.0	54.0	29.5	70.5	38.5	61.5	54.3	45.7	49.9	50.1
	1985-90	45.2	54.8	26.7	73.3	34.0	66.0	53.1	46.9	50.0	50.0
COLOMBIA	1950-55	47.0	53.0	38.0	62.0	45.8	54.2	53.0	47.0	49.6	50.4
	1970-75	46.1	53.9	34.9	65.1	44.4	55.6	52.4	47.6	49.9	50.1
	1985-90	44.0	56.0	25.4	74.6	39.3	60.7	53.0	47.0	49.9	50.1
COSTA RICA	1950-55	47.4	52.6	38.0	62.0	47.2	52.8	51.7	48.3	49.8	50.2
	1970-75	45.7	54.3	30.7	69.3	41.1	58.9	52.1	47.9	49.9	50.1
	1985-90	44.1	55.9	28.3	71.7	38.3	61.7	51.6	48.4	50.0	50.0
CUBA	1950-55	45.0	55.0	37.0	63.0	45.1	54.9	52.5	47.5	49.8	50.2
	1970-75	44.6	55.4	29.6	70.4	44.7	55.3	51.2	48.8	49.9	50.1
	1985-90	43.6	56.4	25.4	74.6	42.5	57.5	51.3	48.7	49.9	50.1
R. DOMINICANA	1950-55	48.4	51.6	38.8	61.2	47.3	52.7	52.4	47.6	49.7	50.3
	1970-75	46.7	53.3	37.4	62.6	45.7	54.3	51.9	48.1	49.8	50.2
	1985-90	45.0	55.0	36.1	63.9	42.9	57.1	51.7	48.3	49.9	50.1
ECUADOR	1950-55	47.5	52.5	41.8	58.2	48.6	51.4	51.8	48.2	49.6	50.4
	1970-75	46.8	53.2	39.5	60.5	46.5	53.5	51.8	48.2	49.8	50.2
	1985-90	45.2	54.8	34.3	65.7	41.5	58.5	52.4	47.6	49.9	50.1
EL SALVADOR	1950-55	48.0	52.0	42.2	57.8	46.9	53.1	52.8	47.2	49.5	50.5
	1970-75	47.0	53.0	40.1	59.9	42.0	58.0	53.0	47.0	49.9	50.1
	1985-90	46.0	54.0	22.6	77.4	34.5	65.5	55.8	44.2	49.8	50.2



(Continued)

If we analyze this distribution over time, we can see that the differences between men and women by age segment have increased, as well as the differences in life expectancy of the two. The transformation in the composition by sex between 1950 and 1990 is more radical in intermediate age groups, between 5 and 19 years and between 20 and 59 years. In the 1950-55 period, the region's simple average shows that 38.0% of the deaths between 5 and 19 years corresponded to females and 62.0% to males; in 1985-1990 the percentages were 30.1% and 69.9% respectively. In that age group deaths of males doubled those of females. It is similar in the 20-59 year group,

where the men/women ratio changed from 1.1 to 1.5.

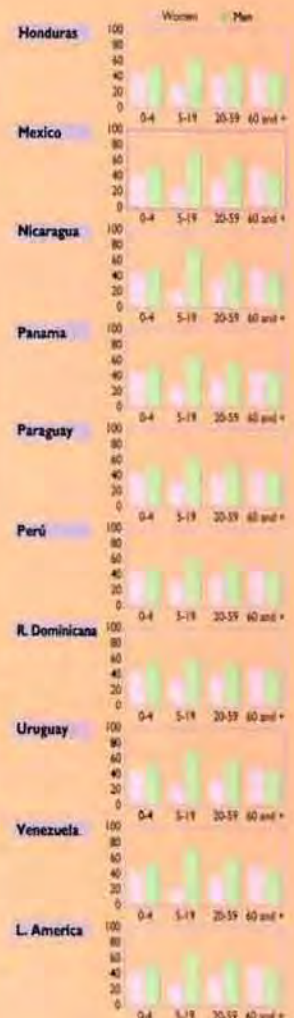
Differences between countries in the 1985-1990 period are also more important in those age groups, especially in the 5-19 age group. Countries with lower life expectancy have more deaths of females in this age group and, therefore, the difference in composition by sex is smaller. In those cases, distribution is close to 38% for women and 62% for men. In countries with higher life expectancy the figures are 25% for women and 75% for men. In this ambit, two countries show particularly extreme figures: Nicaragua and El Salvador, whose

male mortality in the 5 to 19 year group is 77%.

MORTALITY ACCORDING TO AGE, 1950-1990: DISTRIBUTION OF THE SEXES

(Percentages)

Country		0-4 years		5-19 years		20-59 years		60 and older		All ages	
		Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
GUATEMALA	1950-55	48.8	51.2	42.8	57.2	50.0	50.0	50.5	49.5	49.5	50.5
	1970-75	48.3	51.7	41.4	58.6	45.3	54.7	52.5	47.5	49.7	50.3
	1985-90	47.9	52.1	37.9	62.1	40.9	59.1	53.2	46.8	49.8	50.2
HONDURAS	1950-55	48.4	51.6	38.9	61.1	48.0	52.0	52.9	47.1	49.6	50.4
	1970-75	46.8	53.2	37.2	62.8	46.1	53.9	52.8	47.2	49.8	50.2
	1985-90	45.2	54.8	34.1	65.9	43.7	56.3	52.3	47.7	49.8	50.2
MEXICO	1950-55	49.2	50.8	38.7	61.3	44.4	55.6	53.4	46.6	49.7	50.3
	1970-75	47.2	52.8	33.5	66.5	41.2	58.8	53.2	46.8	49.9	50.1
	1985-90	44.9	55.1	27.4	72.6	36.5	63.5	53.4	46.6	49.9	50.1
NICARAGUA	1950-55	48.3	51.7	40.7	59.3	46.1	53.9	54.0	46.0	49.5	50.5
	1970-75	47.6	52.4	36.4	63.6	46.9	53.1	52.0	48.0	49.7	50.3
	1985-90	46.1	53.9	22.3	77.7	39.9	60.1	54.0	46.0	49.8	50.2
PANAMA	1950-55	47.0	53.0	38.6	61.4	48.8	51.2	51.2	48.8	49.7	50.3
	1970-75	46.4	53.6	36.2	63.8	45.5	54.5	51.4	48.6	49.9	50.1
	1985-90	45.9	54.1	31.3	68.7	40.1	59.9	51.9	48.1	49.9	50.1
PARAGUAY	1950-55	45.7	54.3	37.3	62.7	43.9	56.1	52.2	47.8	49.9	50.1
	1970-75	45.8	54.2	34.7	65.3	43.1	56.9	52.0	48.0	49.9	50.1
	1985-90	44.8	55.2	35.8	64.2	42.9	57.1	51.7	48.3	49.9	50.1
PERU	1950-55	48.7	51.3	42.2	57.8	46.0	54.0	52.7	47.3	49.6	50.4
	1970-75	48.0	52.0	38.6	61.4	43.5	56.5	52.6	47.4	49.8	50.2
	1985-90	47.2	52.8	35.4	64.6	41.7	58.3	52.4	47.6	49.9	50.1
URUGUAY	1950-55	46.3	53.7	28.6	71.4	37.9	62.1	53.4	46.6	49.9	50.1
	1970-75	45.0	55.0	28.0	72.0	36.5	63.5	53.1	46.9	49.9	50.1
	1985-90	45.6	54.4	28.2	71.8	37.1	62.9	52.5	47.5	50.0	50.0
VENEZUELA	1950-55	48.3	51.7	33.9	66.1	47.6	52.4	51.8	48.2	49.8	50.2
	1970-75	46.4	53.6	27.5	72.5	40.8	59.2	52.9	47.1	49.9	50.1
	1985-90	44.6	55.4	24.1	75.9	37.2	62.8	52.9	47.1	49.9	50.1
L. AMERICA (Simple average)	1950-55	47.5	52.5	38.0	62.0	46.0	54.0	52.6	47.4	49.7	50.3
	1970-75	46.3	53.7	34.5	65.5	43.3	56.7	52.6	47.4	49.8	50.2
	1985-90	45.2	54.8	30.1	69.9	39.9	60.1	52.7	47.3	49.9	50.1



Epidemiologic transition has been described as the transfer from a morbid structure with a prevalence of intestinal and respiratory diseases affecting the whole population from the earliest period of infancy to a prevailing structure of cardiovascular disease and cancer, mainly affecting older adults. This transfer is associated with development and overcoming poverty.

According to this process, and although the latest information is heterogeneous regarding dates, the countries in the region can be classified between two poles: at one extreme, Guatemala, the country with the most underdeveloped epidemiologic structure, which is consistent with the

general lag in that country in health and education services. In Guatemala, the main cause of male deaths in 1984 were perinatal infections and of women's deaths, intestinal infections. If men and women are analyzed as a whole, the main causes of death in that country in decreasing order were: intestinal infections, respiratory disease, perinatal disease, nutritional deficiencies, and, finally, heart disease. Guatemala is the only country where nutritional deficiencies are one of the main causes of mortality. Likewise, there is a significant number of poorly defined deaths.

Costa Rica is at the other extreme. In that country, the main cause of death

in 1988 for men and women was malignant tumors, followed by heart disease, accidents and, last, with very reduced rates, perinatal disease. Infections or respiratory disease were not among the main causes of death.

Between these two poles, in the early '80s there was a first group of countries made up of Honduras, Peru and El Salvador, where intestinal, respiratory and perinatal diseases prevailed among the main causes of death. The second group in the mid-'80s was made up of Paraguay, Mexico, Dominican Republic and Ecuador; in this group intestinal disease had not been eliminated as a cause of death,

MAIN CAUSES OF DEATH BY SEX, ALL AGES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

(Rates per one hundred thousand inhabitants)

Country (year)		All causes of death	Undefined causes	Heart disease	Cerebrovascular disease	Malignant tumors	Perinatal causes	Influenza pneumonia	Accidents	Intestinal infections	Nutritional deficiencies	Other causes
ARGENTINA (1986)	Women	683.1	14.6	222.7	76.3	120.2	26.4	...	22.9	200.0
	Men	877.4	20.5	275.1	81.6	156.8	35.9	...	56.9	250.6
BRAZIL (1986)	Women	480.1	103.7	85.8	50.5	47.4	27.3	22.5	21.5	121.3
	Men	690.8	135.2	105.3	56.1	57.5	38.5	28.8	81.3	188.3
CHILE (1987)	Women	512.8	45.8	88.8	54.8	105.9	...	39.8	27.1	150.6
	Men	613.9	45.6	92.8	49.3	102.7	...	43.3	91.1	189.0
COLOMBIA (1984)	Women	421.3	27.4	95.5	41.8	63.3	18.7	...	23.0	151.6
	Men	554.4	28.7	105.3	34.9	57.3	26.4	...	76.6	225.1
COSTA RICA (1988)	Women	331.8	8.4	71.0	28.8	74.2	14.5	...	17.8	117.2
	Men	430.8	9.1	84.6	27.5	88.1	23.9	...	48.9	148.8
CUBA (1988)	Women	593.1	1.1	175.3	64.6	106.9	...	28.7	54.5	162.0
	Men	742.4	1.9	217.4	63.7	148.0	...	35.5	107.6	168.4
DOMINICAN R. (1985)	Women	395.2	64.5	67.5	26.5	27.4	38.3	...	11.9	25.6	...	133.5
	Men	472.2	65.7	73.9	27.3	27.4	46.9	...	39.9	28.6	...	162.6
ECUADOR (1987)	Women	473.2	80.7	53.5	...	51.3	24.8	28.5	23.0	34.2	...	177.3
	Men	565.6	75.9	54.2	...	44.3	34.5	30.8	73.0	36.8	...	216.1
EL SALVADOR (1984)	Women	489.6	143.8	40.1	...	25.9	53.3	...	23.3	31.3	...	171.8
	Men	728.1	140.1	48.4	...	17.7	68.9	...	122.5	40.5	...	289.9
GUATEMALA (1984)	Women	794.9	87.6	38.8	108.2	120.0	15.5	130.5	45.7	248.6
	Men	915.9	90.9	43.9	141.6	127.3	79.8	137.5	45.0	249.9

(Continued)

and cardiovascular disease predominated. The third group, in second half of the '80s, included Uruguay, Brazil, Cuba and Chile, where cardiovascular disease and malignant tumors clearly prevailed, but there were still respiratory disease like influenza and pneumonia. The last group includes Argentina, Venezuela, Colombia (1984) and Nicaragua (1992), where heart disease and malignant tumors prevail and respiratory or intestinal diseases are not among the main causes of death.

With respect to the quality of recording, it must be pointed out that there are high figures for illdefined causes of death in several countries. In Honduras, Brazil and El

Salvador the rates of illdefined causes exceed 100.0 for every one hundred thousand. Cuba and Costa Rica are the countries with the best medical records.

In regional terms, considering a simple average and disregarding the difference in the dates, the main cause of death for women and men is heart disease, followed by malignant tumors and cerebrovascular disease, which have similar rates.

MAIN CAUSES OF DEATH BY SEX, ALL AGES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

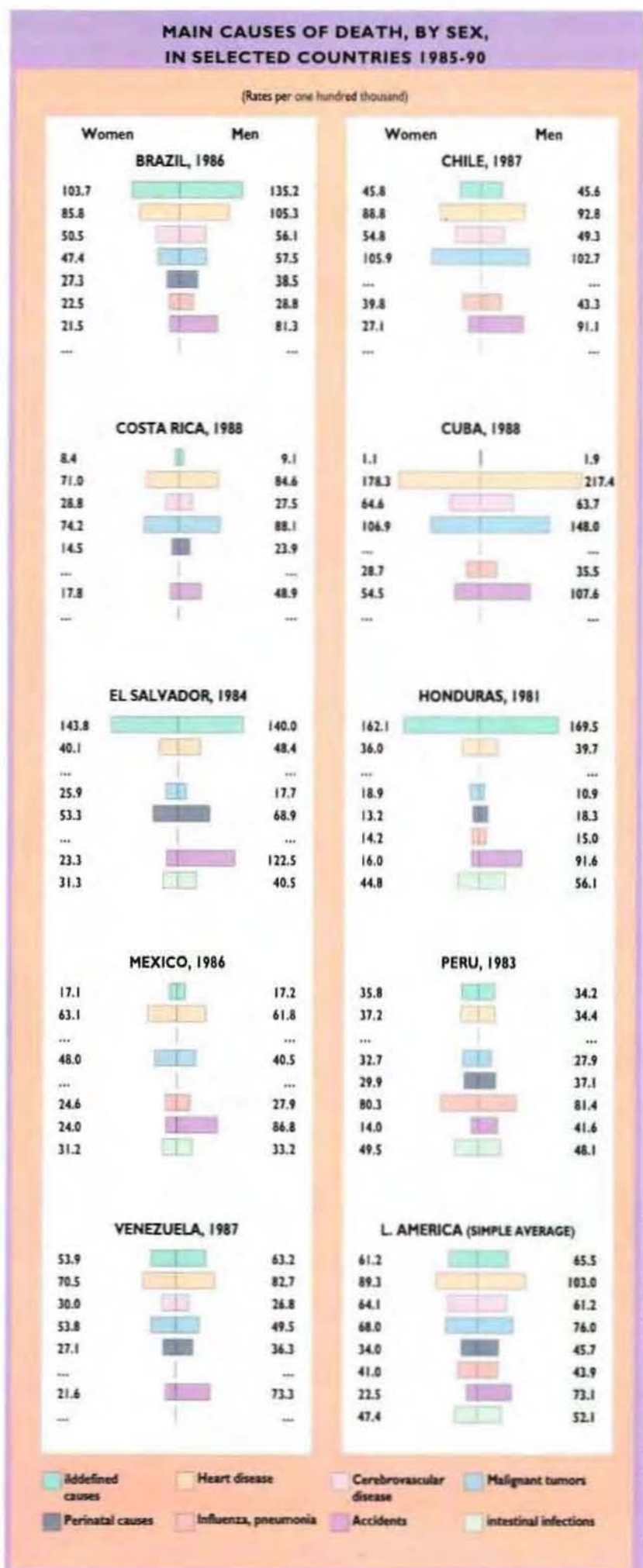
(Rates per one hundred thousand inhabitants)

Country (year)		All causes of death	Illdefined causes	Heart disease	Cerebrovascular disease	Malignant tumors	Perinatal causes	Influenza pneumonia	Accidents	Intestinal infections	Nutritional deficiencies	Other causes
HONDURAS (1981)	Women	423.7	162.1	36.0	...	18.9	13.2	14.2	16.0	44.8	...	118.4
	Men	534.3	169.5	39.7	...	10.9	18.3	15.0	91.6	56.1	...	133.3
MEXICO (1986)	Women	425.3	17.1	63.1	...	48.0	...	24.6	24.0	31.2	...	217.3
	Men	551.2	17.2	61.8	...	40.5	...	27.9	86.8	33.2	...	283.8
NICARAGUA (1992)	Women	262.5	13.4	...	64.0	32.5	23.6	129.1
	Men	373.8	15.4	...	70.5	24.6	36.4	226.8
PANAMA (1987)	Womens	345.7	30.8	64.6	38.4	50.9	20.0	...	17.3	123.8
	Men	453.0	35.2	72.7	38.5	57.6	25.9	...	61.1	162.1
PARAGUAY (1986)	Women	530.0	98.5	91.0	56.4	50.9	...	28.0	18.8	32.0	...	154.3
	Men	587.0	94.5	98.4	60.6	45.6	...	27.7	43.2	36.0	...	181.0
PERU (1983)	Women	480.6	35.8	37.2	...	32.7	29.9	80.3	14.0	49.5	...	201.2
	Men	516.6	34.2	34.4	...	27.9	37.1	81.4	41.6	48.1	...	211.9
URUGUAY (1987)	Women	879.3	52.0	216.7	137.7	178.0	16.5	23.0	30.2	225.1
	Men	1.078.1	70.3	261.0	103.0	260.0	23.0	21.5	67.0	272.2
VENEZUELA (1987)	Women	389.1	53.9	70.5	30.0	53.8	27.1	...	21.6	132.3
	Men	496.4	63.2	82.7	26.8	49.5	36.3	...	73.3	164.6
LATIN AMERICA (Simple average)	Women	524.2	61.2	89.3	64.1	68.0	34.0	41.0	22.5	47.4	45.7	172.7
	Men	657.8	65.5	103.0	61.2	76.0	45.7	43.9	73.1	52.1	45.0	219.1

Note: No information on Bolivia was available. PAHO's statistics yearbooks don't include most recent information about causes of death, by sex.

In general, there are minor differences in causes of death between men and women. The biggest difference is in deaths caused by accidents, which are considerably higher in men. The difference by sex also occurs in "homicides, legal interventions and war operations", which in Colombia, El Salvador and Mexico are among the main causes of death. In Cuba and Honduras the figure for accidents includes all kinds of accidents and violent acts.

The most significant information in the differences between men and women is that, in general, epidemiological structure by sex is similar, and differences between countries are more important. If the main cause of death in Argentina is heart disease, this is true for both men and women, while in Costa Rica malignant tumors prevail in both men and women. The most substantial difference by sex refers to the accidental deaths mentioned above, which are much higher in men than in women, with rates two to five times higher. In Honduras, El Salvador, Guatemala and Ecuador, the 'male rate/female rate' ratio is higher. In three of those countries, accidents are the main cause of death in men. Nevertheless, those countries have high death rates due to poorly defined causes.



Both infant mortality and mortality in children under 5 years of age has decreased between 1970 and 1990 in all of the countries in the region. The simple average shows that infant mortality has decreased by half and mortality of children under 5 years of age by an even higher percentage (56%). However, the average rate of regional infant mortality (simple average) is high, with 38.0 deaths for every 1,000 live births. Mortality of children under 5 years of age is somewhat lower, but still significant, with a regional average rate of 11.2 per 1,000 inhabitants (simple average).

At present the country with the lowest infant mortality is Cuba, with a rate of 11.8 deaths for every 1,000 live births. Bolivia is at the other end with a rate of 75.1. Cuba and Bolivia also represent the extremes for mortality of children under 5 years of age, with rates of 2.9 and 21.6 per 1,000 respectively. The regional gap for infant mortality is higher than for mortality of children under 5 years of age; there is also more polarization in the countries in this respect. On one hand, there is a group of 7 more developed countries with rates between 11.0 and 26.0 per 1,000 live births and, on the other, a group of less developed countries with rates over 36.0.

The efforts that have been made by countries in this area over the past two decades are also different. On the positive side, progress has been outstanding in Chile where the 1970 rates have been notably reduced placing it after Cuba and Costa Rica, which have the lowest rates in the region. On the negative side, the slow progress of Paraguay and Brazil should be mentioned. Although they reduced their mortality rates, they did so at a lower rate than the other countries in the region.

INFANT MORTALITY AND MORTALITY IN CHILDREN UNDER 5 YEARS OF AGE, 1970-1995

Country	Infant mortality (Rates per thousand live births)			Mortality in children under 5 years of age (Rates per one thousand inhab.)		
	1970-1975	1980-1985	1990-1995	1970-1975	1980-1985	1990-1995
ARGENTINA	48.3	32.2	24.3	11.1	7.7	5.8
BOLIVIA	151.3	109.2	75.1	60.4	37.4	21.6
BRAZIL	90.5	70.7	57.7	27.7	20.9	17.0
CHILE	68.6	23.7	15.6	17.2	5.7	3.7
COLOMBIA	73.0	41.2	37.0	22.0	10.8	9.4
COSTA RICA	52.6	19.2	13.7	13.6	4.9	3.3
CUBA	38.5	17.0	11.8	9.1	4.2	2.9
DOMINICAN R.	93.5	71.5	42.0	29.7	19.2	17.2
ECUADOR	95.0	68.5	49.7	30.6	20.4	13.8
EL SALVADOR	99.0	77.0	45.6	33.3	25.9	16.3
GUATEMALA	95.1	70.4	48.5	37.1	26.0	17.4
HONDURAS	103.7	65.0	43.0	37.7	21.9	12.6
MEXICO	68.4	49.3	36.0	20.3	13.0	9.5
NICARAGUA	97.9	85.6	52.2	34.3	28.3	16.9
PANAMA	43.4	30.4	25.1	14.5	8.8	6.8
PARAGUAY	54.8	46.1	38.1	16.1	13.6	11.0
PERU	110.3	82.4	64.4	38.4	26.2	17.2
URUGUAY	46.3	33.5	20.0	10.8	7.7	4.7
VENEZUELA	48.7	33.6	23.2	14.3	8.8	5.7
LATIN AMERICA (Simple average)	77.8	54.0	38.0	25.2	16.4	11.2

INFANT MORTALITY, 1970-1995



Different types of cancer do not affect men and women equally. At a regional level, considering the simple average, the highest percentage of deaths from cancer in women correspond to cancer of the uterus; second to cancer of the digestive system (not including colon and stomach) and third, to another female cancer, which is breast cancer.

The main causes of death from cancer in men are stomach cancer, cancer of the digestive system (excluding colon and stomach) and the respiratory system.

Although this is the general trend of prevalence in deaths due to cancer, there are variations between countries as regards percentages. In

Cuba, for example, a country with high tobacco consumption, the percentage of tracheal, bronchial and lung cancer is significant, and it is the main cause of death from cancer in women and men. In the case of men, the second cause is prostate cancer, which in that country shows the highest percentages in the region, after the Dominican Republic,

MAIN CANCER DEATHS ACCORDING TO SEX, 1990⁽¹⁾

(Percentages)

Country		Stomach	Colon	Other organs of the diges- tive system	Trachea, bronchial tube, lung	Other respiratory organs	Breast	Uterus	Lymphatic tissue (2)	Prostate	Bladder	Others	Total
ARGENTINA	Women	5.9	8.0	20.4	5.9	0.6	19.9	10.3	6.5	-	6.5	16.1	100.0
	Men	8.5	6.9	19.1	25.1	3.8	-	-	6.5	9.0	7.1	14.0	100.0
BRAZIL	Women	9.3	4.5	18.8	6.7	1.1	15.0	14.1	7.3	-	6.2	17.0	100.0
	Men	15.6	3.0	19.9	16.5	4.5	-	-	8.2	7.9	4.2	20.2	100.0
CHILE	Women	13.0	3.9	31.5	5.4	0.6	10.7	13.0	6.0	-	6.6	9.3	100.0
	Men	24.9	3.4	23.1	14.6	2.0	-	-	7.1	9.4	5.7	9.8	100.0
COLOMBIA	Women	15.3	3.3	18.7	6.7	1.2	9.3	16.6	7.5	-	4.6	16.8	100.0
	Men	22.5	2.6	17.4	13.4	2.9	-	-	9.4	10.0	3.4	18.4	100.0
COSTA RICA	Women	21.1	4.1	15.7	6.9	0.8	11.3	12.9	8.6	-	5.8	12.8	100.0
	Men	31.1	2.6	15.9	9.4	2.9	-	-	9.8	10.2	3.7	14.4	100.0
CUBA	Women	4.0	10.3	14.7	15.0	1.8	14.7	13.2	8.8	-	6.7	10.8	100.0
	Men	5.2	5.9	12.8	28.8	4.5	-	-	8.1	17.3	5.1	12.3	100.0
ECUADOR	Women	19.8	2.2	19.7	3.2	0.5	7.2	23.6	8.2	-	4.1	11.5	100.0
	Men	28.9	2.1	19.4	9.0	1.4	-	-	11.8	11.2	3.3	12.9	100.0
EL SALVADOR	Women	14.6	1.3	11.6	2.9	0.1	3.5	20.0	5.9	-	2.6	37.5	100.0
	Men	25.3	1.5	13.2	8.2	1.9	-	-	10.9	8.3	2.2	28.5	100.0
MEXICO	Women	9.0	2.8	20.2	7.2	0.8	10.2	22.9	8.1	-	5.7	13.1	100.0
	Men	11.5	2.8	18.2	17.8	3.3	-	-	11.6	12.0	5.7	17.1	100.0
NICARAGUA	Women	11.9	2.1	19.0	4.1	0.4	7.6	35.8	8.2	-	3.1	7.8	100.0
	Men	19.5	3.2	19.5	8.0	5.0	-	-	15.5	11.2	2.2	15.9	100.0
PANAMA	Women	6.8	5.7	14.7	5.8	0.1	14.5	17.7	9.3	-	5.5	19.9	100.0
	Men	14.1	5.1	15.6	16.2	2.9	-	-	9.9	14.2	4.9	17.1	100.0
PARAGUAY	Women	5.3	3.0	13.0	2.8	0.6	14.7	32.0	7.3	-	2.5	18.8	100.0
	Men	13.9	4.8	15.4	13.9	2.7	-	-	11.5	0.5	15.4	21.9	100.0
PERU	Women	14.8	2.3	17.5	4.7	0.7	9.3	21.1	8.0	-	5.2	16.4	100.0
	Men	22.1	1.9	18.6	12.9	1.7	-	-	10.9	10.9	4.7	16.3	100.0
URUGUAY	Women	6.3	11.1	17.5	3.6	0.3	20.5	8.5	6.6	-	7.2	18.4	100.0
	Men	7.9	6.0	14.3	26.9	4.2	-	-	6.0	11.2	6.6	16.9	100.0
VENEZUELA	Women	10.8	4.6	15.9	9.2	1.3	11.6	20.3	8.7	-	6.9	10.7	100.0
	Men	17.0	5.1	14.3	16.7	3.6	-	-	12.5	12.5	4.6	13.7	100.0
L. AMERICA (Simple average)	Women	11.2	4.6	17.9	6.0	0.7	12.0	18.8	7.7	-	5.3	15.8	100.0
	Men	17.9	3.8	17.1	15.8	3.2	-	-	10.0	10.4	5.3	16.6	100.0

Note: (1) PAHO's Las condiciones de salud en las Américas, 1994 edition. Op. Cit. does not include information on the number of deaths due to cancer, only deaths per 100,000 inhabitants. (2) Includes leukemia and hematopoietic system. No data on Bolivia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala and Honduras was available.

where it is the main cause of death in men. In Paraguay, the incidence of bladder cancer in men is notable as well as the low percentage of prostate cancer. The latter reaches percentages of approximately 10% in all of the countries, except Paraguay where it is 0.5%. In Chile, the high percentage of deaths in women due to cancer in "other organs of the digestive system" should be pointed out. It is the main cause of death from cancer in Chile, followed by cancer of the stomach and the uterus. In Costa Rica, Ecuador and El Salvador stomach cancer is also one of the main causes of death from cancer among women.

Cancer of the uterus is the main cause of death from cancer among women in 9 countries with available information in the region. The country with the highest percentage of this kind of cancer is Nicaragua, where it represents 35.8% of the deaths of women from cancer. In Uruguay, it is least prevalent, with 8.5%. Breast cancer, although important, is less frequent, relatively. It is the main cause of death among women only in Uruguay, although in other countries it is the second cause of death from cancer. The country with the highest percentage of breast cancer is Uruguay, where it accounts for 20.5% of the deaths of women from cancer. On the contrary, the country with the lowest percentage is El Salvador, with 3.5%. Both cancers can be considered excess or overmortality because they can be prevented by applying preventive measures, timely detection and providing treatment to cases in the initial stages. The figures also reveal limited access to those technologies for women from low social levels.

When death rates from breast and cervical cancer in women in the 35-64 age group are analyzed, differences can be observed in the prevalence of one or the other. In mortality rates due to breast cancer, regional variations are quite a bit higher than for cancer of the uterus, and, therefore, the scatter is greater among countries. In the first case, the extremes are seen in Uruguay -with a rate of 74.0 per thousand- and Guatemala -with a rate of 6.0. In the second case, extremes are seen in Mexico -with a rate of 31.8- and Argentina -with a rate of 10.4.

It should be pointed out that the countries with the highest rates of breast cancer are the ones with the best developed health systems and sanitary conditions, in general:

Uruguay, Argentina, Cuba and Chile. In the case of cancer of the uterus, this same relationship does not exist: Mexico, Chile, Nicaragua and Panama are the countries with the highest rates in the region.

MORTALITY RATES FOR BREAST AND CERVICAL CANCER IN WOMEN AGED 35 TO 64 YEARS, IN SELECTED COUNTRIES MOST RECENT YEAR

(Rates per 100,000 women)

Country	Year	Breast cancer	Cervical cancer
ARGENTINA	1989	52.0	10.4
BRAZIL	1987	24.7	12.0
CHILE	1989	27.5	29.5
COLOMBIA	1990	19.6	23.8
COSTA RICA	1989	31.1	21.5
CUBA	1990	35.2	12.4
DOMINICAN R.	1985	13.0	12.2
ECUADOR	1990	12.7	15.0
EL SALVADOR	1990	6.4	14.1
GUATEMALA	1988	6.0	14.8
MEXICO	1990	16.7	31.8
NICARAGUA	1990	10.1	25.9
PANAMA	1989	20.3	24.8
PERU	1988	12.3	14.3
URUGUAY	1990	74.0	13.4
VENEZUELA	1989	21.9	17.8

MORBIDITY

Statistical information about morbidity is weak and fragmented. In many countries it is not available because there is no updated data or centralized records. In countries where there is systematic information, it is only focussed on the morbidity recorded in health services.

It is interesting to analyze the information available in relation to four selected countries. In percentage terms, the main cause of hospitalization in women is linked to reproduction: the information available for the four countries that were analyzed shows that more than 40% of women's hospitalization corresponds to deliveries and complications related to pregnancy, labor and puerperium.

The main cause of hospitalization of men is trauma or poisoning, except in Argentina, where the main cause of morbidity is respiratory disease.

The percentages of different diseases have special characteristics in each country. In Argentina, both in men and women, there is a high incidence of respiratory disease; in Ecuador, infectious and parasite diseases; in Chile and Costa Rica, diseases of the digestive system.

Statistics show an increase in the number of cases of AIDS among women. Although, throughout the region AIDS is more frequent in men than in women, the dramatic reduction of the men/women ratios occurred in some countries (Argentina, Ecuador), proves how fast women are being contaminated. From a biological point of view this is due to

the higher probability of becoming infected due to exposure shown by women, particularly in the younger age groups. Exposure increases due to more transfusions given to women

due to complications of pregnancy and delivery. The power disparity between the genders prevents women from protecting themselves from sexual transmission of AIDS.

DISCHARGES FROM HOSPITAL ACCORDING TO CAUSES, BY SEX IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

(Percentages)

Causes	ARGENTINA		COSTA RICA ⁽¹⁾		CHILE		ECUADOR	
	1985		1991		1989		1987	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Delivery and complications of pregnancy, delivery and puerperium	43.4	-	42.0	-	45.8	-	57.9	-
Disease of digestive system	7.5	15.6	9.0	15.0	9.1	14.5	6.5	13.6
Respiratory disease	10.2	19.5	3.0	5.0	6.7	14.8	3.4	9.1
Disease of genitourinary system	8.0	8.0	6.2	6.5	6.3	7.4
Infectious and parasitic diseases	3.2	6.5	1.0	2.0	3.7	7.5	7.0	17.3
Illdefined signs, symptoms and morbid conditions	2.9	6.0	1.0	1.0	1.3	2.6	0.9	1.9
Circulatory disease	2.9	6.6	6.0	11.0	3.5	6.5	2.7	6.1
Trauma, poisoning	2.1 ⁽²⁾	8.8	5.0	23.0	4.4	18.2	3.7	18.4
Tumors	9.0	10.0	4.6	4.0	2.7	3.3
Mental illness	2.1	5.4	0.2	1.0	1.3	2.9	0.9	4.0
Congenital anomaly	0.8	2.3	1.0	1.0	0.8	2.3	0.6	1.9
Diseases of nervous system and sense organs	0.9	2.5	3.0	6.0	2.0	3.5	1.6	4.0
Others causes	24.0	26.8	11.8	17.0	10.6	16.7	5.8	13.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: (1) Corresponds to discharges from the San Juan de Dios Hospital, San José, Costa Rica. (2) Does not include poisoning.

MEN/WOMEN REPORTED CASES OF AIDS RATIO 1987-1992

Country	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
ARGENTINA	(1)	23.1	10.3	8.9	10.6	3.9
BOLIVIA	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	1.8
BRAZIL	9.5	7.0	7.4	7.1	5.3	4.5
CHILE	41.0	7.3	15.6	20.7	17.3	9.4
COLOMBIA	22.3	11.3	10.2	13.0	16.6	13.4
COSTA RICA	(1)	12.0	6.9	8.6	20.3	13.6
CUBA	3.5	5.0	1.0	(1)	3.3	2.5
DOMINICAN R.	2.1	2.5	1.9	2.3	2.1	3.0
ECUADOR	10.0	28.0	10.0	9.5	6.3	8.5
EL SALVADOR	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	2.9	3.8
GUATEMALA	7.0	8.0	4.7	4.4	4.5	6.4
HONDURAS	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.3	2.3
MEXICO	11.6	6.4	5.6	5.2	5.5	5.6
NICARAGUA	(1)	(1)	(1)	6.0	9.0	(1)
PANAMA	13.5	4.7	6.7	5.6	3.3	5.3
PARAGUAY	(1)	(1)	(1)	15.0	(1)	16.0
PERU	15.0	9.8	11.9	1.8	14.5	9.8
URUGUAY	(1)	6.0	8.5	6.6	8.6	6.5
VENEZUELA	24.7	16.3	12.9	12.3	11.4	9.0

Notes: (1) Not applicable because no cases were reported for women during that period. (2) Information broken down by sex not available.

PREGNANCY AND DELIVERY

There is a significant variation among countries in coverage of prenatal care and professional care during delivery, closely related to maternal mortality. The figures show an inverse relationship between maternal mortality rates and coverage of delivery. There are still countries where more than half of the deliveries do not have professional care (Bolivia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Peru).

As regards prenatal care, the situation in the different countries are more variable. There is a trend for countries with higher coverage during delivery to have higher coverage in prenatal care, but this is not necessarily so. The national averages, however, conceal marked differences among regions and social strata.

Cesarean operations have increased in several countries. This fact should be taken into account because cesarean abuse constitutes and additional risk for maternal health.

During the 1980-85 period seventy percent of the deliveries correspond to mothers between 20 and 34 years of age, without significant differences between countries, and with an increasing concentration in this age group. With respect to in high-risk ages, in most countries the percentage of deliveries before 20 years of age is higher than after 35. Nevertheless, the relationship between age

and high risk often seems related to socioeconomic variables that affect the occurrence of pregnancies and access to adequate health services.

PRENATAL COVERAGE, PROFESSIONAL CARE DURING DELIVERY AND CESAREAN BIRTHS, AROUND 1991

Country	(Percentages)		
	Prenatal coverage	Professional care during delivery	Cesarean
ARGENTINA	...	95.4	...
BOLIVIA	66.3	39.5	7.9
BRAZIL	69.6	70.0	33.9
CHILE	...	98.8	26.8
COLOMBIA	78.2	80.3	15.2
COSTA RICA	91.0	96.4	17.2
CUBA	97.9	99.8	20.3
DOMINICAN R.	90.0	85.0	...
ECUADOR	46.4	22.9	...
EL SALVADOR	24.1	31.1	19.2
GUATEMALA	34.3	28.0	18.0
HONDURAS	72.6	45.6	14.3
MEXICO	70.9 (1)	95.4 (2)	...
NICARAGUA	81.4	40.3	14.0
PANAMA	90.0	85.0	16.6
PARAGUAY	70.5	27.3	10.1
PERU	63.9	45.5	21.0
URUGUAY	82.9	99.0	27.3
VENEZUELA	38.6	99.0	12.5

Notes: (1) Prenatal coverage is defined as the number of pregnant women that attended the prenatal care clinic once or more times during their pregnancy. (2) Circa 1990.

DELIVERIES OF WOMEN AT AGES OF OBSTETRIC RISK 1970-1985

Country	(Percentages)							
	Total deliveries (in thousands)		At age with no risk		At ages with risk			
	1970-75	1980-85	Women in the 20-34 year age group	Women under 20 years of age	Women 35 and over	1970-75	1980-85	1970-75
ARGENTINA	585	722	73.3	74.2	12.8	13.0	13.8	12.7
BOLIVIA	209	263	69.4	72.6	11.0	10.6	19.6	16.7
BRAZIL	3,430	3,930	72.2	76.6	11.0	10.1	16.8	13.3
COLOMBIA	733	845	71.6	72.9	12.7	12.3	15.7	14.8
COSTA RICA	57	74	66.7	71.6	19.3	18.9	14.0	9.5
CUBA	231	167	67.1	70.7	22.9	22.8	10.0	6.6
CHILE	274	281	71.9	75.1	16.1	15.3	12.0	9.6
DOMINICAN R.	184	203	70.1	71.4	16.3	17.7	13.6	10.8
ECUADOR	270	322	68.5	71.1	15.6	14.3	15.9	14.6
EL SALVADOR	164	176	67.7	68.8	18.9	19.9	13.4	11.4
GUATEMALA	251	318	67.7	69.5	17.1	17.3	15.1	13.2
HONDURAS	139	177	66.9	69.5	16.5	15.8	16.5	14.7
MEXICO	2,376	2,516	70.7	74.0	13.3	12.4	16.0	13.7
NICARAGUA	104	134	69.2	72.4	18.3	17.2	12.5	10.4
PANAMA	57	58	70.2	72.4	19.3	19.0	10.5	8.6
PARAGUAY	92	122	68.5	73.0	14.1	12.3	17.4	14.8
PERU	574	679	70.6	72.2	11.0	12.4	18.5	15.5
URUGUAY	60	58	73.3	74.1	11.7	13.8	15.0	12.1
VENEZUELA	420	533	71.2	73.7	16.9	15.4	11.9	10.9
LATIN AMERICA	10,210	11,578	71.1	74.2	13.2	12.5	15.8	13.3

Source: PAHO, Las condiciones de salud en las Américas, Op. Cit.

Source: CELADE, latest information available, Demographic Bulletin, Year 20, N° 39, Santiago, Chile, January 1987.

MATERNAL MORTALITY

According to the available information, which is not similar in terms of years and quality of recording, maternal mortality has decreased in the region. This decrease, however, is not constant or homogeneous among the countries. There are pronounced differences: Paraguay, Bolivia, Peru, Guatemala and Honduras have the worst figures, with mortality rates that exceed 22.0 for every 10,000 live births. On the other end, Panama, Venezuela, Mexico, Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Uruguay and Cuba have rates under 6.0. Maternal death rates are consistent with the level of development of the health systems, particularly with the coverage and quality of the services provided, priority in allocating resources to prevention of maternal deaths, and equal access to good quality health care.

The causes of maternal mortality are almost all concentrated in direct obstetrical problems. This situation is particularly worrying because these kinds of problems can be essentially prevented and the scientific knowledge and simple technology has existed for many years to avoid them. Indirect obstetrical causes refer to medical factors not derived from pregnancy but which are worsened by its physiological effects.

Among the causes defined, abortion is the main cause of maternal death in Argentina, Chile, Guatemala, Honduras, Panama, Uruguay and Venezuela, although there is a significant under-recording of abortion as the cause of death

because it is an illegal practice in all the countries in the region except Cuba. Toxemia is the main cause of death in Brazil, the Dominican

Republic and Mexico; hemorrhage prevails in Peru, Paraguay, Panama and Ecuador; complications during puerperium, in Costa Rica.

EVOLUTION OF MATERNAL MORTALITY

(Rate per ten thousand live births)

Country	Around 1970	Around 1980	Last available year (1)
ARGENTINA	13.9	7.0	5.2 (1990)
BOLIVIA	24.7 (1988)
BRAZIL	...	4.8	14.0 (1985)
CHILE	16.8	7.5	4.1 (1990)
COLOMBIA	15.9	11.5	14.0 (1991)
COSTA RICA	9.5	2.3	4.0 (1992)
CUBA	7.0	6.0	3.2 (1990)
DOMINICAN R.	10.2	7.2	9.0 (1990)
ECUADOR	23.0	16.2	12.0 (1992)
EL SALVADOR	10.1	6.9	14.0 (1991)
GUATEMALA	15.7	9.1	22.0 (1992)
HONDURAS	17.4	9.4	22.0 (1990)
MEXICO	14.3	9.4	5.4 (1990)
NICARAGUA	18.6	4.7	15.0 (1992)
PANAMA	13.5	7.2	6.0 (1989)
PARAGUAY	55.9	36.5	27.0 (1990)
PERU	21.5	10.8	24.0 (1989)
URUGUAY	7.7	5.0	3.8 (1991)
VENEZUELA	9.2	6.5	6.0 (1988)

Note: (1) The last year for which information was available is in parenthesis.

MATERNAL MORTALITY BY CAUSES OF DEATH LAST AVAILABLE PERIOD

(percentages)

Country	Period	Causes						Total directly obstetric causes	Others causes
		Abortion	Toxemia	Pregnancy or delivery hemorrhage	Puerperium complications	All others direct causes			
ARGENTINA	(1980-85)	37.0	15.3	14.9	13.0	16.9	97.1	2.9	
BRAZIL	(1980-84)	13.3	30.8	19.1	16.1	18.1	97.4	2.6	
CHILE	(1980-86)	35.4	14.7	7.6	17.8	17.0	92.5	7.5	
COSTA RICA	(1980-86)	17.6	18.2	15.7	22.6	24.5	98.6	1.4	
CUBA	(1980-86)	19.3	7.8	4.4	15.1	28.9	75.5	24.5	
DOMINICAN R.	(1980-85)	18.5	25.6	20.1	4.1	24.4	92.7	7.3	
ECUADOR	(1980-86)	8.8	25.3	21.4	9.8	33.3	98.6	1.4	
GUATEMALA	(1980-84)	11.2	4.4	2.4	8.9	72.1	99.0	1.0	
HONDURAS	(1980-83)	5.7	0.7	2.2	1.2	72.3	82.1	17.9	
MEXICO	(1981-83)	8.4	17.8	19.9	9.1	38.7	93.9	6.1	
PANAMA	(1980-86)	16.4	16.0	16.4	6.0	43.4	98.0	2.0	
PARAGUAY	(1980-85)	14.4	16.3	25.5	17.3	22.4	95.9	4.1	
PERU	(1980-83)	10.2	8.3	30.8	14.5	35.6	99.4	0.6	
URUGUAY	(1980-86)	24.7	15.3	4.4	8.8	45.5	98.7	1.3	
VENEZUELA	(1980-83)	24.6	19.0	15.6	17.5	16.5	93.2	6.8	

Note: No information was obtained for Bolivia, Colombia, El Salvador and Nicaragua.

Source: PAHO, Las condiciones de salud en las Américas. Op. Cit. Valdés, Teresa and Gomáriz, Enrique (Coord.), Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Cifras. Op. Cit.

Source: PAHO, Las condiciones de salud en las Américas. Op. Cit.

VOLUNTARY INTERRUPTION OF PREGNANCY

In Latin American countries, except in Cuba, voluntary interruption of pregnancy is illegal and it has penal sanctions. The radical way that abortion has traditionally been rejected by the institutional framework makes it impossible to establish the current extent of the problem exactly. However, there is well-founded information that makes it possible to affirm that it is a resource widely used in the case of unwanted pregnancies. A recent study carried out in six countries in the region estimates that a total of 2.7 million abortions occur each year in these countries. In Brazil alone 1.4 million abortions are practiced.

According to these estimates, in Chile, Brazil and Peru, approximately one third all the pregnancies end in abortion; in Colombia and the Dominican Republic, about one fourth; in Mexico, one sixth. It is also estimated that a significant number of women have experienced an abortion: depending on the country, between 2 and 6 of every 100 women in childbearing age abort every year.

In the six countries considered in the study, 662 thousand hospitalizations for abortions were recorded; this figure, corrected by adding under-recording and discounting spontaneous abortions, falls to 555 thousand hospitalizations for abortion per year. In summary, a large number of abortions are practiced in those six countries, and, due to the conditions in which they are carried out, a high percentage of them result in hospitalization or death, as indicated above.

Although the figures mentioned reflect what occurs only in some countries in the region, it must be assumed that the situation in the other countries is similar. Women hospitalized for abortions are a small indicator of a much more extensive problem.

The relevance of abortion as a public health problem cannot be denied. In order to prevent abortion, it is necessary to study the factors that

determine that such a considerable number of women resort to this option, risking their health and life. It also calls our attention on the limited access of vast sectors of women to other birth control alternatives, particularly the poorer sectors, which results in a "demographic inequity" according to the ECLAC/CELADE concept.

ESTIMATE OF ABORTIONS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

Country	Year	Total estimated abortions ⁽¹⁾	Percentage per every 100 live births	Annual rate per 100 women in the 15-49 year age group
BRAZIL	1991	1,443,350	44	3.7
CHILE	1990	159,650	55	4.5
COLOMBIA	1989	288,400	35	3.4
DOMINICAN R.	1992	82,500	39	4.4
MEXICO	1990	533,100	21	2.3
PERU	1989	271,150	43	5.2

Note: (1) Corrected hospitalized cases, multiplied by five.

HOSPITALIZATIONS DUE TO INDUCED AND SPONTANEOUS ABORTIONS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

Country	Year	Number of hospitalizations	Number adjusted for erroneous information and failure to record	Number corrected to exclude spontaneous abortions ⁽¹⁾
BRAZIL	1991	341,910	384,890	288,670
CHILE	1990	44,470	42,570	31,930
COLOMBIA	1989	66,680	76,900	57,680
DOMINICAN R.	1992	14,650	22,000	16,500
MEXICO	1990	118,790	142,160	106,620
PERU	1989	75,530	72,310	54,230
TOTAL FOR THESE 6 COUNTRIES	c.1990	662,030	740,830	555,630

Note: (1) Corrected number in the second column, minus 25% assuming that proportion really accounts for spontaneous abortions.

BIRTH CONTROL

The ability of deciding on the number of children and the distance between them currently is a basic right of people and it is fundamental for women to exercise other rights in the social ambit. In this sense, access to contraceptives is of major importance. If we consider the countries in the region for which information is available, in more than half of them more than 50% of the women living in union use some kind of contraceptive method. Most of the contraceptive methods used are modern methods that require professional assistance or intervention. There are, however, significant differences among the countries.

The chances of using contraceptive methods vary according to the women's social environment. In fact, its use is lower in the more underprivileged groups of society: rural and less educated women use fewer contraceptives than women in urban areas with higher education. In this aspect, the internal gap of countries tends to be greater in countries with lower coverage.

Contraceptives are used mainly by women over 20 years of age, generally after they have had their first child. Percentages of women from 15 to 19 years of age using contraceptives range from 5.4% in Guatemala to 41.3% in Brazil (northeast). The lower use of contraception among female adolescents is more marked among single female adolescents, a category which is not included in this information. Because single female adolescents do not have a partner, they tend to be left out of family planning programs with the resulting risk of early, unwanted pregnancies.

The contraceptive methods that are used vary from one country to another. However, there is a certain trend for sterilization to be one of the main resources used by women: in seven out of thirteen countries it is the method most used by women. It is followed in importance by the pill, most

used in four countries. The rhythm method is most used in Peru and Bolivia. Contraceptive methods are mainly feminine; male sterilization is minimal, and the percentage of methods requiring the participation of both men and women is low.

WOMEN LIVING IN UNION⁽¹⁾ USING SOME KIND OF CONTRACEPTIVE METHOD, BY AGE, PLACE OF RESIDENCE AND SCHOOLING, IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Women in the 15-19 year age group		Women in the 15-45 year age group						
		Total	Residence	Level of Schooling ⁽²⁾					5	
				Urban	Rural	1	2	3		4
BOLIVIA	1989	16.0	30.3	39.1	19.4	11.5	24.8	38.4	52.8	—
BRAZIL (NORTHEAST)	1991	41.3	59.2	65.6	49.1	44.3	55.0	62.6	67.8	77.2
COLOMBIA	1990	36.9	66.1	69.1	59.1	52.6	63.3	69.4	76.8	—
DOMINICAN R.	1991	17.4	56.4	60.1	50.1	41.5	53.0	57.2	59.2	66.3
ECUADOR	1987	15.3	44.3	53.3	32.7	18.5	41.0	56.6	—	—
EL SALVADOR ⁽³⁾	1985	21.7	44.5	58.7	30.1	35.7	40.7	52.0	45.4	56.2
GUATEMALA	1987	5.4	23.2	43.0	13.8	9.8	24.3	47.4	60.0	—
MEXICO	1987	52.7	52.7	32.5	59.2	23.7	44.8	62.0	69.9	—
PARAGUAY	1990	35.4	48.4	56.8	38.7	30.8	40.2	50.0	62.4	—
PERU	1992	29.1	59.0	66.1	41.1	34.9	51.3	65.6	73.2	—

Notes: (1) Legal or consensual union. (2) These levels change according to the structure of the education system in each country and the way they were classified in the report. (3) Refers to the Metropolitan Area.

PRACTICE OF CONTRACEPTION AND METHOD USED BY WOMEN WHO LIVE IN UNION⁽¹⁾ IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

(Percentages)

Country	Year	Do not practice any method	Total	Practice some contraceptive method								
				Pill	IUD	Injection/Vaginal	Condom	Female sterilization	Male sterilization	Rhythm method	Withdrawal	Others
BOLIVIA	1987	69.7	30.3	1.9	4.8	0.8	0.3	4.4	0.0	16.1	1.0	0.9
BRAZIL (NATIONAL)	1986	34.2	65.8	25.2	0.0	0.0	1.7	26.9	0.8	4.3	5.0	2.0
BRAZIL (NORTHEAST)	1991	40.8	59.2	13.3	0.3	0.8	1.4	37.7	0.1	2.4	2.9	0.1
COLOMBIA	1990	33.9	66.1	14.1	12.4	3.9	2.9	20.9	0.5	6.1	4.8	0.5
COSTA RICA ⁽²⁾	1986	32.0	68.0	18.8	7.3	1.8	12.6	16.4	0.5	0.0	0.0	10.6
DOMINICAN R.	1991	43.6	56.4	9.8	1.8	0.0	1.2	38.5	0.0	2.0	2.2	0.5
ECUADOR	1987	55.7	44.3	8.5	9.8	1.9	0.6	15.0	0.0	6.1	7.0	0.3
EL SALVADOR	1985	52.7	47.3	6.6	3.3	0.9	1.2	31.8	0.7	1.9	0.8	0.1
GUATEMALA	1987	76.8	23.2	3.9	1.8	0.9	1.2	10.4	0.9	2.8	1.2	0.1
HONDURAS ⁽²⁾	1984	65.1	34.9	12.7	3.8	...	0.9	12.1	0.2	5.2 ⁽³⁾
MEXICO	1987	47.3	52.7	9.7	10.2	3.4	1.9	18.6	0.8	0.0	0.0	8.1
NICARAGUA ⁽²⁾	1981	73.0	27.0	10.5	2.3	...	0.8	7.1	0.1	6.2 ⁽³⁾
PARAGUAY	1990	51.6	48.4	13.6	5.7	6.0	2.6	7.4	0.0	5.3	2.9	5.0
PERU	1992	41.0	59.0	5.7	13.4	2.9	2.8	7.9	0.1	20.7	3.9	1.6

Notes: (1) Legal or consensual union. (2) Taken from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, World Population Profile, 1991. (3) Includes injection/vaginal contraceptives, rhythm and withdrawal methods.

DESIRED NUMBER OF CHILDREN

Desired number of children is an important indicator to estimate unsatisfied demand for contraceptive services and to orient birth-control policies. Information available, however, is limited and only refers to certain countries.

When analyzing the available information, we see that women's preferences with respect to number of children are concentrated on two children. In five of the six countries analyzed, more than 50% of the women want to have two children or fewer. The exception is the Dominican Republic, where preferences lean towards three children. Although there is a clear trend towards a low fertility model, there is still a percentage of women -about 20% to 25%- that want to have four or more children. On the other extreme, the percentage of Brazilian women who do not want to have any children, should be pointed out.

Women's interest in having more children, analyzed by age segment, reflects different situation in different countries. Women from the Dominican Republic are the most interested in having children, even in higher age groups. There is a similar situation in Colombia and Paraguay. In other countries like Cuba, Ecuador and Guatemala, women's interest in having children has decreased, especially in women 30 years or older. In Panama, on the other hand, the situation is more extreme: most women, in every age group, do not want any more children. It can be seen that women 40 or over are the ones who are most interested in

motherhood. It is surprising that more than 80% of the women between 20 and 30 years do not want any more children.

This information reveals the installation of a small-size family model in Latin America together with expectations of a higher standard of

living and the existence of other feminine ideals beyond maternity.

DESIRED NUMBER OF CHILDREN DECLARED BY WOMEN IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

(Percentages)

Ideal number of children	BRAZIL 1986	CHILE 1988	CUBA 1987	DOMINICAN R. 1991	PERU 1992
None	3.8	1.4	0.3		1.9
1	6.7	9.0	2.0	4.3	9.0
2	40.1	45.4	57.0	31.7	53.6
3	28.1	25.3	40.7 (1)	37.4	19.0
4	10.1	11.6	-	13.7	10.1
5	4.8	5.3 (2)	-	3.5	1.9
6 and more	5.2	-	-	6.2	2.6
Others	1.2	2.0	-	2.1	1.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Notes: (1) Considers 3 and more wanted children (2) Considers 5 and more.



WOMEN WHO DO NOT WANT ANY MORE CHILDREN BY AGE GROUP IN SELECTED COUNTRIES LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

(Percentages)

Age group	COLOMBIA 1990	CUBA 1987	ECUADOR 1979	GUATEMALA 1983	PANAMA 1986	PARAGUAY 1990	DOMINICAN R. 1991
15 - 19	24.7	10.4	-	10.5	58.9	12.2	17.4
20 - 24	39.1	27.6	30.2 (1)	-	83.5	21.4	26.7
25 - 29	40.0	54.2	-	44.1	84.3	26.9	27.0
30 - 34	43.7	79.5	55.7 (2)	-	78.6	38.4	24.1
35 - 39	45.7	89.5	-	53.9	69.1	46.4	23.8
40 - 44	43.8	98.4	77.4 (3)	66.8	47.4	49.0	25.2
45 - 49	53.2	99.0	75.7	-	-	49.8	38.0

Notes: (1) Considers the 15-24 year age group. (2) Considers the 25-34 year age group. (3) Considers the 35-44 year age group.



The legal situation of the Latin American woman has been analyzed in the light of four classical branches of the law: constitutional, family, criminal and labor. One branch that is just emerging and has not been fully developed, although it is becoming increasingly important, has also been considered: reproductive rights. In the case of Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and Venezuela only the federal laws have been considered.

In the field of Constitutional Law, the treatment of men and women is the same in all the countries with regard to equality, constitutional rights, the right to decide to run for elective posts and the right to vote. With regard to the latter we must point out that their full recognition, without exclusions of any type, has been somewhat delayed in several countries and that in others it has been suspended for long periods of time due to interruptions in the democratic life as the result of the advent of *de facto* governments.

The States of the region, without exception, have ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women, approved by the United Nations in 1979. The States that are party to the Convention, condemning discrimination against women, undertake to embody the principle of the equality of men and women in their Constitutions and laws and to guarantee the practical execution of this principle. The principles of the

Convention have been incorporated into the internal legislation of each country by means of parliamentary approval and presidential ratification.

With regard to family law, although most legislations recognize the full legal capacity of married women, in several it is restricted, especially with regard to the administration of assets belonging to women and the conjugal partnership. The personal duties and rights between spouses are, with a very few exceptions, equivalent. The very common provision that established that the woman owed her husband obedience and the latter undertook to protect her disappeared two decades ago. With the exception of one country, where the parental rights and duties are in the hands of the father, in all the others it is the responsibility of both parents jointly. Most countries, with variable extension, recognize the legal effects of the *de facto* union. All the legislations, except for one, admit divorce with dissolution of the marriage bond. Uruguay in 1989, Costa Rica in 1990, and Venezuela in 1993 issued special laws on equality and advancement of women.

In spite of the progress in criminal law, some serious problems still exist. Most of the Penal Codes consider the honor, honesty or reputation of the woman to characterize certain crimes that have a sexual connotation and to determine their penalty. Therefore, one frequently finds a lower penalty is considered for the offenses of infanticide and abortion honoris

causa, if the mother committed the crime to cover up her dishonor. Also, in several crimes that have a sexual connotation (rape, statutory rape and kidnapping), the crime is pardoned if the offender marries the victim. Furthermore, the action to pursue the punishment of these crimes is usually private. The Codes that penalize adultery generally use a double standard: the wife commits the offense when she has sexual intercourse with a male who is not her husband. The husband, on the other hand, commits adultery only when he has sexual intercourse with a mistress or concubine, that is, the requirement of habit is added. Intrafamily violence is not characterized as a crime that is different from that of injuries. Sexual harassment is not punished as a crime either. With regard to the juridical rights that the penal threat tries to safeguard, the Codes tend to protect abstract values of dubious current relevance rather than the rights of specific persons. This leads to inappropriate classification of the crimes according to the juridical right being protected: some Codes characterize rape as a crime against the moral conventions of society.

The Organization of American States (OAS), at its plenary meeting held on 6 June 1994, approved the Inter-American Convention for preventing, sanctioning and eradicating violence against women. In it, the Member States, among other commitments, undertake to include, in their internal legislation, whatever policies may be necessary to avoid violence against women and to adopt the

administrative measures that will lead to this. This Convention, which is in the process of being ratified by the different States, will no doubt contribute towards filling a void which is painfully evident in the legislation of Latin American countries.

There is no doubt that there has been progress in the field of labor law during the last decade, especially regarding protection of expectant mothers; but there are still at least two major stumbling blocks. The first, the fact that the women are forbidden to perform a series of jobs to which men have free access. Only four countries have abolished this limitation which contradicts the principle that is accepted universally -and is sanctioned in most of the Constitutions- of freedom to work. The second major stumbling block is the treatment given to domestic work. Those who work in this field, mostly women, are deprived of the essential rights that are recognized for other workers; minimum wages, limited working hours, job security, etc.

Finally, reproductive rights have not been recognized as such in the organic laws of any country. The rulings on almost everything that refers to women's health, birth control and the prevention of sexually transmitted diseases are found in different legal codes and largely in the regulations or instructions of the health authorities. Activities related to reproductive rights lack an adequate legal basis in all of the countries in the region.



POLITICAL RIGHTS AND CONSTITUTIONAL GUARANTIES

All the Constitutions of the Latin American countries contain one or more chapters of a doctrinal or programmatic nature, where the essential political rights of the people are recognized. The extent of the rights that are recognized is closely linked to the age of the constitutional text; the newer Constitutions include a wider range of personal and political rights. This situation continues despite the modifications that have been made in the older Constitutions.

The Constitutions of four countries date from the nineties: Argentina, Colombia, Paraguay and Peru. The constitutional texts of Brazil, Chile, El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua were issued in the eighties. The Constitutions of Cuba, Ecuador and Panama date from the seventies, and those of Bolivia, Honduras, Dominican Republic, Uruguay and Venezuela from the sixties.

The two oldest Constitutions are those of Mexico (1917) and Costa Rica (1949).

The principle of equality before the law is recognized in a different way in the various Constitutions. There are six Constitutions that specifically embody equality between men and women: Brazil, Cuba, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico and Paraguay. Another seven countries refer to the holders of the rights of equality in terms of persons, inhabitants,

nationals and human beings: Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Uruguay. The Constitutions of Costa Rica and Chile state that all men are equal. On the other hand, those of Panama, Peru and Venezuela prohibit discrimination based on sex.

All the Constitutions of the Latin American republics recognize that women have the right to vote. The first to do so were the Ecuadoreans, in 1929, followed by Brazil and Uruguay in 1932. The last countries to recognize woman's right to vote without limitations were Paraguay (1961), Nicaragua, Peru and Honduras (1955).

Most of the legislations recognized woman's right to vote between 1942 and 1955. In a few cases the right was recognized much earlier than it was actually practiced, and in others it was suspended for long periods of time.

The right to decide to run for elective posts does not recognize any barriers or restrictions due to sex. The case of Argentina must be pointed out in this respect because a legal reform dated 1991 established that the lists of candidates for popular election must include women in a minimum proportion of 30% of the posts up for election.

The guarantees that ensure the exercise of political rights are the same for men and women in all of the Latin American Constitutions. The

Constitution of Costa Rica goes even farther, because it states that mothers, as well as children and the elderly, are specially protected by the State.



COUNTRY	LEGAL TEXT IN USE	EQUALITY
ARGENTINA	Political Constitution of 1994.	All inhabitants are equal before the law. Privileges of blood or birth, personal privileges, or titles of nobility are not allowed.
BOLIVIA	Political Constitution of 1967.	All human beings enjoy the guarantees and rights without discrimination of race, sex, language, religion or any other nature.
BRAZIL	Federal Constitution of 1988 and State Constitutions of 1989.	Men and women are equal in rights and obligations.
CHILE	Political Constitution of 1980.	All men are born free and equal in dignity and rights.
COLOMBIA	Political Constitution of 1991.	All persons enjoy the same rights, without discriminations for reasons of sex or others.
COSTA RICA	Political Constitution of 1949.	All men are equal under the law and there can not be any discrimination that is incompatible with human dignity.
CUBA	Political Constitution of 1976.	Women enjoy the same rights as men.
ECUADOR	Political Constitution of 1979.	Men and women have equal rights and opportunities.
EL SALVADOR	Political Constitution of 1983.	All people are equal before the law.
GUATEMALA	Political Constitution of 1985.	Men and women have equal opportunities and responsibilities.
HONDURAS	Political Constitution of 1965.	All the Hondurans are equal. Any discrimination based on sex is prohibited.
MEXICO	Political Constitution of 1917.	Men and women are equal under the law.
NICARAGUA	Political Constitution of 1987.	All people are equal. Discrimination for reasons of birth, race, nationality, origin and the like is forbidden.
PANAMA	Political Constitution of 1972.	There are no personal privileges or rights, or discrimination for reasons of sex, race, social class, religion or political ideas.
PARAGUAY	Political Constitution of 1992.	Men and women have equal rights. The State should show its concern for enforcing equality and making it easier for the woman to participate in all fields of national life.
PERU	Political Constitution of 1993.	Nobody can be discriminated against because of his origin, sex, race, language, religion or for any other reason.
R. DOMINICANA	Political Constitution of 1966.	Does not specifically include equal rights between men and women.
URUGUAY	Political Constitution of 1967.	All people are equal in the eyes of the law.
VENEZUELA	Political Constitution of 1961.	Discrimination based on sex, race, creed or social condition is forbidden.

COUNTRY	WOMEN'S RIGHT TO VOTE	RIGHT TO DECIDE TO RUN FOR ELECTIVE POSTS	YEAR OF RATIFICATION OF THE CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN, ADOPTED BY THE UNITED NATIONS IN 1979
ARGENTINA	Since 1947.	Since 1991, the lists of candidates for elective posts must include women in at least 30% of the positions to be filled.	...
BOLIVIA	Since 1952.	Equal for men and women.	1990
BRAZIL	Since 1932.	Equal for men and women.	1984
CHILE	Since 1949.	Equal for men and women.	1989
COLOMBIA	Since 1954.	Equal for men and women.	1981
COSTA RICA	Since 1949.	Equal for men and women.	1984
CUBA	Since 1934.	Equal for men and women.	...
ECUADOR	Since 1929.	Equal for men and women. There is a proposed law that establishes that 25% of the people on the lists of candidates for multipersonal elections must be women.	1981
EL SALVADOR	Since 1950.	Equal for men and women.	1981
GUATEMALA	Since 1945.	Equal for men and women.	1982
HONDURAS	Since 1955.	Equal for men and women.	1983
MEXICO	Since 1953.	Equal for men and women.	...
NICARAGUA	Since 1955.	Equal for men and women.	...
PANAMA	Since 1946.	Equal for men and women.	1981
PARAGUAY	Since 1961.	Equal for men and women.	1986
PERU	Since 1955.	Equal for men and women.	1981
R. DOMINICANA	Since 1942.	Equal for men and women.	1982
URUGUAY	Since 1932.	Equal for men and women.	1981
VENEZUELA	Since 1947.	Equal for men and women.	1982

CONSTITUTIONAL GUARANTEES

All of the Constitutions guarantee the essential rights of the people without distinction of sex. The Constitution of Costa Rica established that mothers, children and elderly people enjoy the special protection of the State.



Family relationships are governed mainly by Civil Codes. Only Bolivia, Costa Rica, Cuba, El Salvador and Honduras have a Family Code. In those countries, common civil law is applied in a supplementary way.

In seven countries the Civil Codes go back to the last century: Chile (1857), El Salvador (1859), Ecuador (1861), Uruguay (1868), Argentina (1861), Guatemala (1877) and Mexico (1884). Nearly all of those codes have undergone numerous modifications, especially in matters related to family law. This has caused them to lose a significant part of their organic and systematic nature. Also, all of the countries have issued special laws on specific aspects of family relationships, which modify or repeal important parts of the Codes, making it difficult to consult them.

Some Constitutions, such as those of Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador and Nicaragua, contain specific provisions on family law which prevail over all other pieces of legislation.

In most of the legislation, married women have full legal capacity. In others, this capacity is restricted. In Bolivia and in Guatemala, the husband can prohibit the wife from exercising specific professions or trades. In Brazil, Chile and the Dominican Republic, the husband manages the wife's personal estate and effects, which constitutes a denial of her full capacity.

In all the legislation, the personal rights and duties of all the spouses are actually the same, as a result of successive modifications of the civil laws. In several countries the wife may use her husband's name after her own, placing the preposition "de" before it which indicates a relationship of possession or ownership. Only in Paraguay does the husband enjoy a similar right. Except for Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic, where the marital domicile is established by the husband, in the other countries said domicile is determined by mutual agreement between the husband and wife.

Latin American laws establish that all children have the same rights, without distinction as to origin. Exceptions to this are Chile and Paraguay, where children born out of wedlock have fewer rights than those born in a marriage. Chile also constitutes an exception on the subject of parental authority as it is exercised by the father, and only if the husband is not available is it exercised by the wife. In the other countries, parental authority is exercised jointly by both parents.

Each country's legislation regulates the administration of assets in the marital relationship with its own specific rules. The most common systems are conjugal partnership and spouses sharing property acquired during the marriage. The spouses may decide specifically for the system of separation of marital

property, which is not customary.

Some legislations recognize the institution of family property. Most of them also grant legal effect to consensual unions, provided they comply with certain requirements such as their permanence over a period of time or the lack of impediment to enter into marriage.

Divorce a vinculo matrimonii, for reasons established in the law or by mutual agreement, is accepted in all of the countries. Chile is the only country in Latin America which does not admit divorce with dissolution of the marital bond.



COUNTRY	PRINCIPAL BODIES OF LAW	LEGAL CAPACITY OF WOMEN
ARGENTINA	Civil Code of 1871.	The adult woman is fully capable, regardless of her marital status.
BOLIVIA	Family Law of 1972. Civil Code of 1976.	The adult woman is fully capable. But the husband can restrict or prohibit the wife from exercising certain professions or trades for reasons of morality, or when they have an adverse effect on her domestic role.
BRAZIL	Civil Code of 1916. Civil Statute of Married Women of 1964. Political Constitution of 1988.	The adult woman is fully capable. There are some exceptions applicable to married women.
CHILE	Civil Code of 1857. Law on the System of Participation in the Community Estate dated 1994.	The adult woman is fully capable. Nevertheless, the woman married under the system of conjugal partnership does not have the capacity to administer her own property and that of the conjugal partnership.
COLOMBIA	Civil Code of 1873. Political Constitution of 1991.	The adult woman is fully capable.
COSTA RICA	Family Law of 1974. Law promoting social equality for Women of 1990. Civil Code of 1986.	The adult woman is fully capable.
CUBA	Family Code of 1975. Political Constitution of 1976.	The adult woman is fully capable. Full capacity is also acquired by the minor, whether man or woman, with marriage.
ECUADOR	Civil Code of 1861. Political Constitution of 1979.	The adult woman is fully capable.
EL SALVADOR	Family Law of 1994. Civil Code of 1859.	The adult woman is fully capable.
GUATEMALA	Civil Code of 1877.	The adult woman is fully capable, but the husband may be opposed to her carrying out activities outside the home.
HONDURAS	Family Code of 1984. Civil Code of 1906.	The adult woman is fully capable.
MEXICO	Civil Code of 1884.	The adult woman is fully capable.
NICARAGUA	Civil Code of 1904. Law that governs the relationship between Father, Mother and Children dated 1982. Political Constitution of 1987.	The adult woman is fully capable. If she is married, she cannot establish her domicile, but must accept her husband's.
PANAMA	Civil Code of 1917. A proposed Family Law is being discussed in Parliament.	The adult woman is fully capable.
PARAGUAY	Civil Code of 1987.	The adult woman is fully capable.
PERU	Civil Code of 1984.	The adult woman is fully capable.
R. DOMINICANA	Civil Code reformed in 1978.	The adult woman is fully capable. There are limitations with regard to the establishment of a domicile and the administration of the conjugal partnership and the children's property.
URUGUAY	Civil Code of 1868. Law of Women's Civil Rights dated 1946. Equal Opportunity and Treatment in Employment Law, dated 1989.	The adult woman is fully capable.
VENEZUELA	Civil Code modified in 1982. Law of Equal Opportunity for Women dated 1993.	The adult woman is fully capable. Nevertheless, in commercial transactions the wife does not pledge the property of the conjugal partnership, unless the husband gives his consent. The commercial transactions of the husband do pledge the property of the conjugal partnership, without the wife's consent.

COUNTRY	DUTIES OF THE SPOUSES	SURNAME OF THE MARRIED WOMAN
ARGENTINA	The spouses owe each other mutual fidelity, assistance, and maintenance.	The wife may choose whether or not to add her surname to her husband's, preceded by the preposition "de".
BOLIVIA	The spouses owe each other fidelity, assistance and mutual support.	The wife is authorized to add her name to her husband's surname. If she has a professional degree, she can only use her own surname.
BRAZIL	Husband and wife have the same duties.	The wife may add her surnames to her husband's.
CHILE	The spouses are obliged to trust, help and assist one another. Husband and wife owe one another mutual respect and protection.	There are no regulations on this subject.
COLOMBIA	Husband and wife owe each other, mutually, faith, assistance and help.	The wife has the choice of adding her surname to her husband's. If she does, it must be preceded by the preposition "de".
COSTA RICA	The spouses have similar mutual duties, but it is principally the husband who is obliged to defray the family's expenses.	...
CUBA	Husband and wife have the same conjugal duties.	...
ECUADOR	Husband and wife have the same duties.	According to the provisions of the Civil Code, the married woman must use her husband's surname preceded by the preposition "de". The Law of the Registry Office does not make this obligatory. It should be understood that this law prevails over the Civil Code, considering the legal principle that special provisions or laws prevail over general laws.
EL SALVADOR	Husband and wife owe each other mutual fidelity, assistance and respect.	The married woman may add her first surname to her husband's, either preceded by the proposition "de" or not.
GUATEMALA	Husband and wife have the same duties.	The woman has the right to add her own surname to her husband's, preceded by the preposition "de".
HONDURAS	Husband and wife must live together, be loyal to one other, show mutual consideration and respect and help one other.	...
MEXICO	Husband and wife have the same duties.	...
NICARAGUA	Husband and wife have the same duties.	...
PANAMA	Husband and wife are obliged to live together and to be faithful to one other. They owe one other mutual respect and protection.	The wife has the right to add her own surname to her husband's, preceded by the proposition "de".
PARAGUAY	Husband and wife have the same duties.	The married woman may use her husband's surname after her own. The husband also has the right to add his wife's surname to his.
PERU	Husband and wife have the same duties.	The wife has the right to add her surname to her husband's.
R. DOMINICANA	The spouses owe one other mutual fidelity, help and assistance.	...
URUGUAY	According to the Civil Code, the husband owes the wife protection and the wife owes her husband obedience. It must be understood that this provision has been repealed by the Law of Civil Rights for Women; therefore, the duty of protection is mutual, and neither spouse owes obedience to the other.	...
VENEZUELA	Husband and wife have the same duties.	The wife is authorized to use her husband's surname.

COUNTRY	DOMICILE	FILIATION	PARENTAL AUTHORITY
ARGENTINA	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	The matrimonial relationship and the extramarital relationship have the same effect.	The father and mother are jointly responsible.
BOLIVIA	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	All children, regardless of their origin, have equal rights and duties to their mother or father.	The father and mother are jointly responsible.
BRAZIL	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	...	The father and mother are responsible. If they should differ, the father's opinion shall prevail.
CHILE	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	The law makes a distinction between legitimate and illegitimate children. The latter may be "natural" (born out of lawful wedlock of persons who were free to marry) or simply illegitimate. Natural children have fewer rights than legitimate children and more than illegitimate ones.	The father is responsible and only in his absence, the mother.
COLOMBIA	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	Children born of the marriage or out of wedlock have equal rights and duties.	Both parents are jointly responsible.
COSTA RICA	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	Parents have the same obligations to their children, whether they are born in the marriage or out of it.	Both parents are jointly responsible. In case of conflict, the courts of law will decide.
CUBA	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	All children have equal rights, whether they are born in the marriage or out of it.	The parents are jointly responsible.
ECUADOR	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	There is no distinction or discrimination between children born in lawful wedlock or out of it.	Both parents are jointly responsible.
EL SALVADOR	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	All children have the same rights, whether born within lawful wedlock or out of it.	Both parents are jointly responsible.
GUATEMALA	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	...	Both parents are jointly responsible, but the legal representation of a minor is exercised only by the father.
HONDURAS	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	All children are equal in the eyes of the law.	Both parents are jointly responsible. In case of conflict, the courts of law will decide.
MEXICO	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	...	Both parents are jointly responsible.
NICARAGUA	The wife must accept her husband's domicile.	All children have equal rights. The use of discriminatory names in matters of relationship is forbidden.	Both parents are jointly responsible.
PANAMA	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement. If there is no specific statement on the subject, it is understood that the wife has adopted the husband's domicile.	All children are equal in the eyes of the law and have the same hereditary rights in an intestate succession. Parents have the same duties toward children born in lawful wedlock or out of it.	Both parents are jointly responsible.
PARAGUAY	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	Children born out of wedlock have less hereditary rights than those born of married parents.	Both parents are jointly responsible.
PERU	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	...	Both parents are jointly responsible. In case of conflict, the courts of law will decide.
R. DOMINICANA	The married woman's domicile is the same as her husband's.	...	Both parents are jointly responsible.
URUGUAY	...	Parents have the same duties towards children born outside of lawful wedlock or in it.	Both parents are jointly responsible.
VENEZUELA	The spouses establish the family domicile by mutual agreement.	Once the relationship of the child born outside lawful wedlock has been proved, the child acquires the same condition as the other children with regard to the mother, the father and their blood-relations.	Both parents are jointly responsible. This ruling subsists after the marriage is dissolved.

COUNTRY	RULES GOVERNING MARITAL PROPERTY	FAMILY PROPERTY	RECOGNITION OF CONSENSUAL UNIONS	DIVORCE (DIVORCE A VINCULO MATRIMONII)
ARGENTINA	Conjugal partnership administered by the husband. Each spouse administers and disposes of her/his own property and of the property acquired during the marriage with her/his own work.	No.	Only for social security purposes.	Yes; with grounds.
BOLIVIA	Joint ownership of property acquired during the marriage, unless stipulated otherwise. The joint property is managed jointly by both spouses.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes; with grounds.
BRAZIL	Conjugal partnership managed by the husband, who also manages the wife's personal property.	Yes.	Yes.	...
CHILE	Conjugal partnership managed by the husband who also manages the wife's personal property. They may decide on the system of participation in the property acquired during the marriage in which case each of the spouses manages, enjoys and freely disposes of what is his/her.	Yes.	No.	No.
COLOMBIA	System of participation in the property acquired during the marriage. Each spouse manages his own property.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes; by mutual agreement and with grounds.
COSTA RICA	System of participation in the property acquired during the marriage. Each spouse manages his own property.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes, by mutual agreement and with grounds.
CUBA	Conjugal partnership managed by both spouses, equally.	...	Yes.	Yes; by mutual agreement.
ECUADOR	Conjugal partnership managed by mutual agreement between the husband and wife.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes; with grounds.
EL SALVADOR	In the absence of prenuptial agreements or settlements, each spouse preserves the exclusive ownership and free management of his property.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes; by mutual agreement and with grounds.
GUATEMALA	Conjugal partnership managed by the husband, unless stipulated otherwise.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes; with grounds.
HONDURAS	Each spouse owns and may freely dispose of his own property.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes; by mutual agreement and with grounds.
MEXICO	Marital partnership managed jointly by husband and wife.	Yes; with grounds.
NICARAGUA	Each spouse owns and may freely dispose of her/his own property.	No.	Yes.	Yes; by mutual agreement or by the will of one of the parties.
PANAMA	Each spouse owns and may freely dispose of her/his own property.	...	Yes.	Yes; by mutual agreement and with grounds.
PARAGUAY	Joint ownership of property acquired during the marriage. The joint property is managed jointly by the spouses. The system of deferred participation also exists.	Yes.	Yes.	...
PERU	Conjugal partnership managed jointly by husband and wife.	...	Yes.	Yes; with grounds.
R. DOMINICANA	Conjugal partnership managed by the husband who will also manage the wife's personal property.	Yes; by mutual agreement and with grounds.
URUGUAY	Joint ownership of property acquired during the marriage. Each spouse manages her/his own property.	Yes; by mutual agreement, the will of the wife, and with grounds.
VENEZUELA	Conjugal partnership managed jointly by both spouses.	...	Yes.	Yes; with grounds.



PENAL LAW

Although one can see a positive evolution in both constitutional and family law with regard to women's status, in the field of penal law there are still numerous provisions that are detrimental to women and, in most cases, inappropriate classification of crimes according to the legal property protected by the penalty.

With the exception of the Penal Codes of Cuba and Nicaragua, all the others consider the honor, honesty and good name of the woman to characterize certain crimes and determine their punishment. Therefore, lighter punishment is applied in the case of crimes of infanticide and abortion honoris causa, if the mother committed the crime to hide her dishonor. One of the requirements in the legal definition of statutory rape is that the victim must be honest or a female virgin. In specific legislation, rape is punished less severely if the victim is not honest and, with more reason, if she is a prostitute. It is not surprising, therefore, that no Code considers and punishes the rape of a woman by her husband.

Legislation that has not removed the penal sanction for adultery, generally characterizes it differently for a man and a woman. A woman commits the crime when she has sexual intercourse with a man who is not her husband. A man, on the other hand, only commits it when he has sexual intercourse with a mistress or concubine. Some Codes add that he

must do so, also, in the marital home or in a scandalous manner. As the duty of fidelity is identical for both spouses, it is hard to understand why -if it not as a result of prejudice- in the case of an infraction, treatment is stricter for a woman.

A detail which attracts one's attention in most of the Penal Codes is that the legal procedure comes to an end or the charges are dropped, if the offender marries the offended party in crimes that have a sexual connotation: rape, statutory rape, abduction. Apparently, by marrying the criminal the woman recuperates what he took from her: her honor.

There is also another interesting detail with regard to crimes that have a sexual connotation; with the exception of three countries, in the others penal action to pursue punishment of the guilty person is private or requires prior accusation by the victim or legal representatives of the latter (mixed action). No public action is taken to investigate and punish such serious crimes as rape, whose consequences extend way beyond the personal pain of the victim. This limitation of the exercise of public penal action is a result of the stereotyped protection of the victim's honor: the rapist may continue committing crimes with impunity, if the victim should decide not to denounce the events to the courts of law.

The Penal Codes of two countries justify the husband who kills his wife

and the person who is having sexual intercourse with her, if they are caught in the act. Justice by one's own hand is a practice condemned unanimously by contemporary penal doctrine, and in positive legislation it is an anachronism that has no other justification than the inertia of cultural standards related to sexual morals.

The violence that a woman suffers at the hands of her husband, something that is lamentably common, is not characterized as a specific crime, except in Peru; it is considered equal to injuries, which are hard to prove, and the sanctions are light. In Chile the acts of intrafamily violence are qualified as faults and their hearing and judgment are handed over to the civil courts.

Sexual harassment, something that is increasing every day, it not characterized as a crime either. In one country, a government employee who solicits a woman who has made a request that depends on his decision, is punished with temporary suspension. In another, whoever subjects a person to harassment or blackmail for sexual purposes is punished. These provisions, besides being exceptional in Latin American legislation, are far from constituting a safeguard for women in dealing with the harassment they receive from men in situations of power or authority.

With regard to the juridical rights that should be protected by means of penal coercion, the Codes tend to

protect abstract principles or values rather than the rights of specific persons. In some countries, rape is considered a crime against the moral conventions of society; in another it is considered a crime against public morality and family order. Only in a

few cases does the legislation classify rape as an assault on people's sexual freedom.

The above and the specifications of each body of laws -which cannot be reported in this study- point to the

urgent need to modernize Latin American penal laws, purging them of their stereotypes, introducing new legal definitions, and classifying the crimes according to the juridical rights that are actually and specifically protected.

COUNTRY	EFFECTIVE DATE OF THE PENAL CODE	PENALIZATION OF ABORTION
ARGENTINA	1923	Yes, except to avoid danger to the mother's life or health, and when the pregnancy is the result of the rape of an insane woman.
BOLIVIA	1973	Yes, unless it is therapeutic or if the pregnancy is the result of rape, abduction not followed by marriage, statutory rape or incest.
BRAZIL	1940	Yes, unless it is therapeutic or if the pregnancy is the result of rape or statutory rape.
CHILE	1874	Yes.
COLOMBIA	1980	Yes.
COSTA RICA	1971	Yes, unless it is therapeutic.
CUBA	1987	No, except for abortion performed outside official health centers.
ECUADOR	1971	Yes, unless it is therapeutic or if the pregnancy is the result of rape or statutory rape of an insane woman.
EL SALVADOR	1973	Yes, unless it is therapeutic or if the pregnancy is the result of rape or statutory rape. Abortion performed by a doctor is also excused, if carried out to avoid a serious foreseeable deformity in the product of the conception.
GUATEMALA	1975	Yes, unless it is therapeutic.
HONDURAS	1984	Yes.
MEXICO	1931	Yes, unless it is therapeutic. In some States abortion is permitted for eugenic reasons.
NICARAGUA	1974	Yes, unless it is therapeutic.
PANAMA	1983	Yes, unless it is therapeutic or if the pregnancy is the result of a legally proven rape.
PARAGUAY	1914	Yes, unless it is therapeutic.
PERU	1991	Yes, unless it is therapeutic.
R. DOMINICANA	1926	Yes.
URUGUAY	1934	---
VENEZUELA	1926	Yes, unless it is therapeutic.

COUNTRY	WOMEN'S HONOR AS AN ELEMENT IN PENAL DESCRIPTION
ARGENTINA	Infanticide honoris causa: lighter punishment is applied to the mother who, to cover up her dishonor, kills the child during birth or under the influence of the puerperal state. Statutory rape: sexual intercourse is punished when victim is a chaste woman over twelve and under fifteen years of age.
BOLIVIA	Abortion honoris causa: the penalty is reduced for an abortion with a woman's consent when the issue at hand is saving her honor.
BRAZIL	Sexual possession and indecent exposure by fraud; violent abduction or abduction by fraud; the victim can only be a chaste woman.
CHILE	Abortion honoris causa: punishment is reduced if the abortion is carried out to cover up a woman's dishonor. Abduction: punishment is more severe in the case of abduction of a woman with a good reputation. Statutory rape: sexual intercourse is punished if it takes place with a female virgin over 12 and under 20 years of age.
COLOMBIA	Rape: the author's penalty is reduced because of lack of chastity of the woman who was the victim.
COSTA RICA	Abortion honoris causa: the penalty is lightened if the abortion is committed to cover up the woman's dishonor. Homicide honoris causa: the punishment is reduced in the case of a mother with a good reputation who, to cover up her dishonor, kills her child within three days of its birth. Desertion of minors honoris causa: the mother is punished if she abandons a newborn child, not more than three days old, to cover up her dishonor. Statutory rape: sexual intercourse with a chaste woman older than twelve and younger than fifteen years of age. Statutory abduction: the abduction of a chaste woman over twelve and under fifteen years of age for libidinous purposes is punished.
CUBA	A woman's honor is not considered when characterizing the crimes or determining their penalty.
ECUADOR	Abortion honoris causa: punishment is reduced if it is performed by the woman, or if she permits another to practice it to cover up her dishonor. Infanticide honoris causa: punishment is reduced for a mother or her parents who kill a newborn child to cover up a woman's dishonor. Statutory rape: the male is punished when he has sexual intercourse with a female virgin older than 12 and under 18 years of age.
EL SALVADOR	Abortion honoris causa: punishment is reduced for a woman who aborts to preserve her reputation. Rape: punishment is lighter in the case of a person who rapes a prostitute. Sexual intercourse by seduction: this is punished if a woman is a female virgin, older than 15 and younger than eighteen years of age, and if there is a promise of marriage. Statutory abduction: punishment is meted out to whoever abducts a female virgin over twelve and under sixteen years of age for sexual-erotic purposes.
GUATEMALA	Statutory rape resulting from inexperience or trust: punishment is meted out to whoever has sexual intercourse with a female virgin over twelve and under 14 years of age by taking advantage of her inexperience or gaining her trust. Statutory rape by deceit: punishment is meted out to whoever entices a female virgin who is a minor into having sexual intercourse or deceives her by offering false matrimony.
HONDURAS	Infanticide honoris causa: punishment is reduced for a woman who kills her child within three days following its birth to cover up her dishonor. Abortion honoris causa: punishment is reduced for a mother who, in order to cover up her dishonor, kills a child within three days following its birth.
MEXICO	Abortion honoris causa: punishment is reduced if a woman has a good reputation, if she has hidden the pregnancy, and if the pregnancy is the result of an illegitimate union. Infanticide honoris causa: punishment is reduced if a mother kills her child within seventy-two hours of its birth, provided she does not have a bad reputation, has hidden the pregnancy and birth of the child, and the child is illegitimate.
NICARAGUA	Considers the mother's honor to characterize crimes and determine their punishment.
PANAMA	Statutory rape: punishment is meted out to the person who has sexual intercourse with a female virgin over twelve and under sixteen years of age.
PARAGUAY	Infanticide honoris causa: punishment is reduced for a mother who kills an illegitimate child within three days of its birth to cover up her dishonor. Abortion honoris causa: the death of the product of conception has a lighter punishment if the mother acts to save her honor. Desertion of minors honoris causa: punishment is reduced if the crime is committed to preserve the honor of a wife, mother, daughter or sister, depending on who commits the crime. Rape: the rape of a woman who is married, chaste or has a good reputation is punished more severely than the rape of an unmarried woman who has had sexual relations without being a prostitute. Sexual enjoyment through simulation or scheming: the sexual enjoyment of a female virgin by simulating matrimony or by fraudulent scheming. Abduction: punishment is reduced if the victim is under 12 years of age; if the victim is under fifteen or married; if she is unmarried, an honest widow and has a good reputation.
PERU	---
R. DOMINICANA	Injuries: the crime of castration is excusable when it is the immediate result of the violent rape of a chaste person. Pregnancy in a minor: punishment will be meted out to the individual who, without exercising violence, gets a minor pregnant who was considered chaste until then.
URUGUAY	Abduction: the taking, for sexual purposes, of a widow or divorced woman, is punished only when one or the other is honest. Statutory abduction: abduction with a woman's consent is punished, provided she is unmarried, chaste and over 15 and under eighteen years of age.
VENEZUELA	Abortion honoris causa: punishment is reduced if the author has practiced the abortion to save his own honor or his wife's honor or that of another woman of his family.

COUNTRY	VICTIM OF RAPE	ADULTERY
ARGENTINA	Man or woman.	It is committed by a married woman who has sexual intercourse with a man who is not her husband and a married man who has sexual intercourse with a mistress or concubine.
BOLIVIA	Only the woman.	It is not a crime, but it has consequences covered by civil law.
BRAZIL
CHILE	Only the woman. The rape of a man by another man is typified as sodomy.	It is not a crime, but it has consequences covered by civil law.
COLOMBIA	Man or woman.	It is not a crime, but it has consequences covered by civil law.
COSTA RICA	Man or woman.	...
CUBA	Only the woman. The rape of a man by another man is typified as pederasty with violence.	It is not a crime.
ECUADOR	Man or woman.	It is committed by a married woman who has sexual intercourse with a man who is not her husband and a married man who has sexual intercourse with a mistress or concubine.
EL SALVADOR	Man or woman. Rape of the former is called improper rape. Non-vaginal rape of a woman is referred to the same way.	It is committed by a woman who has sexual intercourse with a man who is not her husband and a man who has sexual intercourse with another woman with contempt for his wife or for the moral conventions of society or with nonfulfillment of his obligations of family support.
GUATEMALA	Only the woman.	It is committed by a married woman who has sexual intercourse with a man who is not her husband and a married man who has sexual intercourse with a concubine in the matrimonial home.
HONDURAS	Man or woman.	...
MEXICO	Man or woman.	It is committed by either one of the spouses who has sexual intercourse with another person at the matrimonial home or in a scandalous manner.
NICARAGUA	Man or woman.	It is committed by a married woman who has sexual intercourse with a man who is not her husband and whoever has sexual intercourse with her knowing that she is married.
PANAMA	Man or woman.	It is not a crime.
PARAGUAY	Men under 16 years of age and women of any age.	It is not a crime.
PERU	Man or woman.	It is not a crime.
R. DOMINICANA	Man or woman.	The conduct that is punished is the same for a man as for a woman: having sexual intercourse with a person that is not one's spouse.
URUGUAY	Man or woman.	...
VENEZUELA	...	It is committed by a married woman who has sexual intercourse with a man who is not her husband and a married man who has sexual intercourse with a concubine in the matrimonial home or outside of it, if the fact is notorious.

COUNTRY	EXEMPTION FROM PUNISHMENT IN CRIMES WITH A SEXUAL CONNOTATION	ACTION TO FILE A CRIMINAL COMPLAINT IN THE CRIME OF RAPE
ARGENTINA	For the crimes of rape, statutory rape, abduction and sexual abuse (except sexual intercourse), if the author marries the victim, he will be exempt from punishment.	Private penal action (victim or legal representatives).
BOLIVIA
BRAZIL	For the crimes of rape, statutory rape and abduction, the author who marries the victim will be exempt from punishment.	Private penal action. Public penal action will only be permitted if the victim is poor or if her aggressor is her father, stepfather, tutor or legal guardian.
CHILE	For the crimes of abduction, rape and statutory rape, the author who marries the victim will be exempt from punishment.	Semi-private or mixed penal action; the prior filing of a formal complaint by the victim or her legal representatives is required.
COLOMBIA
COSTA RICA	In the offenses of kidnapping, statutory rape and sexual abuse (excepting sexual intercourse) the author who declares that he has the intention of marrying the victim may receive judicial pardon provided the <i>Patronato Nacional de la Infancia</i> gives its consent.	Private penal action, unless the victim is under 15 years of age, in which case there will be public action.
CUBA	There is no exemption from punishment because the author of the crime marries the victim.	Semi-private or mixed penal action; the prior filing of a formal complaint by the victim or her legal representatives is required.
ECUADOR	For the crimes of statutory rape and abduction, the author who marries the victim will be exempt from punishment.	Public penal action.
EL SALVADOR	The exemption from punishment as a result of the marriage of the author with the victim is not considered.	Private penal action.
GUATEMALA	For the crimes of rape, statutory rape, sexual abuse and abduction, the author who marries the victim will be exempt from punishment.	Private penal action.
HONDURAS	For the crimes of rape, statutory rape and abduction, the author that marries the victim will be exempt from punishment.	...
MEXICO	There is no exemption from punishment should the author marry the victim.	Public penal action.
NICARAGUA	For the crimes of statutory rape and abduction, the author who marries the victim is exempt from punishment.	Private penal action, unless the victim is under sixteen years of age, in which case the proceedings will be handled by the Office of the Attorney General of the Republic.
PANAMA	For the crimes of statutory rape and abduction, the author who marries the victim is exempt from punishment.	...
PARAGUAY	For the crimes of rape, statutory rape, abduction and corruption of minors, the author who marries the victim is exempt from punishment.	Private penal action.
PERU	For the crimes of rape, statutory rape and abduction, the author who marries the victim is exempt from punishment.	...
R. DOMINICANA	For the crimes of abduction and seduction, the author who marries the victim is exempt from punishment.	...
URUGUAY	...	Private penal action, unless the victim is under fifteen years of age, in which case there is public action.
VENEZUELA	For the crimes of rape, statutory rape and abduction, the author who marries the victim is exempt from punishment.	Private penal action.



Labor or employment law, in Latin America as well as the rest of the world, has a particular momentum that distinguishes it from other codes of law. It is in permanent evolution, not only through reform of its respective Codes, but also through a great many administrative rulings. The result of this is constant improvement of labor laws and greater protection of the worker, who has recently been threatened by the "flexibilization" of labor laws required by neoliberal policies. In any case, the protection benefits only workers who have a work contract, and people who work in the informal area of the economy, most of whom are women, are excluded.

Concern for the workers' conditions (due largely to the activities of their labor unions) means that all the Constitutions on which we have information, guarantee one aspect or another of work as a person's right. But only two of them refer specifically to equal rights for men and women (Honduras and Peru).

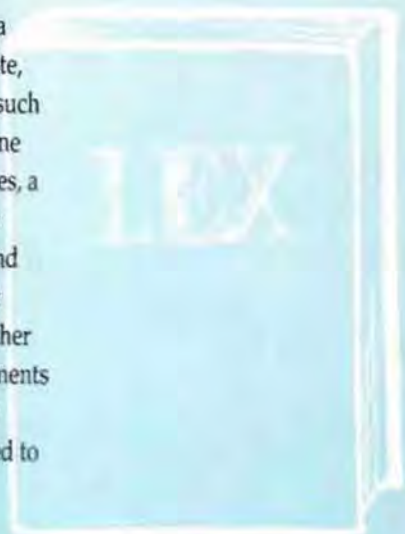
Furthermore, labor laws in nearly all of the countries in Latin America establish the principle that equal work means equal pay, without distinction of sex. In reality, on the level of principles labor legislation does not merit many objections, although there is a latent danger of "flexibilization". Specific regulations, however, tend to depart from the principles.

The existence of provisions that forbid women to do certain kinds of work certainly departs from the principle embodied in the constitution of equal rights for men and woman, as well as the guarantee of freedom to work. On this matter, the laws usually discuss the work of minors and women in the same chapter, supposing that women lack sufficient discernment to judge which work they can perform and which they can not. This supposition of minority is completely baseless. Only four countries have abolished the practice of forbidding work to women; in none of them is it known whether women have taken on dangerous work or work that demands a great show of physical strength. The abovementioned dynamism of the labor laws is not free of the stumbling blocks represented by stereotypes and sexual prejudices.

The legislation in the region, in a manner that is generally adequate, protects the working mother as such more than in her abstract feminine condition. Thus, in most countries, a woman cannot be fired from her work because she is pregnant, and she is given a paid period of rest before and after childbirth. Another common ruling is that establishments that employ a certain number of workers (over twenty) are obliged to establish day care centers.

Perhaps the greatest weakness in the labor laws of Latin America, which amounts to a scandalous situation in

many cases, is the treatment given to people in domestic service. Those who work in this field -mostly women- are deprived of the essential rights that are recognized for other workers: minimum wages, reasonable limitation of working hours, holidays, job security (except for specified causes), etc. Nothing justifies this odious discrimination or the lack of initiative to propose laws to end it.



COUNTRY	CONSTITUTIONAL GUARANTEES	FORBIDDEN WORK
ARGENTINA	Work has the full protection of the law, which will ensure that the worker has working conditions that are decent and fair.	The employment of women in work that is arduous, dangerous or unhealthy is forbidden.
BOLIVIA	Work is a right and constitutes the basis of social and economic order.	Women are not allowed to work at night and in trades that are heavy, dangerous, unhealthy or in conflict with morality and moral conventions.
BRAZIL	The protection of all workers is stipulated, without distinctions of any kind.	Women are not allowed to work at something that demands the use of muscular strength above twenty kilos for continuous work or 25 kilos for temporary work.
CHILE	The Constitution guarantees all people the freedom to work and its protection.	There is no work that is forbidden to women as the result of a legal reform dated 1993.
COLOMBIA	All people have the right to work under conditions that are fair and reliable.	Women cannot work on the night shift in factories. Neither can they work below ground in mines nor execute work that is dangerous, unhealthy or that requires a great deal of effort. The prohibitions are extended to minors.
COSTA RICA	The State guarantees freedom of choice as regards a job.	Women are not allowed to work at night, to do work that is unhealthy, heavy or physically or morally dangerous.
CUBA	The State guarantees that every man or woman who is able to work will have an opportunity to obtain employment.	There is no work that is forbidden to women, but work that requires considerable physical effort or implies risks is not recommended.
ECUADOR	Work is a right and a social duty. It has the protection of the State, which guarantees the worker full respect for his dignity, a decent existence and fair payment.	Women cannot work at distilling alcohol or manufacturing liquor. Neither can they work in the manufacture of toxic coloring materials or where there is danger to their physical development, such as the handling of circular saws or loading and unloading ships.
EL SALVADOR	Work is a function in society and has the protection of the State.	Women are not allowed to execute work considered dangerous or unhealthy.
GUATEMALA	...	Night work is forbidden to women, as well as work considered unhealthy or dangerous by the authorities.
HONDURAS	...	Women under twenty-one years of age are not allowed to work on the drafting, distributing or sale of printed matter that is immoral or contrary to moral conventions.
MEXICO	All people have the right to choose the work that is best for them.	There is no work that is forbidden to women.
NICARAGUA	Work is a right. The State must achieve the full and productive employment of all Nicaraguans.	Women are not allowed to work in mines or below ground and at tasks qualified as beyond their strength or dangerous for the physical or moral conditions of their sex.
PANAMA	Work is a right of the individual.	Women are not allowed to work below ground, in mines, in the subsoil, in quarries and in manual construction work. Neither are they allowed to execute tasks that are unhealthy.
PARAGUAY	Women's working conditions will be regulated to preserve the rights of motherhood.	Women cannot work at night.
PERU	Men and women have the right to equal pay for equal work.	Women are not allowed to work at night.
R. DOMINICANA	The Constitution guarantees freedom to work.	Women are not allowed to be on the night shift in factories, to work at commercial establishments after 22 hours and to execute dangerous or unhealthy work.
URUGUAY	All people are free to devote themselves to the lawful work or activity they choose.	Women are not allowed to work at night in bakeries or pasta factories.
VENEZUELA	—	There is no work that is forbidden to women.

COUNTRY	EQUAL WAGES	DOMESTIC SERVICE
ARGENTINA	Differences in wages cannot be established between women's and men's labor for work of equal value.	The workday for household workers lasts twelve hours, and they have no right to charge overtime for anything in excess of that. In the event of illness, if the servant does not recover within thirty days or if she should fall sick again, the employer can consider the contract concluded without compensation.
BOLIVIA	Differences in salary because of sex are forbidden.	The workday for household workers can last for up to sixteen hours.
BRAZIL	All work that has the same value receives the same salary, without distinction as to sex.	Those who work in domestic service are excluded from several rights recognized for other workers: maximum duration of the workday, protection against unjustified dismissal, unemployment insurance, compensation for years of service and the like.
CHILE	There are no specific provisions in this respect.	Household workers may work up to fourteen hours a day, they do not have the right to payment for overtime, they can be dismissed without being informed of the reason, they cannot join a union, during pregnancy they must continue to do heavy work, and their minimum salary is lower than that of other workers.
COLOMBIA	Men and women receive the same salaries for the same work.	Household workers are excluded from various rights which are recognized for other workers: maximum working day, occupational accidents and work-related diseases, unemployment benefits, job security.
COSTA RICA	Equal work, equal pay under identical conditions of efficiency.	Household workers have fewer rights than most workers in matters related to wages, duration of the workday, vacations and job security.
CUBA	People receive equal pay for equal work.	...
ECUADOR	Equal work, equal pay, without distinctions as to sex.	Household workers have a low minimum salary, can work at night, have the right to one day of rest for every two weeks of work, and the employer may terminate the contract at any time.
EL SALVADOR	Equal pay must be received for work under identical conditions, without distinction as to sex.	Household workers can work up to twelve hours per day. If their employer should request it, they can work on their days off, in which case they have the right to extra pay.
GUATEMALA	Equal work, equal pay.	...
HONDURAS	Men and women workers receive the same pay.	Household workers have a workday of fourteen hours, and provisions regarding days off and holidays do not apply. They can be dismissed without being informed of the reason, and have no right to compensation.
MEXICO	Women have the same rights as men.	Household workers have no limits to their workday. The food and drink that they are given is equivalent to 50% of the salary they are paid in cash. They can be dismissed at any time.
NICARAGUA	All workers receive equal pay for equal work.	...
PANAMA	Equal work under identical conditions means equal pay, without distinction as to sex.	...
PARAGUAY	Discrimination in pay because of sex is prohibited.	Household workers have no minimum wages, they must work on holidays, their workday may last up to fourteen hours, they can be dismissed without prior notice and without compensation for reasons that the employer himself determines (negligence, dishonesty or lack of morals, etc.).
PERU	Men and women have the right to equal pay for equal work.	Household workers have the right to vacations, compensation for years of service, and a minimum night's rest. They have minimum rights, however, if compared with blue and white-collar workers.
R. DOMINICANA	Equal work, equal pay.	The workday for household workers has not been specified, they do not have minimum wages or the majority of the benefits that other workers have a right to.
URUGUAY	There are no specific provisions in this respect.	...
VENEZUELA	The woman cannot be the subject of differences in regard to pay.	...

PROTECTION OF WOMEN DURING PERIOD OF MATERNITY

ARGENTINA

During pregnancy, women are guaranteed job security. It is inferred that the dismissal of a worker is due to maternity or pregnancy when it takes place within a seven and a half month period before or after the date of childbirth.

Female employees are not allowed to work 45 days before and after childbirth.

The working mother of an unweaned child is given two half-hour rest periods per day in which to breast-feed her child.

BOLIVIA

Dismissal for reasons of pregnancy or breast-feeding are forbidden. No women within the period of gestation and up to one year after the birth of a child can be dismissed except for a specific cause.

Female employees are not allowed to work 45 days before and after childbirth.

The working mother of an unweaned child has one hour per day in which to breast-feed her child.

Companies that employ fifty or more women must have day-care centers at the workplace.

BRAZIL

A worker cannot be fired because she is pregnant.

A worker has 120 days of maternity leave.

The working mother of an unweaned child has the right to two half-hour rest periods in which to breast-feed her child.

Companies that employ thirty or more women must have day-care centers at the workplace.

CHILE

During the pregnancy and up to a year after the expiration date of the maternity leave, a worker cannot be dismissed from her job.

Women workers have the right to a rest period of six weeks prior to childbirth and twelve weeks after it.

The mothers of unweaned children have one hour a day in which to breast-feed their children. This time can be divided into two periods of equal or different duration.

Establishments that employ twenty or more women workers must have day-care centers.

COLOMBIA

A pregnant woman cannot be fired until three months after childbirth.

A worker has twelve weeks of maternity leave. She has the right to assign one of those weeks to her husband or partner in a consensual union.

The working mother of an unweaned child has the right to two half-hour rest periods in which to breast-feed her child.

Industries with twenty or more workers must establish day-care centers.

COSTA RICA

A worker cannot be dismissed because she is pregnant or breast-feeding.

A worker has a maternity leave of one month before and three months after childbirth. She also has the right to take time off if she adopts a minor.

The working mother of an unweaned child has the right to fifteen minutes every three hours or half an hour twice a day in which to breast-feed her child.

CUBA

A pregnant woman cannot carry out activities that might affect her gynecological system, reproductive functions, or the development of her pregnancy.

A worker has the right to maternity leave six weeks before childbirth and twelve weeks after it.

Before prenatal leave, a woman has six days or twelve half days for medical checkups.

During the child's first year of life, the woman has one day of leave per month for medical checkups.

After 45 days and up to 6 years of age, the workers' children may be admitted to day-care centers and kindergartens.

ECUADOR

A woman worker cannot be dismissed because of her pregnancy or childbirth.

Women workers have the right to a rest period two weeks before and six weeks after childbirth.

When there are day-care centers, the mother has fifteen minutes every three hours to breast-feed her child. If there is no day care center, the workday is limited to six hours.

Establishments that employ more than fifty workers must establish day-care centers on the premises. Although the law does not make a distinction, the regulation refers to women workers.

EL SALVADOR

The dismissal of a woman worker from the time her pregnancy starts until the conclusion of the postnatal leave does not produce a termination of the contract.

A pregnant woman worker cannot be assigned to work that requires physical efforts that are not compatible with her condition.

Women workers have the right to a leave of six weeks before and six weeks after childbirth.

GUATEMALA

A woman worker cannot be dismissed just because she is pregnant.

Women workers have the right to a period of leave thirty days before and 45 days after childbirth.

While the woman worker is breast-feeding, she has two half-hour periods a day or fifteen minutes every three hours in which to breast-feed her child.

Employers who employ more than thirty women workers, must establish day-care centers on their premises.

PROTECTION OF WOMEN DURING PERIOD OF MATERNITY

HONDURAS

A woman worker cannot be dismissed during pregnancy and during the three months following childbirth.

Women workers have the right to a period of leave of four weeks before and six weeks after childbirth.

The employer must give the mother of an unweaned child two half-hour periods per day in which to feed her child.

Establishments that employ twenty or more women workers must have a day-care center.

MEXICO

Women workers have the right to a rest period of six weeks before and after childbirth.

During the time she is breast-feeding, the mother has the right to two rest periods per day in which to feed her child.

Establishments that employ more than fifty women must set up day-care centers.

NICARAGUA

A woman worker cannot be dismissed during her pregnancy and during the period of postnatal leave.

A woman worker has the right to a rest period of four weeks before and eight weeks after childbirth.

A woman who is breast-feeding her child has the right to two half-hour rest periods per day to allow her to breast-feed.

Establishments that employ thirty or more women must have premises where the mothers may breast-feed their children.

PANAMA

A woman worker cannot be dismissed because of her pregnancy.

A woman worker has the right to a rest period of six weeks before and eight weeks after childbirth.

PARAGUAY

An employer cannot advise a woman worker of her dismissal during pregnancy or after childbirth.

A woman worker has the right to a rest period of six weeks before and after childbirth.

A woman who is breast-feeding her child has the right to two half-hour rest periods every day.

Establishments that employ more than fifty women must have day-care centers.

PERU

A woman worker has the right to a period of leave forty-five days before and after childbirth.

Companies where more than 25 women workers over eighteen years of age are employed must have day-care centers.

R. DOMINICANA

A woman worker cannot be dismissed during pregnancy or postnatal leave.

A woman worker has the right to a period of leave before and after childbirth of no less than 12 weeks in total.

A woman worker has the right to three twenty-five minute rest periods per day in which to breast-feed her child.

Establishments that employ more than thirty women workers must have day-care centers.

URUGUAY

Women workers cannot be dismissed during pregnancy or until their postnatal leave has expired.

A woman worker has the right to six weeks of leave before and after childbirth.

Women workers in the private sector have the right to two thirty minute rest periods per day in which to breast-feed their children.

Women workers in the public sector have the right to reduce their normal workday by half during the time they are breast-feeding.

VENEZUELA

A woman worker can not be dismissed during pregnancy and up to one year after childbirth.

A woman worker has the right to a period of leave six weeks before and after childbirth.

Women have the right to two half-hour rest periods per day in which to breast-feed their children, if there is a day-care center. If there is not, the period of leave is doubled.

An employer who employs more than twenty women workers must have a day-care center or finance access to one for his employees.



At the Conference on Population held by the United Nations in Bucharest in 1974, reproductive rights were defined as the combination of “basic rights of couples to decide, freely and responsibly, about the number and spacing of their children and to have the information, education and means to do so”. Birth control, sterilization and abortion are the specific and particular means to exercise those rights, understood in a restricted manner.

A broad concept includes, besides the above, the right to exercise sexuality without risk of contagion of sexually transmitted diseases, to receive adequate gynecological care during pregnancy, childbirth and after the birth, as well as the right to have access to the prevention and treatment of infertility.

In 1994, the International Conference on Population and Development, held in Cairo, Egypt, approved an Action Program which represented an important step forward on this subject. The Program dedicated a special chapter to “reproductive rights and reproductive health”, which recognizes them as guidelines for population policies and recommends a series of measures that should be adopted by governments so the policies may be fully effective.

It was made clear at the Conference that the international community will not encourage abortion as a method

of family planning, but it was accepted as a public health problem, as was the need to study it and undertake actions to prevent it. Some countries, including Argentina, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru and the Dominican Republic had reservations about defining reproductive rights, insofar as they might include the legalization of abortion.

The United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA) is the agency that is responsible for seeing that the Action Program is fulfilled by the States that approved it.

In spite of the concern shown at the Conferences referred to above, this new field of law is barely starting to take its first steps as such. There has been a significant delay in taking action in almost all of the countries to control fertility, treat infertility, protect the health of pregnant women, and combat sexually transmitted diseases.

Latin American legislation is concerned mainly with aspects related to birth control, but usually at the level of a policy statement in Political Constitutions. There is no country that has a Code of Reproductive Rights, nor specific laws on the different matters included in those rights. In most cases birth control, for example, is regulated through administrative or technical provisions issued by the

health authorities. The prevention of sexually transmitted diseases is regulated separately. The same thing occurs with the care of pregnant women and, in general, with women’s health.

Regardless of the letter of the law, it is a fact that in all of the countries, officially or unofficially, activities are carried out to control fertility, and activities take place that fall within the area of reproductive rights. But there is no global and systematic treatment, no body of laws that reflects the policy of the States and permits coherent action that is complementary to public and private health services.



SITUATION BY COUNTRY

ARGENTINA

The law guarantees every person the right to decide how many children she wishes to have and at what time in her life.

There are no regulations about the use of birth control methods, but some municipalities provide family planning services.

BOLIVIA

There is no legislation on this subject.

BRAZIL

The Constitution establishes that family planning is a decision made freely by the couple.

Since 1980, the Ministry of Health has an Overall Health Aid Program for Women which includes methods and techniques for family planning.

The sale of birth control pills and devices is free.

The sterilization of a woman is permitted under doctor's orders with her agreement.

CHILE

Although there are no laws on reproductive rights, the State has provided birth control services, by means of agreements with private institutions, and directly since 1995. Female sterilization is permitted for strictly medical reasons with the prior authorization of the husband or partner in a consensual union.

COLOMBIA

The Constitution establishes the right of a couple to decide, freely and responsibly, about the number of children. This right has not been developed by the law.

COSTA RICA

The General Health Law establishes that state services are obliged to provide information about family planning methods.

The sterilization of a woman is permitted under doctor's orders with her agreement. If she is married, her husband's authorization is also required.

CUBA

There is no law on family planning, but there are organic measures for application of the principle of freedom about the decision to conceive.

The family planning program offers different types of birth control methods, including male and female sterilization. The program also includes abortion carried out at official health institutions.

ECUADOR

The Constitution guarantees the parents' right to have the number of children that they can feed and educate. This right has not been developed in the ordinary law. There are technical guidelines from the Ministry of Health for regulating fertility. They establish that birth control services are available for all couples that decide freely to use them.

EL SALVADOR

...

GUATEMALA

There is no legislation on reproductive rights, only instructions and circulars sent out by the health authorities on birth control methods.

HONDURAS

The State, in agreement with international organizations, provides birth control information and methods. Voluntary surgical sterilization is regulated by law.

MEXICO

The Constitution guarantees all persons the right to freely and responsibly choose the number and spacing of their children.

Family planning is regulated by the General Population Law of 1974, which accepts birth control methods that are not harmful to the health and are not forbidden. The use of irreversible methods requires the written consent of the person involved.

NICARAGUA

There are no rulings on reproductive rights. Nevertheless, state health programs include supplying birth control methods and the practice of sterilization. The husband's authorization is required to sterilize the wife.

PANAMA

There is no legislation on reproductive rights. Nevertheless, the Ministry of Health and the Social Security Fund have developed a program for mothers which includes family planning activities.

PARAGUAY

In spite of the lack of regulations, the Ministry of Health provides birth control information and methods to space pregnancies out and avoid unwanted pregnancies. In the private sector, the Paraguayan Center for Population Studies has approximately thirty clinics where information and birth control methods are handed out.

PERU

The subject of reproductive rights has been addressed by the Population Policy Documents of 1976, the National Population Policy Law of 1985, and the law that permitted voluntary sterilization in 1988. Family planning programs do not include abortion.

R. DOMINICANA

...

URUGUAY

...

VENEZUELA

By ministerial resolution of 1976, the activities of education, information and clinics on family planning became obligatory.

Sterilization is only allowed for therapeutic reasons in the case of serious illness, when there is no alternative for the health of the woman and when both spouses are in agreement.

SOCIOPOLITICAL PARTICIPATION AND ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN



Latin America exhibits a broad range of experiences in the field of women's social and political participation and in actions taken to improve their position in society.

Although the history that is taught in all our countries systematically silences the collective action of women, in the last few decades important studies have been made that reclaim women's leading role and their contribution. Seeking for a historically consolidated identity, some female researchers have published interesting monographs that place women in the sociopolitical scenarios of independence, in the late nineteenth century, and the early twentieth century. The precursors of current feminism and labor unionism appear at that time; the great fighters for women's political and civil rights emerge, struggling against the high cost of living, and in favor of peace.

Each country lived through the processes of incorporating women into the spheres of political and social power in its own way. There were similarities among some of them that were more closely connected because of their geography or similar sociopolitical and economic processes. Brazil, Peru and the Southern Cone countries, along with Mexico, showed an early awakening by women to organized action in groups or associations at the end of the last century. Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Panama and Venezuela joined them

in the early decades of this century. Finally, around 1950 women's organizations came into being in the other Central American countries. At the time of the International Women's Year (1975) the region was experiencing growing female effervescence, even though the participation of this half of the population in the power spheres was markedly insufficient.

An image that illustrates this process, is that women won the vote in Ecuador in 1929 and in Paraguay only in 1961, despite the arduous struggles of women's groups and organizations. Thirty-two years had to go by before all the women in the region became citizens. Most countries recognized women's citizenship between 1945 and 1955.

Women entered the Executive Branch through appointments as Cabinet Ministers. Chile was the first country to have a woman Minister of State (1952), and Argentina and Paraguay were the last (1989).

Nevertheless, only in 1989 was a woman elected President of the Republic (Violeta Chamorro), although two had held that position previously without being elected (Estela Martínez, Peron's widow in Argentina, 1974-1976; Lidia Gueiler in Bolivia, from late 1979 up to 1980).

Women's entry into the Legislature has been particularly slow and, although all countries gradually included women in Parliament when

they obtained citizenship, their current percentages of participation remain low. Cuba stands out among countries with an unicameral parliament (22.8% are women) whereas women deputies in Ecuador only amount 5.6%. In countries with a bicameral system, women's involvement is usually higher in the Lower Chamber than in the Higher Chamber. In Mexico, women senators number 11.8% while in the Dominican Republic there was no women in the senate in 1990. Mexico also has the highest percentage of women deputies (13.8% of the seats) while in Paraguay only 2.5% of the seats are occupied by women.

The Judicial Branch has been, generally, more permeable to women's participation. Nevertheless, it is considerably stratified and women are concentrated in the lower courts. In nine countries there has never been a woman Minister of the Supreme Court, although they occupy over 60% of the positions in the lower courts.

Political parties seem to be a real barrier to women's access to institutional political power. Women seldom exceed 25% in leadership positions and this is reflected in appointments to candidacies for posts requiring popular election and in the design of ministerial cabinets. Therefore, women's scant presence in the branches of State is not surprising.

Women's contribution at the social level is unquestionable. Women played a prominent role in developing the labor movement. However, today the presence of women in leadership positions in labor unions, either among the rank and file or in federations, confederations and national boards of labor federations is also very low. The 25% barrier is rarely surpassed. Their presence is higher in professional associations, especially in the "feminine" professions.

In economic spheres, represented by associations of entrepreneurs, women are practically absent. They are found very infrequently in leadership positions, and that occurs in industries like trade, never in banking.

This is not the case at grass roots level. There women are important agents in community development and improvement of the quality of life, while simultaneously working in hundreds of organizations where they recreate a way of "being women" that includes personal development, political development, and sometimes, the pursuit of social change.

The 1970s saw women reborn as a specific collective social actor, and since the 1980s their presence on the social and political scene has been permanent. Many organizations with different orientations have come together in a movement that promotes overcoming discrimination against women, political democracy, and the effective exercise of human

rights in the region. Over the past years, their efforts have concentrated on the struggle against family violence, for reproductive rights, development with equity, enhanced participation in the power spheres, of and cultural change. Their proposals have been included in the preparatory documents for the Women's World Conference to be held in Beijing (1995), on the basis of coordinated action and democratically generated leadership.

As of the International Women's Year (1975), regional governments have gradually created within the State a "National Machinery for Women's Advancement", following the indications of the United Nations Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979). Many ministries have generated special programs for women, especially the ministries of Labor, Education, Health and Agriculture. Some countries have legislated or formulated a Plan of Equal Opportunities for Women as a specific instrument of action in favor of women.

Nongovernmental action has had the greatest relevance and effect on the process of institutionalization and formulation of policies for women in the region. With the support of international organizations and agencies, they started to develop studies and programs for women's advancement in the 1970s. Through participatory methodologies and contributions from the feminist movement, they have helped to strengthen feminist and grassroots

organizations, as well as those of women workers and peasants, native indians, black women, etc.

First Ladies -as the wives of Presidents are called- have also played a significant role in favor of women in many countries. They have granted priority to women from poor sectors that often provide a unique opportunity for social development and integration, encouraging popular female leadership that can become autonomous. In Central America they have organized debates on subjects of common interest to thus favor the improvement of women's status.

Specialized United Nations organizations, as of the Women's Decade (1975-1985), have provided major support for women's progress in the region. They have backed NGOs and organizations through economic contributions and technical assistance and have also supported government initiatives.

Thus, by the reach mid-1990s, when the world is preparing for the IV Women's World Conference, although women's participation and presence are still insufficient in many areas, they are a fundamental actor in political and social processes, their demands are part of the public agenda, and they make substantial contributions to national and international development.

CITIZENSHIP

It took thirty-two years for Latin American women to obtain citizenship, and it resulted from diverse social and political processes, depending on the individual histories of the countries in this heterogeneous region.

Women's right to vote started to be recognized when women in most northern hemisphere countries already had the vote. Men had had the right for decades in all countries.

In some cases women obtained citizenship after long years of mobilization and demands by women's groups.

In the late nineteenth century and beginning the twentieth century, feminist leaders and European freethinkers travelled to the new world to propagate ideas on emancipation. This coincided with the arrival of ideas on socialism and anarchism. The ideas of Stuart Mill and Engels reached the region. Argentina, Chile, Uruguay and Peru were fertile territory for the new ideas that started to be adopted by working class sectors and among educated women in the upper and middle classes. In many countries, those seeds took root and organizations and groups arose that started to spread them in meetings and women's magazines.

Important international events also took place like the First International Feminine Congress in Argentina (1910), the Pan-American Women's Congresses (1922, Chile and 1924, Peru) and the International Feminine Congress held in Colombia in 1930.

LATIN AMERICA: YEAR IN WHICH WOMEN OBTAINED THE RIGHT TO VOTE

Country	Year
ECUADOR	1929
BRAZIL	1932
URUGUAY	1932
CUBA	1934
DOMINICAN REP.	1942
GUATEMALA	1945
PANAMA	1946
ARGENTINA	1947
VENEZUELA	1947
COSTA RICA	1949
CHILE	1949
EL SALVADOR	1950
BOLIVIA	1952
MÉXICO	1953
COLOMBIA	1954
HONDURAS	1955
PERU	1955
NICARAGUA	1955
PARAGUAY	1961



The right to vote was the focus of the debate at all these events.

Early feminists the beginning of the century participated in establishing the Inter-American Commission of Women; its First Conference was held in 1930 in Havana, Cuba.

Women also created their own political parties to press for their demands: in Argentina (1918), Brazil (1910), Chile (1922 and 1924) Cuba (1914), and Panama (1923).

In some countries like Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela suffragist struggles coexisted with the development of a labor movement where women also participated. The meeting of the two was necessary at that time so they could join in a common struggle for citizenship. It was not always an easy or smooth process. However, the final offensives managed to articulate broad movements of women from all social classes and sectors.

Nevertheless, hard years of struggle would be necessary before the parliamentarians of the countries mentioned above would accept women's demands. In fact, projects had to be submitted by male deputies or senators, who had their own political fears -that giving women the vote would not favor them- and also fears on women's role in the family and society. They believed that they had to protect them from the world of politics. This was the case despite the fact that women's influence on the development of specific parties has been recognized in many countries. In Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Panama and Uruguay almost 20 years went by between the year women made their first demand and

the year they got the vote; in Brazil and Bolivia it took 30 years; in Argentina, Colombia and Paraguay, forty; in Chile and Mexico, fifty.

In countries with federal systems of government the women's struggle took place first in certain States or provinces, and in those places they obtained civil rights before women in the rest of the country: as early as the 1920s there were women who had the right to vote in Mexico, Argentina and Brazil.

In this region, devastated by dictatorships and despotic governments, women's suffrage was recognized in some countries in the framework of revolutionary processes or those undertaken to recover democracy. In this sense it was part of processes developed to broaden the social base of democracies in Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Guatemala and Venezuela.

In other countries, however, it was the presidents themselves -perpetuated in power- who gave their governments a democratic look through ritual elections where women were included: Trujillo in the Dominican Republic, Somoza in Nicaragua, and Stroessner in Paraguay.

In Ecuador the vote was given to women without collective action on their part, and in Central America, where women's suffrage came later, actions undertaken by the United Nations and the Inter-American Commission of Women, ICW, after the Second World War, influenced an initiative that also corresponded to the regional governments.

In many countries -including those where women struggled actively- the rule was to give them the vote for

municipal elections first. The implicit idea was that women should go through a long period of political rehearsal before being allowed to fully exercise their civil rights. In the case of the Dominican Republic women voted twice (in 1934 and 1938) -as a rehearsal- before obtaining the vote.

However, a fact worth emphasizing is that almost all countries initially restricted the right to vote only to educated women. Illiterate women had to wait, in some cases until the 1980s, to get the vote. This fact, in a continent with a significant native indian population, this posed real limitations for a high proportion of women, especially in countries such as Bolivia, Brazil and Guatemala. The process of women's registration was slow in most countries, and they did not exercise their civil rights for many years.

Nevertheless, almost regional countries have suffered dictatorships and military coups, with the consequent suspension of civil rights for the entire population. Long periods of dictatorship prevented elections in countries with extensive democratic histories, like Uruguay and Chile.

Moreover, the existence of authoritarian and elitist political systems has led to a loss of legitimacy and to mistrust on the part of the population in elections in various countries with apparently stable democracies like Colombia and Mexico. Although voting is mandatory in all these countries, they are characterized by high rates of electoral non-participation, which exceeds 60% of the voters on some occasions. Paraguay's situation is special. Stroessner governed the country between 1954 and 1989 and there were no competitive elections until 1993.

EXECUTIVE BRANCH

In Latin American history up until 1989, no woman had ever been elected President. Violeta Chamorro, the first woman to be elected President of the Republic was preceded, however, by Estela Martínez, Peron's widow, who governed Argentina from 1974 to 1976, and by Lidia Gueiler, who was President of Bolivia temporarily for eight months (November 1979 to July 1980); both were overthrown by military coups.

The entry of women into other agencies of the Executive Branch has been slow and belated; women's citizenship was not apparent in the Executive Branch, except in Chile and Colombia. In 1948 the first woman minister in the region was appointed in Cuba, but without portfolio; the second was in Chile (1952) and the third in Colombia (1954), when women's suffrage was still not exercised. However, countries like Argentina, Brazil and Ecuador the first to recognize women's suffrage, had to wait until 1979, 1982 and 1989, respectively, to see a woman in the Cabinet. Forty years passed between the time a woman minister was named in the first and the last country in the region.

FIRST WOMEN CABINET MEMBERS: YEAR AND PORTFOLIO

Country	Year	Portfolio
CHILE	1952	Justice
COLOMBIA	1954	Communications
COSTA RICA	1958	Education
CUBA	1948	Without portfolio
	1959	Social Welfare
DOMINICAN REP.	1966	Labor
HONDURAS	1967	Labor and Social Security
BOLIVIA	1968	Labor and Work Development
URUGUAY	1968	Education
VENEZUELA	1968	Development
NICARAGUA	1979	Education
	1979	Social Welfare
ECUADOR	1979	Social Welfare
MÉXICO	1981	Tourism
PANAMA	1982	Education
BRAZIL	1982	Education
GUATEMALA	1983	—
PERU	1987	Public Health
	1987	Education
ARGENTINA	1989	Foreign Affairs
PARAGUAY	1989	Public Health and Social Welfare
EL SALVADOR	—	—



CHILE



ARGENTINA
PARAGUAY

The first portfolios occupied by women tend to be concentrated in the social area, especially Education (6), Labor (3), Social Welfare (3) and Health (2). As an exception they occupied the ministries of Justice (Chile), Development (Venezuela) and Foreign Affairs (Argentina). Subsequent history does not show any significant change in this aspect.

At present there is a woman President of the Republic only in Nicaragua. Among countries that have a Vice Presidency, Costa Rica and Honduras have a woman in that position. Both countries have more than one Vice Presidency. They are positions elected by popular vote, and they are subject to the

presentation of women candidates. In recent presidential elections women candidates have been more frequent.

In ministries or secretariats, which are filled by political appointees, Chile, Guatemala and Mexico have three women ministers currently, which is a milestone in Latin American history. Although the percentages vary according to the size of the Cabinet, experience indicates that there is a qualitative contribution stemming from larger feminine presence. Guatemala is the country with the highest percentage of women in the Cabinet (23.1%).

Argentina, Bolivia and Uruguay are at the other extreme, with no women

ministers. Seven countries have one woman and six have two. Eight countries have between 10% and 19% women ministers and seven have between 1% and 9%.

A large female presence is generally found among vice-secretaries or equivalent positions. Cuba has a different organization, but in equivalent positions in the national Executive Branch there are 17 women out of 180 positions. Honduras and Costa Rica have five women under-secretaries, as well as the highest percentages of women in that position, except for El Salvador (30% with three women under-secretaries).

WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN THE EXECUTIVE, AROUND 1994

Country	Year	President		Vice-President		Ministers			Under-Secretaries		
		♂	♀	♂	♀	Both sexes	Women	♀/Total %	Both sexes	Women	♀/Total %
ARGENTINA (1)	1994	1	0	1	0	8	0	0	(2) 41	4	9.8
BOLIVIA	1994	1	0	1	0	10	0	0.0	(2) 37	2	5.4
BRAZIL (1)	1995	1	0	1	0	27	1	3.7
CHILE	1994	1	0	-	-	21	3	14.3	(3) 28	2	7.1
COLOMBIA	1994	1	0	-	-	15	2	13.3	23	3	13.0
COSTA RICA	1994	1	0	1	1	21	2	9.5	19	5	26.3
CUBA	1993	1	0	-	-	39	1	2.6	180	17	9.4
DOMINICAN REP.	1993	1	0	1	0	(2) 14	2	14.3	(4) 31	4	12.9
ECUADOR	1995	1	0	1	0	14	0	0.0	(4) 34	3	7.9
EL SALVADOR	1994	1	0	-	-	10	1	10.0	10	3	8.8
GUATEMALA	1994	1	0	-	-	13	3	23.1	24	3	12.5
HONDURAS	1994	1	0	2	1	(2) 13	1	7.7	17	5	29.4
MÉXICO (1)	1995	1	0	-	-	(2) 17	3	17.6	(5)
NICARAGUA	1994	0	1	1	0	20	2	10.0	29	3	10.3
PANAMA	1994	1	0	2	0	12	2	16.7	12	0	0.0
PARAGUAY	1993	1	0	1	0	11	1	9.1	24	2	8.3
PERU	1994	1	0	1	0	15	2	13.3	20	4	20.0
URUGUAY	1995	1	0	1	0	13	1	7.7	(6) 13	1	7.7
VENEZUELA	1994	1	0	-	-	12	1	8.3	(7) 12	0	0.0

Notes: (1) National or Federal Executive. (2) Secretaries of State. (3) They are called Undersecretaries. This includes the Assistant Director of SERNAM (a woman). (4) They are called Undersecretaries. (5) In March 1995, the appointments were still not definite. (6) Informations for 1993. (7) Data on Directors General.

The presence of women in the provincial, state or departmental Executive Branch is very irregular. In some countries governors are elected by popular vote and in others they are appointed by the President of the Republic.

Costa Rica stands out because it has five women appointed out of seven positions. The Dominican Republic has 7 women out of 25 positions. Argentina, Cuba, Ecuador, Paraguay and Uruguay, on the other hand, have none, either elected or appointed.

Several countries have implemented a process of decentralization and transfer of authority and resources to municipal administrations in the last few years. Democracy has been improved through the popular election of mayors, prefects, governors or municipal presidents. This domain has been singled out as a privileged one for the action of women, as they involve smaller areas with tasks that are more closely linked to daily life. However, women's presence in these positions is also scarce, exceeding 10% only in Bolivia, El Salvador, Honduras and Uruguay. In Costa Rica there are no women in charge of the Municipal Executive Branch.

Moreover, there are big variations in the size of the municipalities -in terms of territory and population- and also, in the importance of the position. The case of Luiza Erundina, former Prefect of Sao Paulo, a city with nine million inhabitants, is remarkable. Her situation is not comparable to women mayors of municipalities with a population of only a few thousand.

WOMEN GOVERNORS IN PROVINCES OR DEPARTMENTS

Country	Year	Both sexes	Women	
			N°	%
ARGENTINA	1994	23	0	0.0
BRAZIL	1995	27	1	3.7
CHILE	1994	51	5	9.8
COLOMBIA	1992	27	1	3.7
COSTA RICA	1994	7	5	71.4
CUBA	1994	14	0	0.0
DOMINICAN REP.	1993	25	7	28.0
ECUADOR ⁽¹⁾	1988	19	0	0.0
HONDURAS	1994	18	2	11.1
MÉXICO ⁽²⁾	1989	31	1	3.2
PANAMA	1994	9	2	22.2
PARAGUAY	1993	17	0	0.0
URUGUAY	1992	19	0	0.0
VENEZUELA	1994	22	1	4.5

Notes: (1) Data on Provincial Prefects (2) Acting Governor (a woman).

WOMEN IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT: WOMEN MAYORS

Country	Year	Both sexes	Women		Position name in spanish
			N°	%	
ARGENTINA	1992	1,100	40	3.6	Intendente
BOLIVIA ⁽¹⁾	1993	10	1	10.0	Alcalde
BRAZIL	1991	4,491	110	2.4	Prefecto
CHILE	1994	334	24	7.2	Alcalde
COLOMBIA	1992	1,024	57	5.6	Alcalde
COSTA RICA ⁽¹⁾	1994	81	0	0.0	Ejecutivo Municipal
CUBA	1993	169	9	5.3	Presidente Asamblea Municipal
DOMINICAN REP.	1990	103	5	4.9	Sindico
ECUADOR	1992	193	6	3.1	Alcalde o Presidente Municipal
EL SALVADOR	1994	262	29	11.1	Alcalde
GUATEMALA ⁽¹⁾	1994	330	4	1.2	Alcalde
HONDURAS	1994	291	37	12.7	Alcalde
MEXICO	1992	2,343	68	2.9	Presidente Municipal
NICARAGUA	1994	143	14	9.8	Alcalde
PANAMA	1994	67	6	9.0	Alcalde
PARAGUAY	1993	247	12	4.9	Intendente
PERU ⁽¹⁾	1993	226	14	6.2	Alcalde
URUGUAY	1992	19	3	15.8	Presidente de Junta Departamental
VENEZUELA	1992	269	17	6.3	Alcalde

Notes: (1) Only major cities included. (2) Incumbent syndics. (3) Municipal Corporations. (4) Information on 183 provincial mayors and 43 district mayors for Metropolitan Lima.

LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

The entry of women into the Legislature took place slowly after women got the vote. The first congresswoman in the region was Carlota Queiroz, a deputy elected in Brazil in 1932, who participated in writing the Constitution of 1934. In 1936 Berta Lutz, who had been a leader of the women's movement since the 1920s, was elected to Congress.

The increase in participation has also been slight, with a few exceptions. In Argentina, under the Peron government, women reached the highest figure in history with 17.6% in the Senate (1952) and 21.7% (34) in the Chamber of Deputies (1955). In Brazil, in 1986, after the campaign deployed by the National Council of Women's Rights for the election of the Constituent Assembly, the number of federal deputies tripled, reaching 26.

At present however, women's participation in parliaments, both bicameral (11 countries) and unicameral (8 countries) is not much better than it is in the Executive Branch.

Among countries with bicameral parliaments, women's presence tends to be smaller and access slower in the Senate or Upper Chamber, than in the Chamber of Deputies. In Brazil, a woman senator was elected only in 1978 and she was merely an alternate. She took office in 1980, almost 40 years after the first woman entered the Chamber of Deputies. In several countries, not one woman has been elected senator in various elections. In the Dominican Republic, in 1990 there was not a single woman in the Senate, and only in Paraguay (1993)

WOMEN IN THE LEGISLATURE, BICAMERAL PARLIAMENTS

Country	Year	Senado			Chamber of Deputies		
		Both sexes	Women N°	%	Both sexes	Women N°	%
ARGENTINA ⁽¹⁾	1993	48	2	4.2	257	34	13.2
BOLIVIA	1993	27	1	3.7	130	10	7.7
BRAZIL ⁽²⁾	1995	81	5	6.2	513	38	7.4
CHILE	1994	47	3	6.4	120	9	7.5
COLOMBIA ⁽²⁾	1994	102	5	4.9	⁽³⁾ 165	19	11.5
DOMINICAN REP.	1990	30	0	0.0	120	14	11.7
MÉXICO	1994	127	15	11.8	500	69	13.8
PARAGUAY	1993	45	5	11.1	80	2	2.5
PERU	1990	60	4	6.7	180	10	5.6
URUGUAY	1994	31	2	6.5	⁽³⁾ 99	7	7.1
VENEZUELA	1993	49	3	6.1	200	13	6.5

Notes: (1) Information on the federal or national legislature seats. (2) Information on 102 nationally-elected seats. (3) House of Representatives.



WOMEN IN THE LEGISLATURE, UNICAMERAL PARLIAMENTS

Country	Year	Both sexes	Women	
			N°	%
COSTA RICA	1994	57	9	15.8
CUBA ⁽¹⁾	1993	587	134	22.8
ECUADOR ⁽²⁾	1994	72	4	5.6
EL SALVADOR	1994	84	9	10.7
GUATEMALA ⁽²⁾	1994	80	6	7.5
HONDURAS ⁽²⁾	1993	128	9	7.0
NICARAGUA	1993	92	17	18.5
PANAMA	1994	67	5	9.0

Notes: (1) National Assembly of Popular Power. (2) Includes national and provincial deputies. (3) Incumbents.

and Mexico (1994) women occupied over 10% of the seats. Mexico is an exception since, in recent elections, the number of seats increased to 127, and 15 women senators were elected.

Percentages rise in the Chamber of Deputies, where women occupy over 10% of the seats in four countries. However, absolute figures are very different and they conceal different realities.

Argentina, Brazil and Mexico, i.e. countries with Federal Parliaments, have the highest percentages in the Chamber of Deputies. In Mexico, after the last elections, 69 of the 500 seats were filled by women, the highest percentage in a Lower Chamber in the region. In Brazil, which has 518 seats, 38 women were elected recently, and in Argentina, which has 257 seats, there are 34. The Argentinean case reflects the Quota Law (1991), which obliges political parties to have 30% women candidates on their lists, in positions that must alternate with men. When half the seats in the Chamber of Deputies were up for election in 1993, women's presence more than

doubled (13.2%), even though the lists did not comply with the 30% required by law.

These figures constitute a significant number that allows women to coordinate their parliamentary work so as to launch legislative initiatives that transcend party interests.

Bolivia, the Dominican Republic, Peru, and Venezuela have ten or more deputies. Only Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay have less than ten.

The situation is similar in the unicameral parliaments except for Cuba. There the National Assembly of Popular Power is the supreme organ of the State. The Council of State is elected there, and the President of the Council is also the President of the Republic. The Assembly also appoints the Ministers. In 1993 women occupied 134 of the 587 seats, or 22.8%. A much higher rate than the other unicameral parliaments. This figure is lower than in 1986, when 33.9% of the deputies were women.

In Costa Rica, El Salvador and Nicaragua women occupy over 10% of the seats, and in Nicaragua there are 17 women deputies out of a total of 92.

The Legislative Assembly of Ecuador made up of national and provincial deputies, had the lowest percentage of women (5.6%) in 1994, followed by Honduras, Guatemala and Panama.

Some countries elect alternate parliamentarians, like Bolivia, Brazil, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Uruguay and Venezuela. It is customary for more women to be elected in this group.

Very exceptionally, a woman has been Vice President of a chamber, as in Guatemala where the Legislative Assembly was presided over by a woman in 1991. Some women have presided over specialized work committees. In Bolivia, in the 1989-1993 period, four women presided over commissions. In Mexico, in 1991, four women also were presidents of committees and in Venezuela, there were two that year.

**WOMEN IN THE LEGISLATURE .
BICAMERAL AND UNICAMERAL PARLIAMENTS**



In some countries, women representing subordinate social sectors have managed to reach Parliament in the past few years: in Brazil, in 1986, for the first time a poor, black woman reached Congress and in Bolivia, in 1989, a "mujer de polleras" (a native indian woman) did so also.

It should be kept in mind that most countries in the region have suffered the suspension of civil rights by military or authoritarian governments, which has resulted in the impossibility of either men or women being in Parliament for relatively long periods of time.

Gradually, parliaments have created work committees that specifically address subjects related to women. In some cases they also deal with subjects regarding the family or young people. In 1976, the Permanent Committee for Service to Youth, Children and Equal Rights for Women was created in Cuba. In 1983, the Chamber of Deputies of Bolivia created the Commission on Women. Its first task was to diagnose the status of women and write various bills, including one that approving social security coverage for domestic workers.

The establishment of these committees is crucial since it has allowed direct communication among organized women and their institutions and parliamentarians, both men and women.

Locally, female participation in Municipal Councils is somewhat more extensive. However, it is under 20% of the seats in any of the countries for which information was obtained (15).

The highest level of participation is in Venezuela, with 16.4% women councilors, and the lowest level is found in Colombia and El Salvador, with 5.2%.

The size of the Councils varies from one country to another, not always in proportion to the size of the

population. Cuba is unusual in that 1,809 out of 10,874 positions are occupied by women. Their authority also differs, which is manifested in the impact of their action on the community.

PARLIAMENTARY COMMITTEES TO ADDRESS WOMEN'S ISSUES

Country	Name
BOLIVIA	Women's Committee
BRAZIL	Committee on Family Affairs and Social Welfare
CHILE	Committee on the Family
CUBA	Permanent Committee on Youth, Childhood and Equal Right for Women
ECUADOR	Special Committee on Women, Children and the Family
EL SALVADOR	Committee on Women and the Family
HONDURAS	Committee on Women
NICARAGUA	Permanent Committee on Women, Childhood, Youth, and the Family.
PANAMA	Parliamentary Committee on Women
URUGUAY	Special Committee on the "Status of Women"
VENEZUELA	Bicameral Committee for the Rights of Women

WOMEN IN MUNICIPAL COUNCILS, AROUND 1993

Country	Year	Both sexes	Women		Position name in spanish
			N°	%	
BOLIVIA	1993	2,773	232	8.4	Concejal
BRAZIL (1)	1989	287	16	5.6	Vereador
CHILE	1992	2,082	247	11.9	Concejal
COLOMBIA	1992	10,874	565	5.2	Concejal
COSTA RICA	1994	544	76	14.0	Regidor propietario
CUBA (2)	1993	13,400	1,809	13.5	Delegado
DOMINICAN REP.	1990	625	64	10.2	Regidor
ECUADOR	1992	1,473	77	5.2	Concejal
EL SALVADOR	1994	2,625	405	15.4	Representante
NICARAGUA	1990	808	107	13.2	Concejal propietario
PANAMA	1994	511	53	10.4	Concejal titular
PARAGUAY (3)	1993	1,848	179	9.7	Concejal titular
PERU (4)	1993	39	3	7.7	Regidor
URUGUAY (5)	1990	589	59	10.0	Edil titular
VENEZUELA	1992	1,963	322	16.4	Concejal

Notes: (1) Chamber of Municipal Councilors for Metropolitan Regions. (2) Municipal Assemblies of Popular Power. (3) Data for the Casapá VI Department not included. (4) Data for Lima exclusively. (5) Incumbent town councillor on Departmental Boards.

JUDICIAL BRANCH

The fact that women won the right to vote much later than men also had an impact on their access to the Judicial Branch of government, even though women lawyers were already graduating in the 1920s. For example, in 1927 the first woman lawyer graduated in Guatemala, but she could not practice until 1946, because she lacked the right to vote. In Peru, in 1951, when women did not have the right to vote, the Supreme Court specifically vetoed their entry into the Courts as secretaries or court reporters. However, in Nicaragua they were appointed judges despite the fact that, legally, they were not citizens. In 1948, the first local judge was appointed in Matagalpa:

Catalina Rojas, and in 1949 Joaquina Vega, President of the Feminine Committee for the Women's Vote, was made a judge in the capital city.

The most surprising exception was Serafina Dávalos, who was appointed to the High Court of Justice in Paraguay in 1910, a distinction no other woman has achieved since.

Around the 1940s, women in the region started to enter the Judicial Branch with significant differences in the way judges were appointed. In some countries this is done by the Executive Branch; in others, by the Senate and most recently, in some countries the openings are filled by competition based on merit.

In Latin America the deficiencies of the system that separates the branches of State has been fairly

generalized. The independence of the Judicial Branch, essential to the efficient application of justice, has been damaged many times by de facto governments or by the appointment of judges and court ministers. Panama has only had an independent Judicial Branch since 1987 when the Legal Code was enacted, and the judicial career was only established in 1991 as was the naming of judges based on merit. In Paraguay, the Judicial Branch reported to the Executive Branch, which appointed its members until the constitution of 1992 was enacted, after Stroessner was overthrown. Furthermore, the declaration of states of emergency, internal war, or states of siege has led to the installation of special military Courts with the suspension of guarantees for due process. Human rights violations, very extended in some

WOMEN IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE, AROUND 1993

Country	Year	Supreme Court			Court of Appeals			Trial Court		
		B. sexes N°	Women N°	%	B. sexes N°	Women N°	%	A. sexes N°	Mujeres N°	%
ARGENTINA ⁽¹⁾	1993	9	0	0.0	111	17	15.3	314	94	29.9
BOLIVIA	1991	15	0	0.0	—	—	—	—	—	—
BRAZIL ⁽²⁾	1990	33	0	0.0	—	—	—	—	—	—
CHILE	1992	17	0	0.0	119	24	20.2	321	147	45.8
COLOMBIA	1993	8	0	0.0	13	1	7.7	69	34	49.3
COSTA RICA	1994	22	2	9.1	73	22	30.1	92	42	45.7
CUBA	1990	28	11	39.3	14	2	14.3	1,130	495	43.8
DOMINICAN REP.	1993	16	0	0.0	75	23	30.7	79	28	35.4
ECUADOR	1992	16	0	0.0	101	4	4.0	420	49	11.7
EL SALVADOR	1994	15	2	13.3	28	0	0.0	102	15	14.7
GUATEMALA	1991	9	1	11.1	52	6	11.5	77	9	11.7
HONDURAS	1993	9	1	11.1	27	3	11.1	74	47	63.5
MEXICO	1994	26	5	19.2	327	49	15.0	366	127	34.7
NICARAGUA	1991	9	1	11.1	28	7	25.0	52	24	46.2
PANAMA	1993	9	2	22.2	19	5	26.3	54	22	40.7
PARAGUAY	1991	5	0	0.0	78	7	9.0	47	6	12.8
PERU	1994	24	2	8.3	938	189	20.1	348	61	17.5
URUGUAY	1990	5	0	0.0	43	7	16.3	159	84	52.8
VENEZUELA	1990	15	4	26.7	150	45	30.0	1,085	575	53.0

Notes: (1) Federal or nation-wide information. (2) Superior Court of Justice. (3) Superior Court of Bogotá only. (4) Civil, Family and Labor Courts, Bogotá. (5) Court Judges and Trial Judges. (6) Supreme Popular Tribunal. Data on professional judges. (7) Presidents of Provincial Courts (8) Professional Judges. (9) Data for 1991. (10) Courts of First Instance. (11) Magistrates in Federal Courts. (12) The states of Mexico, Morelos and Federal District (Mexico City). (13) District Judges. (14) Courts of Appeals, Boards of Elections and Official Auditing Office. (15) Presidents, Council members, and Judges of Superior Courts. (16) Attorney-Judges for Montevideo and the Interior. (17) Information for 1988. (18) Information for 1992. Correspond to Civil, Mercantile, Penal, Traffic, Agrarian, Minors, Department and Parish Courts.

countries in the region even today, reveal the weakness of judicial systems in comparison to political power.

Women's participation in the Judiciary has increased considerably with time and thanks to effective democracy. However, in all countries, women's presence is clearly stratified and also segmented by sex.

The Judiciary is made up of agencies with a highly hierarchical structure, varying from one country to another in the complexity and number of courts. Countries with a federal system, for example, have more courts of appeal and resolution of litigation. Other countries have systems that range from the neighborhood, local or municipal domain, with magistrate's courts or mayoralties, to the Supreme Court.

The pattern of women's participation is that the lower the hierarchy of the court the higher the number of women and vice versa. In other words, women have reached the Supreme Court in very few countries, particularly in Central America: Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama.

Mexico, Paraguay, Peru and Venezuela, are other countries that may be added.

In Mexico a woman was appointed to the Supreme Court of Justice for the first time in 1961, and today there are 5 women ministers out of 26 positions. Venezuela has the highest percentage in the region (26.7%) with 4 women in 15 positions. In Costa Rica, El Salvador, Panama and Peru there are two women ministers on the Supreme Court. In Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua there is only one. In the other 8 countries -excluding Paraguay-, no woman has ever been a Supreme Court Minister.

Larger numbers of women are found in Courts of Appeals, mainly federal or national. In Trial Courts this increases even more, exceeding 50% in Uruguay and Venezuela. However, it is at those levels where segmentation by sex occur, with a higher presence of women in minor and family matters and men in labor and penal affairs.

An important percentage of Justices of the Peace are women. In 1991 in Lima, and in 1990 in Uruguay they occupied about 80% of the positions.

In Nicaragua, as of the 1980s women's participation increased when the Sandinista government encouraged the training of "popular judges": they rose from 2 women district judges in 1979 to 24 in 1991 and from 9 to 51 local judges (33.6%).

Some countries also have State Attorney's Offices. Hierarchical stratification of women is also seen there. In 1990, in Venezuela, an Office for Women's Rights was created in that State Attorney's Office.

Cuba is an exception. Justice takes place through Popular Courts elected by the Assemblies of Popular Power at their respective levels. Almost all courts have professional judges and lay judges -nonprofessional- proposed to the Assemblies by other participatory institutions (work, education, place of residence). They all occupy their positions for 5 years. Women's presence in Cuban courts differ slightly from the structure in the rest of the region, with 11 women (39.3%) in the Popular Supreme Court in 1990. In 1993 43.8% of the professional judges and 60.4% of the lay judges were women.

**LATIN AMERICA: WOMEN IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE
MOST FREQUENT SITUATIONS AROUND 1993**



Supreme Court
Low or non-existent



Court of Appeals
Moderate participation
(around 20%)



Trial Courts
Equal participation
(around 45%)

POLITICAL PARTIES

Women's participation in political parties has a long history and includes the creation of women's parties at the beginning of the century and during the struggle to get the vote. The first one was the Feminine Republican Party, created in 1910 in Brazil, which joined women from the middle class and professionals in the struggle for the right to vote. In 1918 the Feminist Party was founded in Argentina for the same purpose; the Feminine Civic Party was founded in Chile in 1922, and in 1924 the Feminine Democrat Party was established. In 1923 the Feminist National Party was created in Panama. Two remarkable subsequent cases were the Feminine Party of Chile (1946), whose president Maria de la Cruz, was the first elected woman senator, and the Feminine Peronist Party (1949), presided over by Eva Duarte de Perón, which had thousands of women in its "basic units".

Once they became citizens, women tended to join traditional political parties. Since then, women's participation in the various countries has been active at the grassroots, but it has not been reflected on national boards.

In a continent marked by political interruptions, opposition parties have suffered persecution and clandestinity. History shows that women played a central role in the survival of many parties that were forced underground and whose leaders were exiled. In Bolivia, women's action in the Revolutionary Nationalist Movement, MNR, during the years of persecution (1946-1952)

WOMEN ON NATIONAL BOARDS OF SELECTED POLITICAL PARTIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

Country	Year	Political Party	Both sexes	Women	%♀/T
ARGENTINA	1994	Partido Justicialista	123	12	9.8
	1990	Unión Cívica Radical	24	0	0.0
BOLIVIA	1991	Movimiento de Izquierda Revolucionario	9	1	11.1
		Movimiento Bolivia Libre	16	1	6.3
		Acción Democrática Nacionalista	13	2	15.4
BRAZIL	1991	Partido de los Trabajadores (PT)	82	5	6.1
		Frente Liberal (PFL)	121	2	1.7
		Demócrata Social (PDS)	121	2	1.7
		Demócrata Laborista (PDT)	119	11	9.2
		Movimiento Democrático Brasileiro (PMDB)	121	4	3.3
CHILE	1991	Social Democracia Brasileira (PSDB)	121	8	6.6
		Partido Demócrata Cristiano	40	5	12.5
		Partido Socialista	19	4	21.1
		Partido Por la Democracia	20	5	25.0
		Unión Demócrata Independiente	26	2	7.7
		Renovación Nacional	15	2	13.3
COLOMBIA	1993	Partido Liberal (PL)	3	1	33.3
		Alianza Democrática M-19	5	1	20.0
COSTA RICA	1990	Unidad Social Cristiana (PUSC)	17	1	5.9
		Liberación Nacional (PLN)	25	3	12.0
CUBA	1991	Partido Comunista de Cuba (PCC)	25	3	12.0
DOMINICAN REP.	1993	Partido Reformista Social Cristiano	39	10	25.6
		Partido Revolucionario Dominicano	297	30	10.1
		Partido Comunista Dominicano	22	1	4.5
EL SALVADOR	1993	Partido de los Trabajadores Dominicanos	27	1	3.7
		ARENA	15	1	6.7
		Partido Demócrata Cristiano (PDC)	40	3	7.5
		Unión Democrática Nacional (UDN)	10	4	40.0
MEXICO	1992	Movimiento Nacional Revolucionario (MNR)	9	1	11.1
		Frente Fabarundo Marti para la Liberación Nacional (FMLN)	50	7	14.0
		Partido Revolucionario Institucional (PRI)	34	4	11.8
		Partido de Acción Nacional (PAN)	28	5	17.9
		Partido de la Revolución Democrática (PRD)	32	7	21.9
NICARAGUA ⁽¹⁾	1994	Frente Sandinista de Liberación Nacional (FSLN)	27	6	22.2
		Partido Social Cristiano (PSC)	58	12	20.7
		Partido Liberal Independiente (PLI)	121	20	16.5
		Partido Comunista de Nicaragua (PC de N)	103	15	14.6
PANAMA	1991	Partido Demócrata Cristiano	4	1	25.0
		Partido Liberal Auténtico	14	0	0.0
		Movimiento Liberal Republicano Nacionalista	31	4	12.9
		Partido Panameñista (Arnulfista)	9	1	11.1
		Partido Laborista	5	0	0.0
PARAGUAY	1994	Partido Revolucionario Democrático	5	0	0.0
		Asociación Nacional Republicana (ANR)	72	6	8.3
		Partido Liberal Radical Auténtico (PLRA)	45	5	11.1
		Partido Revolucionario Febrerista (PRF)	30	6	20.0
PERU	1990	Encuentro Nacional (EN)	38	5	13.2
		Partido Aprista Peruano	4	1	25.0
		Izquierda Unida	6	0	0.0
VENEZUELA	1992	Frente Nacional de Trabajadores Campesinos	20	3	15.0
		Cambio 90-Nueva Mayoría	5	0	0.0
		Acción Democrática	33	7	21.2
		Partido Socialcristiano (COPEI)	35	3	8.6
		Movimiento al Socialismo (MAS)	34	4	11.8

Note: (1) Regional boards.

has been recognized. More recently, in Chile, parties received a great deal of support from women in their effort to survive. Despite this, after the persecution ended, men have always resumed leadership, ignoring the contribution made by women.

Furthermore, the presence of women in leadership positions tends to be greater in new parties or ones that are being renewed. When parties are being dissolved or there is an absence of commitment to the problems faced by society and the State, routines tend to prevail over ideology, competition over mystique, bureaucracy over innovative sectors. This process can be observed in Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Paraguay.

A tradition of creating women's technical branches, secretariats or committees has existed for several years. Whether the objective is merely the political education of mothers and wives of male members or specific policies design to improve women's status, in many cases these are an efficient way to increase women's presence and their access to higher positions in the hierarchy.

In recent years, women's demands have become a usual item included in political platforms. Women are thus invited to support the candidates. After the elections are over, however, women's demands are usually forgotten.

However, a sign of progress is the adoption by several parties of regulations that demand a minimum quota of women in leadership positions and on lists of candidates for popularly elected positions. The precedent was set in the Feminine Peronist Party which assured 33.3% of electoral party positions to women.

Undoubtedly, at present the most advanced case is Argentina, whose Quota Law -proposed by a woman radical senator- forces parties to have 30% of women candidates on their lists, in places that make them really eligible. In Uruguay a bill has been introduced to Parliament whereby no more than 75% of parliamentarians should be of the same sex; it also establishes quotas for the lists of candidates and leadership positions in political parties. Some parties in Chile, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela have incorporated a similar rule. Frequently, however, these are not met fully.

Other parties have included the improvement of women's status in their political principles and priorities. This is the case of the Labor Party, PT, in Brazil and the Democratic Revolution Party in Mexico.

Very occasionally a woman has become the president of a party, but this tends to happen more frequently in small parties or parties with little political relevance. In important parties, women presidents have usually been direct relatives of a leader who has died or who cannot personally exercise the leadership. These cases include the Brazilian Labor Party, PTB, in 1979, the Alfarista Radical Front in Ecuador and the Ecuadorean Roldosista Party in 1991, and the Panamanian Party (Arnulfista) in Panama, also in 1991.

The absence of party records listing members by sex or the difficulty in obtaining access to existing records makes it hard to present figures on women's political affiliation. Data was only available for a few countries, and it did not cover all the

parties. The parties structures differ considerably; therefore, the size of the executive bodies also vary. Data presented on women's participation, corresponding to national boards, goes from zero to 33.3% (Liberal Party of Colombia, 1993). Only in few parties women hold over 20% of the positions.

The low numbers of women, both among the rank and file and in leadership positions, in most political parties is due to different factors. Women face many difficulties, including illiteracy and scant education, their reproductive roles and domestic responsibilities, plus lack of interest in politics because of the masculine way it is organized. In various countries the last few years have been characterized by a crisis and loss of prestige in political activity. Many women have abandoned politics to concentrate on social movements and organizations.

This reality has serious consequences for women's access to positions of power in society. Political parties are mediators of that access: in Ecuador and Panama they are the only ones that can present candidates for elections. Moreover, cabinets are generally made up on the basis of names provided by political parties in power. Leaving women out of the parties has resulted directly in the presence of few women in the different State branches.



SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS

Social organizations are an important tradition in the region, especially the labor and union organizations created in the late Nineteenth century, inspired by the anarchosyndicalism brought from Europe.

Women's participation in the early labor movement in Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Paraguay and Uruguay is well known. The first women's unions, which carried out mobilizations and strikes, were created at that time. In 1881, the Feminine Section of the Montevideo Federation of the International Association of Workers was created in Uruguay, and in 1884 the newspaper "La Lucha Obrera" dedicated privileged sections to women's issues. In Chile, the Association of Women Workers in Mutual Aid and Savings Funds was

created in 1887, and in 1906 the Dressmakers Association "Protection, savings and defense", the Weavers' Cosmopolitan Resistance Association and the Trimmers' Resistance Union were established. The latter union and the women workers in a shirt factory each carried out strikes in 1907. In Colombia, in 1910 the first labor unions were formed and years later Maria Cano, an outstanding union leader, would make her mark. In Paraguay the unions of perfume and wreath makers, cigar makers and dressmakers and the Federation of Market Vendors were created. Elida Ugarriza, president of the Teachers Association of the Capital, was an outstanding leader there. In 1920, the Women Workers Union Federation and the Women's Federal Council of the Women Workers Federation of Chile was formed. Women's union activity also flourished in Argentina, with Tomasa Cupayuolo and Gabrielle Lapière de Coni figuring as leaders. In Bolivia in the 1920s, the Women's Labor Federation was created, and in Cuba women

participated with a marked class orientation.

Women's outstanding initial participation changed when the organization became institutionalized and big union federations were created like the General Confederation of Labor, CGT, in Argentina (1930), the Federation of Workers in Colombia, CTC (1935), the Federation of Workers in Cuba, CTC (1939) or the Labor Confederation of Workers in Bolivia, CSTB. Women left the boards, a situation that prevails to this date throughout almost the whole region.

The coups d'état and the implantation of military dictatorships weakened union structures. They played a role, however, in the significant opposition movements and in the struggle for democracy (Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Guatemala).

**WOMEN ON NATIONAL BOARDS OF LABOR UNION FEDERATIONS
IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR**

Country	Year	B. Sexes N°	Women N°	%	Boards	Organization
ARGENTINA	1994	24	0	0.0	Consejo Directivo Nacional	Confederación General del Trabajo
BOLIVIA	1994	37	1	2.7	Comité Ejecutivo	Central Obrera Boliviana
BRAZIL ⁽¹⁾	1991	25	2	8.0	Ejecutivo Nacional	Central Unica de Trabajadores
CHILE	1992	59	5	8.5	Directiva Nacional	Central Unitaria de Trabajadores
CUBA	1990	17	4	23.5	Secretariado del XVI Congreso	Central de Trabajadores de Cuba
DOMINICAN REP. ⁽²⁾	1991	11	2	18.2	Buró Ejecutivo	Central Unitaria de Trabajadores
MEXICO	1991	47	2	4.3	Directiva Nacional	Confederación de Trabajadores de México
NICARAGUA ⁽³⁾	1993	12	3	25.0	Directiva Nacional	Confederación Nacional de Trabajadores
PARAGUAY ⁽⁴⁾	1990	15	1	6.7	Directiva Nacional	Central Unica de Trabajadores
PERU ⁽⁵⁾	1983	41	1	2.4	Dirección Nacional	Central General de Trabajadores del Perú
URUGUAY	1993	17	3	17.6	Secretariado Ejecutivo	Plenario Intersindical de Trabajadores- Convención Nacional de Trabajadores (PIT-CNT)
VENEZUELA ⁽⁵⁾	1990	17	1	5.9	Comité Ejecutivo	Confederación de Trabajadores de Venezuela

Notes: (1) The most important federation. (2) The oldest federation. (3) Federation with the highest number of member. (4) Several other federations exist in the country. (5) The most important and numerous general labor union.

Quantitative information about syndicalization and women's participation in labor unions is very hard to get in many countries and nonexistent in others. The available data reveals wide variations. Cuba records the highest percentage of women's syndicalization, i.e. 98.7% of women workers (1990).

The national boards of union federations register extreme situations like the complete absence of women in the CGT in Argentina. In Nicaragua and Cuba, on the other hand, women held over 23% of the positions in 1993 and 1990, respectively, although in most countries women held less than 9%.

Women have developed some strategies to improve their presence and impact on the union movement. They include the creation of Women's Departments or Secretariats, links between unions, and meetings or

congresses of union women. In Venezuela in the 1960s these departments were created in unions and federations and in the Unified Confederation of Workers of Venezuela, CUTV. The latter has organized many Meetings of Women Workers, and since 1986 it has been an independent department geared to fighting for equal rights for women.

In Ecuador the first women's secretariats were established in the 1970s, and they became important in the second half of the 1980s. Today, the main federations and confederations have a specialized organization to educate and train women leaders and carry out activities for working women.

In Brazil the Committee on Women's Status was created in the Confederation of National Labor Unions, CNS, and the National Commission on Working Women in

the Single Federation of Workers, CUT. In 1991 the CNS had 22 women's status committees in its central councils and 317 in affiliated local unions. The CUT IV National Congress (1991) approved various resolutions concerning working women, such as equal pay, the right to own rural land, the end of mandatory pregnancy tests in order to get a job, childcare centers in the workplace, the reporting of sexual violence, and the fight against it in the workplace.

In Peru, Meetings of Working Women have been held since 1985. The same Meetings have been held in Uruguay since 1986.

Bolivia and Peru have a special history, with the creation of Committees of Housewives together with mining unions. In Bolivia the combativeness of the women on the Housewives Committee of Casa

WOMEN ON NATIONAL BOARDS AND WOMEN MEMBERS OF URBAN LABOR UNION FEDERATIONS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR



Country	Year	Leaders			Members		
		Both sexes	Women		Both sexes	Women	
			N°	%		N°	%
BRAZIL ⁽¹⁾	1988	17,805	1,794	10.1	6,775,483	-	-
CHILE	1991	32,048	4,142	12.9	-	-	-
COLOMBIA ⁽²⁾	1991	-	-	-	811,530	277,355	34.2
COSTA RICA	1990	-	-	-	154,469	40,162	26.0
CUBA ⁽³⁾	1990	18,599	7,756	41.7	-	-	-
DOMINICAN REP.	1982	843	284	33.7	-	-	-
GUATEMALA	1990	-	-	-	50,892	6,098	12.0
NICARAGUA ⁽⁴⁾	1993	-	-	-	156,455	26,187	16.7
PARAGUAY ⁽⁵⁾	1992	4,389	540	12.3	100,382	31,282	31.2

Notes: (1) Figures corresponding to urban labor unions that declare the number of members. (2) Includes private and public sector unions in Cundinamarca, Antioquia, Atlántico and Valle. (3) Leaders of union Bureaus. (4) Members of urban general labor unions. (5) Labor unions of companies, trade associations, and independent workers.

Siglo XX (1961) is well-known, especially through Domitila Barrios from Chungará, who has given testimony of this struggle to the world.

Women's participation in union organizations, both rank and file and federations, is characterized by stratification. While participation is significant at the level of the rank and file, it starts to disappear on the boards, especially in secondary level organizations or higher up the hierarchy. For example, in the Union of Argentinean Teachers, with a female membership of 61.5% in 1990, only 23.1% of women were in leadership positions.

The highest percentages of female participation on the boards of urban labor unions are found in Cuba (41.7% in 1990) whereas the lowest are found in Brazil (10.1% in 1988). Data on union members shows that there are significant percentages of women in the public and private

sectors in Colombia: female members in the private sector amount to 34.2% but this ratio is higher in the public sector (39.7%), as it is in other countries. In Guatemala, instead, only 12% of labor union members in 1990 were women. The largest women's presence, in terms of membership and leadership, is found in the service sector, followed by industry and agriculture. This model is repeated throughout the region.

Women's integration into labor union activity faces different obstacles, in addition to structural factors: double shifts, lack of support services for household tasks and childcare, the weakness of women's identity as workers and the priority given to the role of housewife and mother, the discourse advanced by unions, the timetables, the priorities granted to demands that fail to include the needs of women workers, as well as ideological factors that, favoring class unity, obstruct or

negate the specific character of the problems of women workers.

In rural areas, women's participation in organizations and labor unions is even more difficult. In fact, women's presence on labor union boards is clearly lower than in urban labor unions and, except for Colombia, in unions of the agriculture and livestock sector of Santafé de Bogotá (57%), women's membership tends to be lower. Their participation is particularly low on the boards of rural unions in Brazil, where they are only 5.7% of the leaders.

In Paraguay the Stroessner dictatorship destroyed peasant organizations, like the Christian Agrarian Leagues. The Paraguayan Peasant Movement, MCP, has included the Coordination of Women Peasants since 1985 as an internal organization that claims, along with the whole movement, land and freedom of organization.

WOMEN ON NATIONAL BOARDS AND WOMEN MEMBERS OF RURAL LABOR UNION FEDERATIONS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

Country	Year	Leaders			Members		
		Both sexes	N°	Women %	Both sexes	N°	Women %
BRAZIL ⁽¹⁾	1988	10,847	615	5,7	8,314,004	-	-
CHILE ⁽²⁾	1991	4,735	349	7,4	-
COLOMBIA ⁽³⁾	1991	-	4,496	2,563	57,0
CUBA ⁽⁴⁾	1992	20,680	2,355	11,4	185,294	26,843	14,5
GUATEMALA	1990	-	27,429	1,154	4,2
NICARAGUA ⁽⁵⁾	1993	-	159,835	24,852	15,5
PARAGUAY ⁽⁶⁾	1992	2,990	518	17,3	37,820	12,724	33,6
PERU ⁽⁷⁾	1993	1,217	372	30,6	31,406	7,129	22,7

Notes: (1) Figures for rural labor unions that declare the number of their members. (2) Leaders from labor unions in the agricultural sector. (3) Includes agricultural sector labor unions from Santafé de Bogotá. (4) Data on regular members and board members of the National Association of Small-scale farmers. (5) Data for the Association of Agricultural Workers and the National Union of Farmers and Cattle breeders. (6) Data for 758 grassroots associations of farmers surveyed by CDE on a nation-wide basis. (7) National Agrarian Confederation. League leaders and rank-and-file.



In Brazil, rural workers always participated in peasant struggles, but as of the 1980s they started to form a specific sector within the union movement known as "Los Sin Tierra" (The Landless). In 1990, the National Department of Rural Workers of the CUT, established the National Commission on the Issue of Rural Working Women to analyze, discuss, investigate and make proposals regarding to rural women workers. In Chile, the current president of the National Peasant Commission, CNC, is a woman.

In 1978, the Committee of Peasant Unity, CUC, was created in Guatemala to encourage struggle of workers and peasants. It brought together 150,000 members, mostly native indians, and had to go underground after some were assassinated; the committee reappeared in 1987. Rigoberta Menchú, a Quiché Indian and Christian catechist, the CUC leader and winner of the Nobel Peace Prize, is a true example of women who are integrated into their people's struggle.

Native indian organizations in Colombia and Ecuador also have women leaders. In Ecuador, Women's Secretariats were created in 1985 and 1986 in the ECUARRUNARI, the Confederation of Indigenous Nationalities in the Ecuadorean Amazon, CONFENIAE, and the Ecuadorean National Indigenous Confederation, CONAIE. In 1986, CONAIE held the First Congress of Indigenous Women and women played an active part in the uprising of native indians in 1990, marking a milestone in their organization process.

The cooperative movement has had important roots in the region since the 1930s and women's participation in cooperatives almost always exceeds their membership and presence on union boards. Colombia is an outstanding example, where well-known women have supported this movement. The data obtained for that country shows there are 42.1% women members, although women leaders constitute a lower percentage (32%). Thus repeating the pattern of less participation the higher the

hierarchy. In Costa Rica, Panama and Nicaragua, women's presence is also high in cooperatives, which constitute a significant social movement, affiliated to ACI, the International Cooperative Alliance.

However, the highest degree of women's participation is seen in neighborhood, community, and village organizations or in the popular urban movement, according to the name these entities are given in each country.

Countries like Chile, Colombia and Venezuela have well-established networks of neighborhood and community organizations, that were promoted by the governments in the 1960s as instruments for community development. They have always had numerous women participants and leaders. Moreover, women have provided an important base for land takeovers, characteristic in many cities in the region because of the lack of housing for poor migrants, as well as acting as leaders in social mobilizations.

WOMEN ON BOARDS AND MEMBERS OF COOPERATIVES IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	Year	N° of cooperatives	Members				Leaders	
			Both sexes		Women		Women	
			N°	%	N°	%	N°	%
COLOMBIA ⁽¹⁾	1987	93	10,200	4,297	42.1	565	181	32.0
COSTA RICA	1990	418	304,442	110,208	36.2	2,106	420	19.9
GUATEMALA	1989	996	218,219	42,335	19.4	—	—	—
NICARAGUA	1994	—	107,554	34,754	32.3	14,571	1,389	9.5
PANAMA	1988	326	157,839	57,266	36.3	3,833	1,121	29.2
VENEZUELA ⁽²⁾	1993	666	13,223	2,050	15.5	13,504	343	2.5

Notes: (1) Sample of 103 cooperatives, 10 of which did not answer the survey questions. This represents 10% of the current individual records registered with DANCOOP, 1987. (2) Economic Associations of Peasants served by the Instituto Agrario Nacional (IAN).

Urban growth, economic crises and the installation of military dictatorships in the 1970s and 1980s aggravated the already deteriorated living conditions of large sectors of the population. Community organizations and new groups organized to solve subsistence problems have replaced the State's social action to a large degree. Through mobilizations and pressure exerted on the authorities, they solve urgent problems and increase the numbers of active citizens. Women have exercised indisputable leadership in these organizations and continue to do so, even though they do not occupy leadership positions in equal proportion. Important examples of these organizations and movements that fight for better living conditions are seen in Chile, Colombia, Guatemala, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela.

Professional associations have played an important role in the region in developing the professions, channeling specific demands and keeping an eye on ethics in the exercise of the professions. They have also played a significant role in the democratization processes of some countries like Brazil and Chile.

The presence of women in those groups is directly related to professional segmentation: it is high in typically "feminine" professions, and low in the typically masculine ones or those with more social prestige. There are also associations with a balanced composition. The increase of women in higher education and in the labor market has enhanced participation in trade organizations. Although different countries in the region show some general trends, there are also

peculiarities regarding women's entry into professions traditionally considered as typically masculine.

However, moderate or considerable participation at the grassroots level always decreases on the boards, even in associations with a majority of women members, like teachers or psychologists.

Cases like Paraguay and the Dominican Republic are exceptional, because there are important percentages of women on the boards of professional associations considered masculine, such as lawyers, economists and architects.

Brazil is at the opposite extreme, with almost no women at all in the leadership of traditional national organizations.

**WOMEN ON BOARDS OF SELECTED PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS
LAST AVAILABLE YEAR**

Country	Year	Name of Association	Both sexes	Women	♀/Total %
BRAZIL	1990	Club de Ingenieros (Engineers)	12	1	8.3
		Asociación Brasileira de la Prensa (Journalists)	11	0	0.0
		Orden de los Abogados (Lawyers)	5	0	0.0
CHILE ⁽¹⁾	1991	Colegio de Abogados (Lawyers)	19	0	0.0
		Colegio Médico (Physicians)	22	1	4.5
		Colegio de Ingenieros (Engineers)	21	0	0.0
		Colegio de Periodistas (Journalists)	11	3	27.3
		Colegio de Psicólogos (Psychologists)	9	5	55.6
DOMINICAN REP.	1991	Asociación Dominicana de Profesores (Teachers)	5	1	20.0
		Asociación Dominicana de Abogados (Lawyers)	16	6	37.5
NICARAGUA	1994	Confederación Nacional de Maestros Indep. de Nicaragua (Ind. Teachers)	6	3	50.0
		Confederación de Profesionales de Nicaragua ⁽²⁾ (Nicaraguan Professionals)	14	2	14.3
PARAGUAY	1990	Colegio de Abogados del Paraguay (Lawyers)	14	4	28.6
		Colegio de Economistas (Economists)	16	3	18.8
		Asociación Paraguaya de Arquitectos (Architects)	9	2	22.2

Notes: (1) National Counsellors in the professional associations. (2) This organization consists of 14 professional associations and societies.

Business associations concentrate vast amounts of power, especially because market economies assign a major role to the private sector. Women's presence in those organizations is modest, and nonexistent at the highest levels of leadership in many cases. The data obtained for some of the countries bears this out, despite the difficulties involved in obtaining this type of information.

Only Nicaragua has women on the boards of this kind of organization at present. In Peru, in 1983, women were only on the board of the Association of Exporters (5.9%). In Bolivia, Brazil, and Chile there were no women among the leaders of business organizations in the years included on the chart.

In El Salvador, information was obtained about association representatives to the National Association of Private Enterprise. There the percentage of women is higher. In 1991, in Venezuela, 14 of the 301 Chambers that belong to FEDECAMARAS, the leading organization of businessmen in the country, were presided over by women (4.6%).

WOMEN ON BOARDS OF SELECTED ASSOCIATIONS OF ENTREPRENEURS

Country	Year	Name of Association	Both sexes	Women	♀/T %
BOLIVIA	1993	Confederación de Empresarios Privados de Bolivia (business)	10	0	0.0
BRAZIL	1990	Confederación Nacional de la Industria (C.N.I.) (industry)	15	0	0.0
		Confederación Nacional de Comercio (trade)	33	0	0.0
		Federación de Industrias de Río de Janeiro (industry)	26	0	0.0
		Federación de Industrias del Estado de São Paulo (industry)	28	0	0.0
CHILE	1994	Sociedad Nacional de Agricultura (agriculture)	8	0	0.0
		Asociación de Bancos (banking)	6	0	0.0
		Sociedad de Fomento Fabril ⁽¹⁾ (private industry development)	24	0	0.0
		Cámara Chilena de la Construcción (construction)	11	0	0.0
		Sociedad Nacional de Minería (mining)	15	0	0.0
EL SALVADOR	1994	Asociación Nacional de la Empresa Privada ⁽²⁾ (business)	355	18	5.1
NICARAGUA	1993	Consejo Superior de la Empresa Privada (business)	20	1	5.0
		Cámara de Comercio de Nicaragua (trade)	12	2	16.7
PERU	1983	Sociedad Nacional de Industrias (industry)	11	0	0.0
		Confederación Nacional de Comerciantes (trade)	13	0	0.0
		Asociación de Exportadores (exports)	34	2	5.9
		Club de la Banca y Comercio (banking and trade)	13	0	0.0
VENEZUELA	1991	FEDECAMARAS ⁽³⁾ (Association of Trade Chambers)	301	14	4.7

Notes: (1) Counsellors. (2) Representatives of 37 associations. (3) Chamber Presidents.

WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS AND MOVEMENTS

The beginnings of women's collective action of women -still very poorly documented- goes back to the nineteenth century in some countries in the region. There were charity groups (Argentina, 1823), groups to defend slaves (Brazil 1870), women workers groups (Uruguay, 1881; Chile, 1887), to demand the rights to education and suffrage for women (Mexico, 1870; Peru, 1870; Colombia, 1872; Brazil, 1885) and Catholic action groups (Chile, 1890). With the arrival of the present century, new groups and libertarian generations developed.

A customary instrument for their action were women's magazines and newspapers. "O Sexo Feminino", Brazil, 1885; "El Rocío", Bogotá, 1872; "Femeninas", Antioquia, 1916; and "Fémina", Santo Domingo, 1922 are some of the titles. Another tool was meetings like the feminist congresses held in Yucatán, México in 1919 and 1922 and the women's congresses in Cuba (1923 and 1925). Schools for women were also created, like the Gimnasio Paraguayo (Paraguayan Gymnasium) (1920) and the Escuela de Cultura Femenina (School of Feminine Culture) (Panama, 1924).

In a continent with a majority of rural population and substantial native Indian groups, a unique event occurred in Colombia. In 1927 about 14 thousand indigenous women endorsed the manifesto "The Rights of Native Indian women".

The first half of this century was marked by the women's groups and movements that fought for access to

education, for labor reforms, and for equality of civil and political rights with men. With slight differences in each country, women had to organize throughout almost the entire region so that the equality acknowledged in theory by democracy would be recognized in fact.

Simultaneously, women called important international meetings that garnered mutual support for this enormous task. In 1910, the First International Feminist Congress of the Argentine Republic was held, with the participation of delegates from many countries. In 1923 and 1924, Pan-American Congresses of Women were held in Chile and Peru and in 1930 the Inter-American Commission of Women, CIM, was established, holding its first meeting in Havana. The commission monitors women's progress up to the present day in the Organization of American States, OAS.

After they won the right to vote, women's movements, which had been able to bring highly differing social sectors together in this unifying cause, broke up, and many of their members joined political parties which were eagerly looking for new members and a work force that had proven to be efficient.

These processes cannot possibly be reflected here, but it is appropriate to say that the experience of those women remained in the collective memory of Latin American women, ready to be reborn in new generations.

The troubled political, economic and social history of the region has been closely intertwined with women's action, both as a factor of restraint and denial in times of dictatorship and

repressive governments, and as an encouragement in times of democracy, as well as in times of crisis, authoritarianism and violation of human rights. The class-oriented, polarized nature of Latin American societies relegates ample sectors to poverty, marginality and exclusion, which creates the appropriate conditions for the emergence of groups and movements to defend women's grievances and also alternative ways of satisfying their most urgent needs.

Beyond the immense disparate and multiple experiences that characterize the activity of women's groups and organizations, certain historical trends can be identified and these are repeated in many countries at different stages of development. On the one hand, there are the feminist roots, the struggle against the high cost of living and for subsistence; on the other hand, social aid with varied ideological orientation, and the volunteer movement. There are also progressive political currents and their expression in the labor world; and finally, the struggle for human rights and equal access to power. These tendencies, which at certain times came together in pursuit of common objectives, have created a rich organizational fabric.

"Feminism", which sought to improve women's position in society, was silenced as a specific movement once women got the vote, and only reappeared in the 1970s. Believing that obtaining civil rights alone would lead, by itself, to an equal presence in all areas of society, those women sought political action from within the parties and sacrificed their own independence.

The reappearance of feminism is linked to its development in the northern hemisphere. Consciousness-raising groups and study groups on women's status gave birth to an idea and a form of taking action that caused a major impact in the region.

Also, the political trend associated with socialism, anarchism and liberalism was submerged in the parties once suffrage was obtained. In fact, all political currents have women's contingents today, that in certain circumstances have acted with some independence and great visibility on the public scene.

Women's labor unionism at the beginning of the century was absorbed by the single unions of workers and employees, after their struggle had been institutionalized in many countries. Women's specific actions reappeared only in the 1970s and 1980s, expressed through their own organizations, in meetings and congresses of women workers, and in the formulation of demands which were sometimes included in the programs and resolutions of the union movement.

Charity and aid organizations, from which many groups of women volunteers emerged, remain active today in most countries. Without questioning the traditional roles to which women are confined, their aim is to educate them to perform those roles more efficiently and to satisfy the needs of the poorer or needier sectors. Many of these efforts were and continue to be generated by the Catholic Church.

In some cases, the governments themselves encouraged women's organizations, both in the case of women volunteers (Chile, Colombia,

Mexico, Venezuela) and in the case of grassroots organizations. With the "wives" of government officials playing active roles, women volunteers have assumed tasks of social aid and also political indoctrination, as they did in Chile under the Pinochet dictatorship (1973-1989).

Governments have also tried to bring the poor strata of society, sectors susceptible of being political clientele or ones that supported a specific political project, into social programs.

Action oriented toward the poorest sectors by organizing women was started in Chile in the 1940s; in Peru and Bolivia in the 1950s; and in Venezuela, Colombia and Ecuador in the 1960s. This action has continued in those countries and expanded to others. Clubs and mothers' centers, housewives' associations, popular women's groups are some of the most frequent names they are given. A relationship is established through public action that makes it possible to discipline those sectors and reproduce the roles -of mother, wife and housewife- that are considered appropriate for women. It also makes it possible to reach target groups with programs and benefits of an integrational nature and to encourage the development of community ties and progress at the local level. Over the years the groups have diversified and on some occasions they have specialized in specific programs, such as the soup kitchens and "glass of milk" committees in Peru, some networks of community health groups in different countries, or groups of peasants with different names in Chile and Mexico.

Groups and associations of professional women also have a

tradition on the continent that goes back to the first women university graduates (Argentina, Chile, Central America).

The economic crisis of the 1980s caused international organizations to refer to those years as the "lost decade", because of zero growth in the economies in the region; however, from the perspective of women's organizations and movements, it was the decade of the greatest development and visibility.

A women's movement emerged at that time which mobilized, on different mass action levels, to improve women's status and living conditions, and to achieve legal reforms and the return of democracy, helped by United Nations organizations from the time of the International Year of Women (Mexico, 1975), the adoption of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979), and subsequent Conferences held for evaluation purposes.

The combination of these processes has resulted in an extensive network of women's groups, whose multiple objectives make it hard to provide a valid classification for all countries. At the same time, the data available is deficient. Many of these organizations and groups are short-lived, which does not mean they do not have an impact on specific events. The initiatives arise in thousands of places, and it is impossible to trace them and know about all of them. On the other hand, women themselves do not record their actions and there has not been, except occasionally, an official or non-governmental entity interested in investigating, quantifying and analyzing the diverse women's groups.

Popular Women's Organizations

It is particularly difficult to provide an account of grassroots women's organizations in working class sectors; their existence is related to survival, community life, and the working class woman's way of being. It was only possible to include data -incomplete- for Bolivia, Chile and Peru, countries that are known for their tradition of grassroots organizations. The figures presented, however, make it possible to visualize the sizes of the networks compared with other women's sectors.

The working class women's movement in Peru started with the mother's clubs of the 1950s, encouraged by the aid policy applied by governments. It also grew out of union practices in times of strike -soup kitchens organized by the workers' wives- and in the migrants' takeovers of land and their mobilizations demanding services and infrastructure. In the 1960s, Committees of Miners Wives appeared, and at the end of the 1970s, with the economic crisis, free meal programs, and later the "Glass of Milk" committees (1984), production workshops and health committees, among others, began to emerge. At first, there were only 220 popular free meal programs in Lima but in 1990, as a result of the adjustment measures implemented by the Fujimori administration, they reached 7,030. In 1984, they held the First Meeting of Free Meal Programs of Lima and Callao, initiating a process of increasing coordination among the organizations through federations and later in the National Commission of Free Meal Programs.


The existence of these groups has a strong impact on women's lives and gives legitimacy to a sociability that changes women's experience. In some cases, participation in the organization gradually provides women with a capacity for leadership that leads to growing independence vis-à-vis the agencies that created them and enhances their negotiating capacity with the authorities.

This is the case of the Glass of Milk Municipal Program, which became a law with state financing thanks to mobilization by women. The case of the Popular Federation of Women of Villa El Salvador, FEPOMUVES, in Lima was similar. By 1983 there were 10,000 women in this federation, and

its leader, M. Elena Moyano, became Lieutenant Mayor of Villa El Salvador. She was assassinated in 1992 when Shining Path entered the popular neighborhoods of Lima and attacked women's organizations.

In Brazil, in the early 1960s, the Catholic Church encouraged the establishment of Mothers' Clubs in neighborhoods and shanty-towns. In the 1970s, the clubs adopted a more political attitude and created the movement against the Rising Cost of Living (MCV) which acquired national dimensions in 1972, collecting thousands of signatures for its "Letter from Mothers on the Outskirts".

WOMEN'S GRASSROOTS ORGANIZATIONS IN BOLIVIA, CHILE AND PERU



Country	Year	N°
BOLIVIA ⁽¹⁾	1987	3,844
CHILE ⁽²⁾	1991	10,496
PERU ⁽³⁾	1991	14,851

Notes: (1) Mothers' Clubs that received food through the PL460 Program and the Oficina Nacional de Alimentos, OFINAAL. (2) Mothers' centers, popular economic self-help groups, groups of female "pobladoras" and peasants. (3) Soup-kitchens and "Glass of Milk" Committees in Metropolitan Lima.

WOMEN'S SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	Year	N°
BRAZIL	1987	303
CHILE	1991	245
COLOMBIA ⁽¹⁾	1988	85
DOMINICAN REP.	1992	22
ECUADOR	1991	62
MEXICO ⁽²⁾	1992	369
PANAMA	1988	44
PARAGUAY	1993	26
URUGUAY	1991	89
VENEZUELA	1993	32

Notes: (1) Only organizations located in Bogotá. (2) States of Sonora, Yucatán, and Federal District (Mexico City).

In Bolivia, the National Confederation of Mothers' Clubs was established in 1980 to improve the living conditions of working class families.

In Colombia 57,000 community mothers created the Association of Community Mothers for a Better Colombia (AMCOLOMBIA) in 1991.

Women are the most active members of the urban working class movement in Mexico. In 1983, they held the First National Meeting of Women of the Urban Working Class Movement and created the Women's Regional Organization of the Valley of Mexico. Since then, they have participated both in its activities at grassroots level and in the broader women's movement.

In Argentina, as of 1983, housewives unions started to appear in different provinces, demanding salaries and retirement benefits for housewives. In 1984 they held their First National Meeting and started a campaign for their demands, adding the rights of common-law wives and protection for violence against women.

For this working class world, the limited records that are available, all incomplete and insufficient, make it possible to construct an image of other women's organizations (not grassroots). The groups included are the ones that have endured over time, with a history of women's action, although their purposes, sizes and degrees of development are different.

Labor Unions

In the early 1980s in several countries there already were women's commissions and secretariats in unions, federations and

confederations, which now are making progress in coordination. This is the case in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Uruguay, where women workers have held several Meetings. In Argentina, two inter-union women's groups were established in late 1984, the General Committee of Union Women and the National Movement of Union Women.

Special mention should be made of household workers, a sector that is particularly unprotected and overexploited. In Chile, Colombia and Venezuela they have a long tradition of organization; in the Dominican Republic they held a National Meeting of Domestic Workers in 1984; in Bolivia departmental federations have multiplied and they provide training and sports activities for their members, who are mostly migrants from the country.

Peasant Women's Organizations

In rural areas women have had to overcome many disadvantages compared with urban organizations. However, there are countries with important traditions. In others, the State has played an initial role, with the groups acquiring increasing independence based on practice. This is the case in Colombia with the National Association of Peasant and Indigenous Women (ANMUCIC) and Honduras with the National Association of Peasant Women (ANAMUC).

From the late 1970s onwards, rural women workers appear as specific social actors in Brazil. In 1982, the Women Workers Movement joined country women from Paraíba, and in 1984 the Movements and Organizations of Working Class

Women of Paraná were brought together, consolidating a rural-urban connection that was crucial to the big demonstrations for agrarian reform. The Movement of Agricultural Women gathered 4,000 women in 1985 in Chapecó alone.

In Bolivia, the National Federation of Peasant Women "Bartolina Sisa" was established in 1980 to organize and orient peasant women toward active participation in social, economic and political claims, making them independent from the positions of the men's labor unions. It has held various congresses strengthening its independence and gender identity.

Honduras has many organizations of peasant women, including ANAMUC (1974), the Honduran Federation of Peasant Women (1978), the Committee for the Integral Development of Peasant Women (CODIMCA, 1985) and the Catholic Group of Peasant Women. In the Dominican Republic, the National Confederation of Peasant Women, CONAMUCA, was created in 1983. In Paraguay, there were 80 groups of women peasants and small farmers in 1982.

Indigenous Organizations

In Bolivia, Aymara women and those who belong to ethnic groups from the eastern part of the country have formed their own organizations to defend their culture, land and territories. Indigenous women in Ecuador have held several National Meetings. In El Salvador they organized the Association of Indigenous Women (AMIS). In Colombia they have fought to protect their land by holding forums and community meetings. Indigenous women in Mexico are actively involved in Chiapas in hopes of receiving fair treatment.

Women from different ethnic groups attended, with their testimonies and demands, the Regional Forum of Latin America and the Caribbean, held in preparation for the IV World Conference of Women in Mar del Plata (1994).

Black Women

Black women have gradually organized in some countries in the region like Brazil and Uruguay. In the latter, the First National Meeting of Black Women took place in 1988.

In 1992, the First Meeting of Black Women of Latin America and the Caribbean was held in Santo Domingo, sponsored by the Movement for Black Women's Identity of the Dominican Republic. Participants included 300 women from 20 countries, and a network of

Afro-Latin American black women was established. In 1994, the First Latin American Seminar "Black Women and Human Rights in Afro-American Communities" was held in Lima, with the participation of many countries. Like native Indian women, they were present at the Regional Forum held in Mar del Plata.

Human Rights Organizations

The traumatic political situation experienced by many of the region's peoples has given rise to one of the most significant trends in women's organization and leadership in the past decades. Undoubtedly, the Paraguayan Commission for the Defense of Human Rights, headed by Carmen Lara, was the organization that started this tradition in 1967, during the Stroessner dictatorship. In fact, in the 1970s the enhanced

activism of Paraguayan women was linked to the defense and advancement of human rights. In 1972, Brazilian women continued with the Women's Movement for Amnesty, formed to denounce human rights violations by the military dictatorship, and in 1973, Chilean women also became involved with the Association of Democratic Women and in 1975 through the Association of Relatives of Missing Detainees, while under the Pinochet dictatorship. Military brutality in Argentina led hundreds of women to join the Mothers Movement of the Plaza de Mayo (1977), which became a symbol of opposition to the dictatorship. They were soon joined by the Grandmothers of the Plaza de Mayo. This picture of human rights organizations in the Southern Cone was completed in 1982, when the

WOMEN'S HUMAN RIGHTS ASSOCIATIONS OR THOSE INVOLVING MAJOR FEMALE PARTICIPATION, BY YEAR OF ESTABLISHMENT

Country	Year established	Name in Spanish
ARGENTINA	1977	Madres de la Plaza de Mayo
	...	Abuelas de la Plaza de Mayo
BRAZIL	1972	Movimiento Femenino por la Amnistía
CHILE	1973	Agrupación de Mujeres Democráticas
	1975	Agrupación de Familiares de Detenidos Desaparecidos, AFDD
	1978	Agrupación de Familiares de Ejecutados Políticos
COLOMBIA	...	Asociación de Familiares de Detenidos Desaparecidos, ASFADDES
EL SALVADOR	1980	Comité de Madres y Familiares de Presos, Desaparecidos y Asesinados Políticos de El Salvador "Monseñor Oscar Arnulfo Romero", COMADRES
	1983	Comité de Madres Pro Libertad de Presos Políticos "Marianela García Villas", CODEFAM
	1985	Comité de Madres y Familiares Cristianos "Padre Octavio-Hermana Silvia", COMAFAC
	1987	Federación de Madres de Presos, Desaparecidos y Asesinados Políticos de El Salvador "Monseñor Romero", FECEMAFAM
GUATEMALA	1984	Grupo de Ayuda Mutua, GAM
	1988	Coordinadora Nacional de Viudas de Guatemala, CONAVIGUA
HONDURAS	...	Comité de Familiares de Desaparecidos de Honduras, COFADEH
	1984	Comité Hondureño por la Paz "Visitación Padilla"
NICARAGUA	...	Movimiento de Madres "22 de enero"
PANAMA	...	Comité de Familiares de las Víctimas de la Invasión a Panamá
PARAGUAY	1983	Comisión de Defensa de los Derechos Humanos del Paraguay
		Comisión Permanente de Familiares de Desaparecidos y Asesinados, CPFDA
PERU	1985	Coordinadora Nacional de Derechos Humanos
URUGUAY	1982	Grupo de Madres y Familiares de Procesados por la Justicia Militar
VENEZUELA	1981	Comité Luto Activo



Group of Mothers and Relatives of Individuals Processed by Military Justice was established in Uruguay.

In Colombia, Peru, and Venezuela, the military and the police have been responsible for arbitrary acts committed under democratic governments. Thus, the Active Mourning Committee to fight for justice (1981), the Association of Relatives of Missing Detainees, and the National Coordinating Committee of Human Rights (1985) were created in those countries, respectively.

Central American countries have experienced a dramatic situation during their long years of civil war. El Salvador has many organizations of mothers of the victims of repression, especially the COMADRES, the "Monseñor Oscar Arnulfo Romero" Committee of Mothers and Relatives of Political Prisoners, Disappeared and Murdered Persons of El Salvador, created in 1980. In Guatemala, this struggle is symbolized by the Mutual Aid Group (1984) and the National Coordinating Committee of Widows of Guatemala, CONAVIGUA (1988), and in Honduras by the Committee of Relatives of Disappeared Persons.

In Panama, the last United States invasion (December, 1989) gave rise to the Committee of Relatives of Victims of the Invasion of Panama.

Most of these organizations have been coordinated through the Latin American Federation of Relatives of Disappeared Persons, FEDEFAM, with a female leadership who appeals to regional and international conscience for respect for human dignity and justice.

The Feminist Movement

Feminist revivals occurred in some countries earlier than others, influenced by the dictatorships and military conflicts in the region. Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Mexico and Venezuela saw the first groups early in the 1970s, followed by Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Peru in the late 1970s, and lastly by Bolivia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama and Paraguay, from the 1980s onwards.

In Mexico, against the backdrop of the events of 1968, which culminated tragically with the murder of hundreds of young people in Tlatelolco square, a new feminism arose, which united middle class women who sympathized with the left. The First United Nations World Conference on Women, held in Mexico, strengthened the budding movement. In 1976, the Coalition of Feminist Women was created. It demanded voluntary maternity, fought against sexual violence and favored free sexual choice.

A great number of feminist groups developed in Colombia in the 1970s. They brought to public attention the issues of sexuality, abortion and the freedom to decide about one's body. In 1978 they held a national meeting and in 1981 they organized the First Feminist Meeting of Latin America and the Caribbean, attended by feminists from the entire region.

In Argentina, consciousness-raising groups and centers for feminist studies were created in the 1970s. In the late 1970s in Peru, groups of left-wing women started to denounce the existence of a sex-gender system that enslaves women. They established

important centers like Flora Tristán or the Manuela Ramos Movement. Based on personal reflection and critical review, they developed a feminist political perspective, and in 1985 two of their leaders participated in parliamentary elections.

The International Year of Women (1975) gave rise to conditions in Brazil for discussion and organization in a situation where public liberties were restricted. With the seminar "The Role and Behavior of Women in Brazil" a new stage began: groups multiplied, magazines and newspapers were created and, in 1979, the First Congress of Paulist Women was held, starting a tradition there and in other cities.

In Chile the revival of feminism occurred under the military dictatorship and its slogan "Democracy in the country and at home" spread all over Latin America, and at present forms part of the tradition of the women's movement worldwide.

The Dominican Republic has an active feminist movement, encouraged by the Research Center for Women's Action, CIPAF. The Coordinating Committee of Feminist Organizations was created in 1981.

Latin American feminism has special features because, in many countries, it blends sensitivity and proximity with popular subsistence groups and human rights organizations. Feminist groups in Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Mexico and Peru make special efforts to approach working class women and to establish forms of collaboration with them. It is therefore a form of feminism that crosses different social sectors, linking them, transforming the particular views each one has. The history of many women leaders is an account of this process.

Today this movement is embodied in organizations, collectives, NGOs, academic centers, women's centers, magazines, books, radio programs and many artistic expressions throughout the whole region. Impacted by the poverty in the different countries, the precarious nature of democracy, environmental deterioration and also by women's persistent isolation, the movement establishes dialogues and forms part of political parties, while contributing, through many of its members, to designing public policies for women. It had an outstanding presence at the World Summit on the Environment in Brazil (1992), at the World Conference on Population and Development at Cairo (1994) and at the Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen (1995).

This feminist movement expanded the calendar of coordinated actions by means of the Day of Action for Women's Health (May 28) and the Day of No More Violence against Women (November 25).

Women's Movement

As of the 1980s, various women's organizations started to come together in different countries and this is how the "Movimiento Amplio de Mujeres," as it has been called in Mexico, was born. Despite individual features, depending on political contexts, the experience of countries that had military dictatorships stands out. Amidst the authoritarianism that pervaded public life, authoritarianism became evident in private life. Awareness of women's subordinate status extended beyond feminist collectives that were already carrying out consciousness-raising workshops. "Machismo" which aggravated their poor living

conditions also became more visible among groups of working women and those from poor urban sectors.

The women's social movement -understood as a plural, heterogeneous and dynamic collective social actor- is not a linear, homogeneous, and unique process or one led by a single group or tendency: it involves varied processes and protagonisms. It has moments of

great visibility and periods of latency. It is a movement where women of different classes, ethnic groups, beliefs and political standpoints converge: it is multi-class, multi-ethnic and pluralistic. Different tendencies develop within the movement, following their own processes, strategies and proposals. Nevertheless, bonds of solidarity are forged and alliances are built.

WOMEN'S NETWORKS AND COORDINATING COMMITTEES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

Country	Year	N°
ARGENTINA	1993	8
BOLIVIA	1994	11
BRAZIL ⁽²⁾	1987	18
CHILE	1991	8
COLOMBIA	1993	5
COSTA RICA	1993	4
CUBA	-	-
DOMINICAN REP.	1993	1
ECUADOR	1992	5
EL SALVADOR	1993	4
GUATEMALA	1989	1
HONDURAS	1989	1
MEXICO	1991	10
NICARAGUA	1993	4
PANAMA ⁽³⁾	1993	2
PARAGUAY	1993	4
PERU	1992	11
URUGUAY ⁽⁴⁾	1991	7
VENEZUELA	1993	8

Notes: (1) Includes networks and coordinating committees of NGOs, and women's social organizations. (2) Includes federations, movements and networks; only two of which are national organizations. (3) Includes the Forum of women in political parties. (4) Includes coordinating committees, federations and networks.

WOMEN'S REGIONAL NETWORKS BY YEAR OF ESTABLISHMENT

Country	Year when established
Red de Salud de las Mujeres Latinoamericanas y del Caribe (Latin American and Caribbean Women's Health Network)	1984
Red de Educación Popular entre Mujeres, REPEM (Women's Popular Education Network)	1989
Red Latinoamericana y del Caribe contra la Violencia Doméstica y Sexual (Latin American and Caribbean Network against Domestic and Sexual Violence)	1990
Confederación Latinoamericana y del Caribe de Trabajadoras del Hogar (CONLACTRAHO) (Latin American and Caribbean Network of Household Workers)	1987

Source: FLACSO-Chile, Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Cifras' Data Base, Santiago, 1995.

Source: FLACSO-Chile, Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Cifras' Data Base, Santiago, 1995.

Coordinating committees and networks of organizations and groups are a work system that has become customary in the women's movement in the last few years. For example, in countries where dictatorships were ending, women's political coordinating committees backed and participated in the processes of transition to democracy (e.g. Chile, Paraguay, Uruguay). At present there are territorial and political networks, and some that address specific issues. Their purpose is to organize women with specific objectives in mind. Networks dealing with health and reproductive rights, violence against women, popular education, etc., include nongovernmental organizations specialized in each subject and women's organizations. In some countries, networks exist for women's political action (Panama, Paraguay, Uruguay, Bolivia, Venezuela). Networks of women town counselors or alderwomen have recently been created in Paraguay and Bolivia. This type of concerted organizations has developed in almost all countries in the region, with Bolivia, Brazil, Mexico and Peru as outstanding examples because of their numbers.

Cuba is a different situation. The Federation of Cuban Women had 74,000 delegations in 1992, made up of 50 to 100 women each. This is a vast network that has participated actively in national tasks like literacy campaigns, vaccinations and inspections, a situation that cannot be compared to that in other countries in the region.

The Regional Domain

Since the beginning of this century women have sought spaces in which to exchange information and make international connections. Meetings, Conferences and Congresses have

taken place, with Feminist Meetings and networks and their regular meetings being particularly outstanding. The ones with the longest history are the Health Network of Latin American and Caribbean Women, the Network of Popular Education among Women, CEPEM, and the Latin American and Caribbean Network against Domestic and Sexual Violence.

Labor unions and groups of domestic workers also created the Latin American and Caribbean Confederation of Domestic Workers, CONLACTRAHO, in 1987. They are dedicated to promoting the organization of this particularly neglected sector of female workers.

Feminist Meetings have greatly stimulated the feminist movement and the women's movement in the region. From 1981 on, hundreds of women have met to discuss crucial issues: double militancy -i.e. political and feminist-, the class struggle, sexuality, abortion, sexual choice, physical and mental health, the problems of older women, popular feminism, etc. Each meeting has

revealed the diverse expressions and experiences that give life to the movement.

In 1993, as regional events drew near in preparation for the IV World Conference on Women, to be held in Beijing (1995), women in the movement got together to appoint a coordinator for the Forum of Latin American NGOs. Virginia Vargas, feminist leader of the Flora Tristán Center (Peru), together with the sub-regional and national coordinating committees encouraged the broadest debate to influence the Regional Action Program for Latin American and Caribbean Women, 1995-2000, agreed upon by governments at the Regional Conference on the Integration of Women to Economic and Social Development in Latin America and the Caribbean, which was held at Mar del Plata in September 1994. They received significant backing from United Nations organizations. Some women in the movement formed part of official country delegations and were able to act in concert in support of previously prepared proposals.

MEETINGS OF FEMINISTS IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Country		Place
1981	First Meeting	Bogotá, Colombia
1983	Second Meeting	Lima, Perú
1985	Third Meeting	Bertioga, Brazil
1987	Fourth Meeting	Taxco, Mexico
1990	Fifth Meeting	San Bernardo, Argentina
1994	Sixth Meeting	San Salvador, El Salvador
1996	Seventh Meeting	Chile ⁽¹⁾

Note: (1) Planned to be held in Chile though still to be confirmed.



ACTION AIMED AT WOMEN

Governmental Action

The United Nations International Conference on Women, held in Mexico in 1975 under the slogan "Equality, Development and Peace", marked a milestone in government action to improve women's status. Along with a commitment to a Plan of Action, in 1979 the governments approved the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

Although some countries in the region had created government agencies to address women's problems before 1980, it was not until

the Convention took effect, and its regulations which provide for establishing the "national machinery for the advancement of women", that government organizations specializing in this subject proliferated.

In 1994, almost all countries in the region had such a mechanism in the Executive Branch. Only Mexico and Colombia lack a special agency, although the Council for Social Policy in Colombia drew up a policy of participation and equality for women. The rank and institutional position, political power, resources and technical authority of the corresponding agency varies in the remaining countries.

Some organizations were established as a result of the process initiated by

the United Nations in 1975, whereas others derived from the social action of First Ladies -as the wives of Presidents are called- and still others arose in response to the women's movement. The latter is the case in countries where dictatorships ended with processes of democratic recovery in which women played a significant role, thereby making legitimate their demand for an institutional place in government. Such is the case in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay.

The institutional rank of those organizations varies, and it affects the influence they wield within the government. Some have been created by law and others by presidential decree, and are therefore endowed with different degrees of political and social legitimacy.

**GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS SPECIALIZING IN WOMEN, BY YEAR OF ESTABLISHMENT
(NATIONAL MACHINERY FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN)**

Country	Year when established	Name	Agency
ARGENTINA	1992	Consejo Nacional de la Mujer (CONAMU)	Office of the President
BOLIVIA	1993	Subsecretaría de Asuntos de Género (SAG)	Ministry of Human Development
BRAZIL	1995	Consejo Nacional de los Derechos de la Mujer	Ministry of Justice
CHILE	1991	Servicio Nacional de la Mujer (SERNAM)	Ministry of Planning and Cooperation
COLOMBIA	1985	Consejo Presidencial para la Política Social	Office of the President
COSTA RICA	1986	Centro Nacional para el Desarrollo de la Mujer y la Familia	Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports
CUBA	1960	Federación de Mujeres Cubanas	
DOMINICAN REP.	1982	Dirección General de Promoción de la Mujer	Office of the President
ECUADOR	1986	Dirección Nacional de la Mujer (DINAMU)	Ministry of Social Welfare
EL SALVADOR	1989	Secretaría Nacional de la Familia	Ministry of the Presidency
GUATEMALA	1981	Oficina Nacional de la Mujer (ONAM)	Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare
HONDURAS	1994	Oficina Gubernamental de la Mujer	Office of the President
MEXICO	1994	Comité Nacional Coordinador para la IV Conferencia Mundial de la Mujer (Beijing 1995)	
NICARAGUA	1987	Instituto Nicaraguense de la Mujer (INIM)	Ministry of the Presidency
PANAMA	1993	Departamento de la Mujer	Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare
PARAGUAY	1992	Secretaría de la Mujer	Office of the President
PERU	1994	Comisión Permanente de los Derechos de la Mujer y el Niño	Ministry of Justice
URUGUAY	1992	Instituto Nacional de la Familia y de la Mujer	Ministry of Education and Culture
VENEZUELA	1993	Consejo Nacional de la Mujer	Office of the President

Notes: (1) In 1993, the President also established the Cabinet of Presidential Counsellors. (2) Despite the fact that the Federación de Mujeres Cubanas is not a government agency it operates in that capacity and its President is a member of the State Council and represents Cuba at events related to women's affairs at ECLAC and the United Nations.

In some cases their Secretary or Director forms part of the Cabinet. Attachment to one ministry or another, and budget allocation determine, to a large extent, their capacity to propose or develop public policies for women.

In countries where these agencies are attached to a ministry, situations vary considerably, i.e. women's problems are associated to other spheres: in Uruguay to Education and Culture, in Ecuador to Social Welfare, in Peru and Brazil to Justice, in Chile to Planning and Cooperation, in Panama and Guatemala to Labor.

Their different legal and institutional status reveals the instability of these national machinery and their dependency on circumstances and changes in the Executive Branch, and on economic situations. If the agencies report only to the President of the Republic, and lack established legal regulations, they are more vulnerable. Such was the case in Colombia with the last change in government. In Brazil and Argentina, economic crises directly affected the reduction of organizations that were established once the dictatorships were over.

However, despite their precarious nature, these national machinery reveal the space earned by women and constitute a potentially useful tool for improving women's status.

Generally speaking, these agencies are mainly devoted to women-oriented policy formulation and to including a gender approach in policies defined by other government units. Many such agencies have performed important work in bringing about legislative changes. Others have helped in the sphere of

intra-family violence, training of public officials, dissemination and advisory assistance on women's rights, research and documentation.

Argentina is experiencing a special situation. The President created a Cabinet of Women Presidential Counselors to advise him on subjects related to the advancement of women. In Cuba, the Federation of Cuban Women - a nongovernmental organization - serves as a national mechanism. In fact, its President participates in the Council of State and represents Cuba at international organizations and events for women.

These national agencies are responsible for submitting regular

reports to the United Nations Committee for the Advancement of Women, once the Convention on discrimination against women has been ratified. They also prepared national reports submitted to the Regional Conference on the Integration of Women to the Social and Economic Development of Latin America and the Caribbean, in preparation for the IV World Conference to be held in Beijing (1995). They participated actively in the discussion of the Plan of Action.

All countries in the region have women's programs in other government sections. Most of them have women's health programs, generally as part of the

PROGRAMS FOR WOMEN IN MINISTRIES AND OTHER STATE AGENCIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

Country	Year	Ministries and other Agencies	Provincial government offices
ARGENTINA ⁽¹⁾	1994	9	16
BOLIVIA	1993	9	—
BRAZIL ⁽¹⁾	1991	1	11
CHILE	1994	4	13
COLOMBIA	1993	12	—
COSTA RICA	1993	6	—
CUBA	1993	8	—
DOMINICAN REP.	1989	10	—
ECUADOR	1991	10	—
EL SALVADOR	1988	1	—
GUATEMALA	1991	10	—
HONDURAS	1988	1	—
MÉXICO	1994	15	1
NICARAGUA	1994	9	—
PANAMA	1993	9	—
PARAGUAY	1993	11	—
PERU	1992	20	—
URUGUAY	1993	6	2
VENEZUELA	1991	10	19 ⁽²⁾

Note: (1) Government action is carried out through the States and Provinces. (2) Information for 1994.

Pan-American Health Organization program "Women, Health and Development". Often, Agriculture, Education and Labor Ministries also undertake specific actions for sectors of women: in rural development, technological transfer, literacy, adult education or skills development. Some countries have programs in the Ministries of Justice, Foreign Affairs or Interior.

Government action in federal countries also takes place at the state or provincial level. In Brazil, there were eleven State Councils or Secretariats of Women's Rights in 1991, of which the one in Sao Paulo is the most important. The Councils created a National Forum of Women Presidents of Councils and Secretariats that has kept the work that is being done for women linked nationally regardless of the political

and economic crises that have affected the country. Argentina had sixteen provincial organizations in 1994. In Mexico, only Guerrero has a state organization for women. Venezuela had 23 State Offices for Women in 1988, and in Chile 13 regional governments have a Women's Department.

Some countries, like Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela, have created women's offices in departments and municipalities. They try to develop programs for women at the local level, to establish links with grassroots organizations, and to give them information and advice.

As of 1989, some governments started to develop actions to promote equal opportunities for men and women. Uruguay was the pioneer with its

Equal Treatment and Job Opportunities law. In 1990, Costa Rica approved a law fostering women's social equality and Venezuela approved a law on Equal Opportunities for Women in 1993. In Bolivia, women's organizations presented Parliament with a bill proposing "equality for Bolivian women". In Sao Paulo, Brazil, the Paulist Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women was approved in 1992.

Other governments have formulated Equal Opportunity Plans through specific measures in different areas, like Argentina -in employment and education-, Chile recently, with a far-reaching Plan covering different issues, and Colombia with its Policy of Participation and Equity for Women.

MINISTRIES WITH PROGRAMS FOR WOMEN, AROUND 1992

Country	Ministries						
	Education	Public Health	Agriculture	Labor and Social Welfare	Justice	Foreign Affairs	Interior
ARGENTINA	♀	♀	♀	♀		♀	
BOLIVIA		♀	♀	♀	♀		
BRAZIL ⁽¹⁾		♀					
CHILE	♀	♀	♀	♀			
COLOMBIA	♀	♀	♀				
COSTA RICA	♀	♀			♀		
CUBA	♀	♀	♀	♀			
DOMINICAN REP.	♀	♀	♀	♀			
ECUADOR		♀	♀	♀			
EL SALVADOR	♀	♀	♀	♀			
GUATEMALA	♀	♀	♀	♀			
HONDURAS		♀	♀		♀		
MÉXICO	♀	♀	♀				
NICARAGUA	♀	♀	♀	♀			
PANAMA		♀	♀	♀	♀	♀	
PARAGUAY	♀	♀	♀	♀	♀	♀	♀
PERU	♀	♀	♀	♀			
URUGUAY			♀	♀			♀
VENEZUELA			♀				

Note: (1) At the Federal level in Brazil, only the Ministry of Public Health has a program target at women. Each State has its own programs.

In other countries -like the Dominican Republic, Panama and Paraguay- women's organizations have initiated a debate on this subject and have proposed Plans.

Non-Governmental Action

Action in favor of women in many countries in the region was developed by nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) before state action started. In some cases there is a tradition of action by non-profit social advancement agencies. In other countries, authoritarian regimes were periods that encouraged professionals and social scientists in the opposition to create alternative institutions where they could investigate and accompany underprivileged social sectors. Motivated by the United Nations Decade for Women, NGOs specializing in the work of, with, and for women were established.

NGO contribution is unquestionable and they played an irreplaceable role in documenting women's status and providing the data needed to prepare public policies to benefit women. In fact, the action of government organizations is based to a large extent on their studies, proposals and programs. Because of their size, technical qualification and creativity they have been able to address the main problems faced by women and to design worthwhile actions. Many NGOs are linked to or are part of the feminist and women's movement and contribute to the contents and specific methodologies used in work with women.

Except for Cuba, which is in a special situation, all the countries in the region have important NGOs devoted to the advancement of women. Although existing records are incomplete or partial, the information available makes it

possible to envision this reality. Some NGOs are mixed and have a program for women; others specialize in the subject. They primarily develop action programs, and the ratio of those that do research varies in each country.

The objectives and issues addressed by NGOs differ considerably and include social advancement, community development, housing, education, rural development, reproductive health, women's rights, support of women's organizations, domestic violence, production, training and education, legal assistance, psychological assistance, women's human rights. Some NGOs develop micro-media, have a magazine, or regular publications. There are some that produce radio programs for women.

INSTRUMENTS TO ENSURE EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN

Country	Name	Responsible Agency
ARGENTINA	Plan for Equal Opportunity for Women 1993-1994 (Education and Employment Programs)	National Council for Women
BOLIVIA	Equal Rights Bill for Bolivian Women	Parliament: project submitted by women's organizations
BRAZIL	Paulista Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination Against Women	Sao Paulo State
CHILE	Plan for Equal Opportunity for Women 1994-2000	National Agency for Women, SERNAM
COLOMBIA	Policy on Participation and Equity for Women	Councillorship for Social Policy
COSTA RICA	Law N° 7142 to Promote Social Equality for Women (1990)	Legislative Assembly
DOMINICAN REP.	Equal Opportunity Plan for Women	NGOs, political parties, women's organizations and grassroots associations
PANAMA	Discussion process was started	NGOs
PARAGUAY	Discussion process was started	Equality Group (NGOs of political Women)
URUGUAY	Law on Equal Treatment and Opportunities in employment (1989)	National Congress
VENEZUELA	Law on Equal Opportunities for Women (1993)	National Congress

Most are concentrated in urban areas, although in some countries there are important NGOs in rural areas, working with native Indian groups and black communities.

The cooperation of women's NGOs with government organizations in developing specific programs is increasingly more common. In fact, public programs for women are carried out by NGOs in some countries.

In La Paz (Bolivia), Panama, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela women's NGOs are coordinated to exchange experiences and multiply the impact of their action.

NGOs that specialize in women frequently stem from women's social organizations that were organized into institutions so as to develop their activity more systematically and channel resources from abroad or from governments. Thus one hears talk of the "ngo-ization" of women's social organizations. The requirements of institutional operation distinguish NGOs from more the independent logic of women's organizations. However, this does not keep them from participating in the movement, where they continue to make important contributions in terms of contents and methodology.

In some countries, like Chile, Colombia and Venezuela, there are NGOs that operate like Women's Centers. These Centers are specific places for women that belong to them. In general, they provide activities in education, training, skills development, recreation and advisory services in the areas of law, health and sexuality. Because they are part of a specific community they play an

important role, and community leaders develop there.

There is very little quantitative information on this subject and what is available is incomplete. However, it does account in one way or another for this form of action for and by women.

NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS (NGO'S) WITH ACTION ORIENTED TOWARD WOMEN, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR

Country	Year	NGOs			Carry out research ⁽¹⁾	
		Special women	With programs and/or benefits for women	Total	N°	%
ARGENTINA	1991	22	66	88	58	65.9
BOLIVIA ⁽²⁾	1989	23	24	47	1	2.1
BRAZIL	1989	98	17	115	41	35.7
CHILE	1991	38	121	159	44	27.7
COLOMBIA ⁽³⁾	---	---	---	---	---	---
COSTA RICA	1993	19	15	34	6	17.6
CUBA	-	-	-	-	-	-
DOMINICAN REP.	1991	20	21	41	2	4.9
ECUADOR	1992	20	45	65	31	47.7
EL SALVADOR	1991	8	5	13	4	30.8
GUATEMALA	1991	12	12	24	5	20.8
HONDURAS	1991	7	13	20	4	20.0
MEXICO	1992	177	43	220	21	9.5
NICARAGUA	1993	15	40	55	8	14.5
PANAMA ⁽⁴⁾	1991	25	11	36	3	8.3
PARAGUAY	1991	2	13	15	7	46.7
PERU	1991	42	35	77	14	18.2
URUGUAY	1991	21	15	36	18	50.0
VENEZUELA	1991	12	3	15	3	20.0



Note: (1) Academic or research/action-oriented NGOs. (2) Not included: 55 NGOs that did not specify their project. Only one NGO stated that it carried out research. (3) In 1989, 101 women-oriented action projects were reported as performed by NGOs. (4) Both sexes NGOs and women NGOs.

Some countries have Women's Centers created by public organizations; in others, they report to an NGO that does not specialize in women. The case of Cuba merits special mention: in 1994 the Federation of Cuban Women created 155 Guidance Houses for Women and the Family which provide advisory assistance and information on women's rights and how to claim them. They are open to women who are housewives, workers, rural women, heads of household, teenage mothers and senior citizens.

Special programs and departments developed in public and private universities are another women-oriented action of increasing significance.

This experience has undoubtedly achieved its most considerable development in Brazil. In 1991 there were Women's Studies Nuclei at 23 state and private universities. The Nuclei, while educating professionals on gender-related issues, produce important research and reflections that contribute to policies and programs, and the work of women's social organizations.

Action Aimed at Violence Against Women

Violence against women is one of the most widespread phenomena in the region, where the subordination and oppression of women is dramatically apparent.

Undeniably rooted in culture, the image whereby man is the woman's owner or "head" in marriage has caused violence to be exercised against women, whether it is physical, psychological or sexual. Latin American Civil Codes are based largely on the Napoleonic model. The codes

CASAS DE LA MUJER (WOMEN'S CENTERS), IN SELECTED COUNTRIES, LAST AVAILABLE YEAR



Country	Year	N°
BRAZIL	1987	6
CHILE	1991	22
CUBA ⁽¹⁾	1994	155
NICARAGUA	1993	4
PANAMA	1994	2
PARAGUAY	1994	2
PERU	1992	11
VENEZUELA ⁽²⁾	1994	31

Note: (1) Centers that provide guidance and counselling for women and families in municipalities. (2) Includes municipal, state, and NGO-operated Women's Centers.

WOMEN'S STUDIES: PROGRAMS AND DEPARTMENTS AT UNIVERSITIES

Country	Year	Programs and Professorships
ARGENTINA	1994	2
BOLIVIA	1995	1
BRAZIL	1991	23
CHILE	1994	4
COLOMBIA	1994	6
COSTA RICA	1993	1
CUBA	1993	9
DOMINICAN REP.	1989	1
EL SALVADOR	1993	1
MEXICO	1994	13
NICARAGUA	1994	1
PANAMA	1993	1
PARAGUAY	1993	1
PERU	1992	1
URUGUAY	1993	1
VENEZUELA	1991	4



contain the figure of marital authority, whereby women's status as civil persons ended upon marriage, placing them in a situation in which they owe obedience to their husbands, who administers their property. The practical consequence was the idea that women were comparable to children who should be "punished" if they failed to obey patriarchal authority.

Although most countries have modified these aberrations in their Civil Codes -except for El Salvador-, this practice still persists.

Violence against women has been brought to the attention of public conscience through the action of the feminist movement which escalated in the 1980s and established November 25 as the Day of Action for No More Violence Against Women; at present this date attracts public attention and produces numerous actions in all countries in the region.

Although existing studies are either still incomplete and non-existent for all countries, or the existing ones are not comparable, the features of the phenomenon are repeated from one country to the next.

Physical and psychological violence is the most frequent, although reported cases also include sexual violence, which is much harder for women to report.

Even though violence against women is a more extensive phenomenon, different studies show that in most of the reported cases the aggressor is the woman's husband or cohabitant. In other words, violence takes place within the couple itself. A former husband or partner in a consensual union is also a figure who feels he has

rights over the woman. Unrelated aggressors are a minority.

In Colombia, from 1982 to 1983, one out of every five cases recorded by the Forensic Institute in Bogotá as personal injuries was classified as conjugal violence, and 94% of the people hospitalized were women who had been assaulted. A nation-wide survey in 1990 revealed that 30.4% of women who had lived with a man had been insulted by their partners, 18.8% had been beaten and 8.8% had been forced to have sex against their will. A national study in Chile in 1992 revealed that one out of every five women suffered violence at their partner's hands.

Organized women were the first to start reporting incidents of violence, heightening public awareness on the problem, and care for women victims. Their action has been successful since it has opened up public debate on the subject and placed programs to address the issue on the agenda of many governments. However, this progress is still insufficient, and it is concentrated in major urban centers. The measures adopted are restricted to caring for female victims of assault and little has been achieved in legislative terms. Only Chile and Peru have a law that qualifies

VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN, CLASSIFIED BY TYPE OF VIOLENCE IN BOLIVIA AND COSTA RICA

(Percentages)

Type of Violence	BOLIVIA ⁽¹⁾ 1992-1993	COSTA RICA ⁽²⁾ 1992
Physical violence	56.4	44.4
Psychological violence	37.1	54.2
Sexual violence	6.5	1.4
Total	100.0	100.0

Notes: (1) 536 cases reported at the Women's Police Station in San José. (2) 9,641 cases reported at private and public centers in La Paz and El Alto, from July, 1992 to June, 1993.

WOMEN VICTIMS OF VIOLENCE AND RELATIONSHIP WITH THE AGGRESSOR IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

(Percentages)

Relationship with the aggressor	PERU ⁽¹⁾ 1992	BOLIVIA ⁽²⁾ 1992-1993	COLOMBIA ⁽³⁾ 1989-1991	NICARAGUA ⁽⁴⁾ 1993-1994
Husband	53.0	62.9	59.3	67.7
Partner in a consensual union	43.5	26.7	-	6.0
Former husband or former cohabitant	3.5	-	13.5	26.3
Other relatives	-	4.0	12.5	-
Unrelated	-	3.6	12.7	-
Unknown	-	0.8	-	-
Not available data	-	2.0	1.0	-
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Notes: (1) 393 cases reported from 12/25/93 to 2/25/94 at the Police Station for Women and Children in Managua. (2) 3,784 cases reported at the Women's Police Station in Lima. (3) 948 cases attended by the Casa de la Mujer (Women's Center) in Bogotá. (4) 9,641 cases reported at private and public centers in La Paz and El Alto from July, 1992 to June, 1993.

Source: FLACSO-Chile, Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Cifras, Data Base, Santiago, 1995.

Source: FLACSO-Chile, Mujeres Latinoamericanas en Cifras, Data Base, Santiago, 1995.

intra-family violence as a crime and penalizes it. In Argentina, Colombia, Panama and Venezuela, a law of this kind is currently under discussion in the respective parliaments. In the remaining countries, intra-family violence is only considered as "assault and battery", which has to be severe in order to be penalized.

Nevertheless, there are a series of actions to deal with violence against women today, and this is one of the areas where coordination between government organizations, NGOs and women's social organizations exists more frequently.

The action of NGOs has centered on creating shelters for abused women, in providing legal and psychological assistance, doing research, performing preventive actions at community level, and establishing national networks to coordinate with social organizations and other agencies to act collectively and share experiences and methodologies.

At government level, the creation of special police stations to deal with cases of violence has become a frequent occurrence. Brazil, with 141 Delegations Specialized in Caring for Women Victims of Domestic and

Sexual Violence and Colombia with 160 Family Police Stations are cases that stand out. Mexico has Agencies Specialized in Sexual Crimes.

Another course of action followed by some governments has been the creation of Women's Defense Counsels or Public Defenders for the Family (Bolivia, Costa Rica, Guatemala, El Salvador). Others have created shelters, carry out press campaigns, provide legal and psychological assistance or train the police. Chile has a National Program against Intra-family Violence in many municipalities in the country.

ACTIONS BY GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS (NGOs) TO COUNTER VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

Country	State action	NGO action	Legislation
ARGENTINA	Prevention Program, Shelters Eight Police Stations (Buenos Aires) 24-hour hotline	Prevention, Women's centers, Network, Assistance, advisory services	Bill under debate
BOLIVIA	Family Prosecutor's Office, Brigade for the Protection of Women and the Family, Integral Legal Services	Legal advice offices	Bill submitted to Congress
BRAZIL	141 Specialized Police Departments to attend to Victims of Domestic and Sexual Violence	Assistance, Women's centers advisory services, prevention, network, advisory services	-
CHILE	Care Centers for Battered Women, press campaign, research, Information centers, Police Station, National Program	Women's centers, assistance, research, network	Law N° 19.325 on Intra-Family Violence
COLOMBIA	160 Family Police Stations	Women's centers, assistance, advisory services	Bill submitted to Congress
COSTA RICA	Police Station and Women's Defense Agency	Prevention, assistance, telephone network	-
CUBA	-	-	-
ECUADOR	Press campaign, legal advice, Police Stations for Women and the Family	Assistance, advisory services, Women's centers, research, network	-
EL SALVADOR	Agency for the Defense of the Human Rights of Women	Assistance, advisory services	-
GUATEMALA	Agency for the Defense of the Human Rights of Women	-	-
HONDURAS	-	Women's center, advisory services, assistance	-
MEXICO	Center to attend to Intra-Family Violence, Specialized Agencies relates to Sexual Abuse related offenses	Research, assistance, advisory services, network	-
NICARAGUA	Committee against Violence, Police Station	Advisory services, assistance, network	-
PANAMA	National Committee against Abuse and Violence within the Family, Municipal Center	Research, assistance, prevention	Law on Intra-Family Violence under discussion in the Legislature
PARAGUAY	Prevention Campaign, Police Station	Women's center, advisory services, assistance	-
PERU	11 Women's Police Stations, Women's Center	Advisory services, assistance, Women's center	Law N° 26.260 against Family Violence
DOMINICAN R.	Legal Clinic Program	Research, assistance	-
URUGUAY	Telephone hotline, Police Stations, Shelters, Information Centers	Assistance, advisory services, campaign, network	-
VENEZUELA	Legal Assistance Network, Service Centers and Women's Centers, training	Assistance, advisory services, network, research, training	Bill submitted to Congress

Action by the First Ladies

In some countries in the region, already in the first half of the century the First Lady -wife of the President of the Republic- joined organizations and led charity institutions. The Bolivarian Society was created in Venezuela in 1936. It gave rise to the Committee of Bolivarian Ladies, and was presided over by the First Lady. The Chilean First Lady established the Christmas Committee in 1944 and the Association of Housewives in 1947.

However, the most outstanding regional figure was Eva Duarte de Perón (1946-1951), a true popular myth, who played an important role in the Peronist movement, promoting the emancipation of women and the struggle for their rights as a class and a sex. She organized the Basic Units that later became the Women's Peronist Party. Just as she encouraged women's struggle for their rights, she reinforced the traditional view of women as homemakers and asked for gratitude and loyalty for the man who was behind their achievements, Perón.

In Bolivia, the First Lady's social work started in 1952, whereas in Peru the National Assistance Board was established in the 1950s and presided over by the President's wife.

Over the years it has become traditional for the First Lady to play a role in the public sphere, generally in activities directed to the needier sectors. This frequently involves leading organizations of women volunteers as in Argentina, Mexico and Venezuela. Chile experienced a special situation during the Pinochet regime when the dictator's wife organized a National Foundation for

Community Aid to coordinate the work of all volunteer organizations. She presided over a veritable "army" of ladies dressed in different colored uniforms throughout the country, and this activity was held up to be a model for women to follow.

In some countries the action of the First Lady was a forerunner of government action for women. In Ecuador, Martha de Roldós promoted the inclusion of women's issues with a gender-oriented approach into the State and created the National Office of Women for this purpose in 1979.

In other countries, the action of the First Lady supplements government action aimed at the needier sectors. In Bolivia this even meant coordinating government social policies. These were taken over by the government when the sister of President Jaime Paz Zamora, a bachelor, created the National Organization for Minors, Women and the Family, ONAMFA, and transferred it to a ministry. In Venezuela the Ministry of the Family took over institutions created and presided over by the First Lady.

The situation in Central America is unusual; since 1987 it has held a meeting of First Ladies in the region in support of the efforts of the Presidents. Every meeting centers around a main subject, some of which are related to women: adolescent women; the role women play in family integration; women, environment and development. As of 1991 the First Lady of Panama has taken part in these meetings.

Similar meetings have become customary throughout the region. In October 1994, the IV Conference of Wives of Heads of State and Government of the Americas was held in Santa Lucía. They reaffirmed their commitment to foster actions in favor of the full exercise of women's human rights and promote legislative changes pursuant to the Convention of the United Nations on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women. They recommended the ratification of the Belem do Pará OAS Convention on Violence against Women, they proposed actions to be implemented so as to support equal opportunities,

ACTIVITIES CARRIED OUT BY FIRST LADIES IN FAVOR OF WOMEN, BY YEAR OF ESTABLISHMENT

Country	Year when established	Preogram/Agency
CHILE	1990	Fundación para la Promoción y Desarrollo de la Mujer, PRODEMU
COSTA RICA	—	Office of the First Lady
ECUADOR	1980	Instituto Nacional del Niño y la Familia, INNFA
EL SALVADOR	—	Office of the First Lady
GUATEMALA	1987	Office of the First Lady
HONDURAS	—	Office of the First Lady
MEXICO	1970	Patronato Nacional de Promotores Voluntarios, PNPV Sistema Nacional para el Desarrollo Integral de la Familia
NICARAGUA	—	—
PANAMA	1991	Office of the First Lady
PARAGUAY	1994	Office of the First Lady

Notes: (1) The First Ladies of Central America have been meeting as of 1987 when the Summit Meetings of the Presidents of the sub-region take place. (2) Although there is no First Lady in Nicaragua, a representative attends the meetings. (3) Panama joined the Meetings of First Ladies of the sub-region in 1991.

they agreed to promote gender approaches in national development plans, targeted particularly to the most vulnerable sectors, and they promised to support preparatory activities for the IV World Conference of Women to be held in Beijing (1995).

Action of International Organizations

The action of international organizations in favor of women has been very important in the region. Pursuant to the impetus provided by the First World Conference of Women (Mexico, 1975), specialized United Nations organizations, and others, have developed actions and specific programs for the advancement of women.

The action carried out by the Inter-American Commission of Women since 1930 was thus amplified, as was the action implemented by the

United Nations Commission for the Legal Equality of Women.

Under the proposal known as "Women in Development" these organizations gradually promoted women's entry into production, rural development, micro-sized companies, literacy and skills development, among others.

In the last few years, some have reoriented their work along the lines of "gender in development", which means that they are trying to affect the unequal power relationships that exist among men and women through their action and programs.

At present, all countries in the region receive technical advice or financing for projects to improve women's status from several of these organizations. They include the United Nations Children's Fund, UNICEF, for Women, UNIFEM, and for Population Activities, UNFPA,

and the Pan-American Health Organization, PAHO.

Against the backdrop of preparations for the IV World Conference of Women to be held in Beijing, these organizations have favored -some actively- discussion and preparation of proposals in countries, at government and non-government level, encouraging contributions from civil society and women's organizations, and also the participation of professionals and specialists in the different subjects. Their contribution was evident at the Regional Conference of Latin America and the Caribbean (Mar del Plata, 1994), the secretariat of which was held by the Economic Commission for Latin America, ECLAC, as was their help in improving the Regional Action Plan which was finally approved in Santiago, Chile in November 1994.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS THAT PERFORM ACTIVITIES FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN, AROUND 1992

Country	UNICEF	UNIFEM	PAHO	UNFPA	PNUD	FAO	ILO	ECLAC	IDB	IICA	IWC	UNIDO	WFP	UNESCO	INSTRAW	FLACSO
ARGENTINA	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
BOLIVIA	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
BRAZIL (1)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
CHILE	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
COLOMBIA	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
COSTA RICA	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
CUBA	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
DOMINICAN REP.	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
ECUADOR	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
EL SALVADOR	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
GUATEMALA	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
HONDURAS	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
MEXICO	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
NICARAGUA	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
PANAMA	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
PARAGUAY	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
PERU	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
URUGUAY	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
VENEZUELA	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Notes: (1) Does not include First World government cooperation agencies or nongovernmental international cooperation organizations.

REMARKS ON METHODOLOGY



The methodological option employed in the project *Latin American Women in Numbers* considered that it was possible to increase the visibility of Latin American women and show the specific features of their status based on the quantitative data available. The data is primarily statistical and was produced mainly by public organizations. The goal was to establish criteria to make the fullest possible use of such data from a gender perspective while also recording the limitations posed by information collected in this manner. The option is based on conventions of United Nations agencies and, particularly, on recommendations made by the United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW).

Based on the above elements, and with the help of United Nations experts working for agencies in Latin America, a general picture of the information requirements was prepared. The option involved selecting the more appropriate variables and indicators. This was done without losing sight of the fact that, due to the regional scope of the project, comparable information had to be granted priority. Thus, for the purposes of this comparative book, indicators that included comparable regional data were selected as the main indicators. Nevertheless, information that was not available for the entire region was maintained since it provided insights into significant processes, and these are presented as vignettes. In many cases it was necessary to prefer data series, considered homologous by United Nations organizations, above national data sources.

National sources refer to data obtained from Household Surveys, from the most recent Population Censuses (c. 1990), from publications issued by Ministries and other statistics-producing agencies.

Reference is frequently made in this book to the Data Base created at FLACSO on the basis of the project "Latin American Women in Numbers". This is the source for yet unpublished data, whereas Valdés, T. and E. Gomáriz, *Latin American Women in Numbers*, are the source referred to for information that appears in the books for each individual country, covering data provided by national sources.

The following paragraphs contain some general remarks and a description of the main obstacles encountered in each field.

ECONOMICS

Figures on the gross domestic product (GDP) and its distribution by type of economic activity were taken from the Statistical Yearbook on Latin America and the Caribbean, published by ECLAC, so as to ensure comparable data in international terms. ECLAC performs annual estimates based on official data provided by the countries themselves. It tries to achieve uniformity to the greatest degree possible, both in conceptual terms and from a methodological standpoint, in order to guarantee the international comparability of the series on national accounts.

In order to ensure the international comparability and reliability of the information, data on the external sector, and particularly information regarding foreign trade, were taken from the Data Bank on Foreign Exchange in Latin America and the Caribbean (BACEDEL) maintained by the Statistical and Estimates Division at ECLAC.

Data on poverty are derived from estimates prepared by ECLAC according to the so-called "income method", which is based on the calculation of poverty lines. The latter reflect the amount of income that enables each household to satisfy the basic needs of all its members.

Poverty lines for each country and geographical area were established according to the estimated cost of a basic food basket that satisfies the nutritional requirements of the population. The basket takes into account the consumption habits of the population in each country, the actual availability of the food items, and their relative prices.

In order to determine the poverty lines, the value of the basic food basket was added to an estimate of the resources required by households to satisfy all their non-food-related basic needs.

Figures on the magnitude or incidence of poverty, as well as those related to household income distribution, were obtained from multiple-purpose surveys of polled households, which are part of the permanent country programs. Mexico was the exception: in this case the estimates were obtained from data provided by surveys on family budgets or on household income and expenses.

DEMOGRAPHICS

For the most part, population data were taken from the Demographic Newsletters prepared and published by the Latin American Demographic Center, CELADE. This choice was based on the need for up-to-date population projections—classified by gender, age and

geographic area- that could be compared between countries. Figures drawn up periodically by CELADE meet this requirement since they are based on census figures to which uniform methods are applied.

The "demographic transition" is a concept that arose from observing the changes in the population in Western countries. These went from high mortality and fertility rates to low rates in both aspects as a result of social and economic transformations derived from industrial modernization.

This concept is related to a process noted for its different stages. At first, these stages are the result of decreased mortality which subsequently is gradually combined with a more intense drop in fertility rates. The outcome, in the long run, is a naturally low growth rate, which can reach zero growth levels or even negative growth.

Although this sequential typification of demographic behavior reflects universal trends to a great extent, the dissimilar situations that usually exist within the countries themselves must be kept in mind. These frequently occur both between geographical areas and also among social groups, i.e. the coexistence of population groups which are going through different stages of demographic transition.

CELADE proposed a typology of countries according to the stage of demographic transition according to current birth and mortality rates. Based on the information available for the period 1985-1990, the demographic behavior of countries in Latin America and the Caribbean was divided into four groups.

Group I consists of Bolivia, a country which is going through a budding process of demographic transition. Bolivia has high birth and mortality rates and, consequently, its natural growth rate is moderate (roughly 2.5% per year).

Group II covers El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua and Paraguay. These countries are going through a moderate transition stage. They have high birth rates and moderate mortality rates. The result is high natural growth rates of around 3% per year.

Group III includes Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, Peru and Venezuela. These countries are in full demographic transition with moderate birth rates and either moderate or low mortality rates. Thus, they have moderate natural growth rates of approximately 2% per year.

Group IV includes Argentina, Chile, Cuba and Uruguay. These countries are in the advanced stages of demographic transition due to low birth rates and either low or moderate mortality rates. Their natural growth rates are therefore low, at around 1% per year.

WORK

When the participation of women in economic activity is examined, two basic issues must be kept in mind in order to interpret the figures correctly. First, that the figures attempt to measure a rather limited concept of activity because they exclude an essential aspect of what women do, primarily household chores and other, non-mercantile, activities. This leads to a highly significant underestimation of the contribution made by women to the physical output produced by society.

Second, the data -particularly those that stem from population censuses- under-report the participation of women on the labor market. This is due to the inadequacy of the questionnaires and to the lack of training of the interviewers. But particularly it stems from the fact that women themselves state that they are not economically active even though they do perform economic activities. This is related to prevailing cultural patterns in which women are assigned to the role of housewives, which is viewed as non-work.

Figures on the growth of the economically active population, by gender (p. 67), were not calculated directly according to the corresponding data on the development of economic involvement (p. 67). Instead, they were obtained by applying the economic participation rates of women to the new population estimates prepared by CELADE. This was done by multiplying economic participation rates by the number of total population aged 10 and over.

The specific activity rates by age group shown on page 73 fail to reveal the existence of the so-called "bi-modal pattern of participation" for women observed in some studies. The pattern would be accounted for by the withdrawal of women from economic activity at ages which coincide with their child-bearing years (between the ages of 20 and 24, for instance) and their subsequent re-entry into the labor market. Perhaps this pattern does occur in urban areas in some countries although confirming it would require a larger disaggregation by activity rates according to age and marital status.

Visible underemployment refers to the status of employed individuals who state that, during the week surveyed, they worked less time than the number of hours in a normal workday and who, furthermore, would be willing to work longer hours. Therefore, the condition that determines underemployment is not only the duration of the workday. Obviously, due to the fact that most women need to reconcile their labor-market-related activities with household chores, they can only work shorter shifts than normal workdays. Therefore, taking current definitions into account, women who, for whatever reason, report that they are not willing to work longer hours are not recorded as visibly underemployed.

Strictly speaking, salary disparities observed are indirect evidence of wage discrimination by gender because data on the salaries obtained by men and by women are not associated to wages paid for exactly the same jobs. Only if this condition is met it is possible to state that the rule "equal pay for equal work" is being complied with. Instead, statistical data normally available make occupational segmentation stand out in the sense that women tend to work at jobs involving lower average wages which, in addition, are affected by job discrimination. In other words, both in companies and in institutions in general, men gain access to higher positions and better paying jobs much more often than women.

EDUCATION

Basic information on illiteracy –which in all cases is self-reported– and on education levels, was obtained from Population Censuses and Household Surveys. Methods used to measure illiteracy in Paraguay in the 1982 census differed from the ones used in the 1972 census. This resulted in considerably increased illiteracy rates, in absolute and relative terms, thereby rendering the figures less comparable. Information on the educational level of the population is based on data available for the most recent year. Thus, there are significant differences between some countries, since half the countries report data for the 1980s whereas others report data for the 1990s.

Data on the evolution of enrollment in pre-school, elementary education, secondary education and upper education was taken from the Statistical Yearbooks published by the United Nation's Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, UNESCO. Information on repeater rates in primary education were also taken from the same source. Nevertheless, several countries do not record information on school repeater rates disaggregated by gender. Data on sexism in schoolbooks are taken from studies carried out in the countries by specialized agencies.

Information on the evolution of educational coverage and on the involvement of women as teachers in the different educational levels were taken from UNESCO Yearbooks, from the records of the Ministries and Secretariats of Education and from the records of the National Statistics Institutes.

Regarding the native Indian population, the information provided was taken from documents published by specialized centers and by the National Statistics Institutes.

HEALTH

Many of the indicators included in this Chapter present major difficulties. On the one hand, health records are deficient in many countries in terms of coverage and disaggregation by sex. On the other, data is not always handed in to the Pan-American Health Organization with the promptness required and, therefore, the years for which the data are available do not always coincide.

Data on the evolution of life expectancy at birth, on general mortality and child mortality, as well as the breakdown of deaths by gender and by age were taken from the latest official CELADE estimates (1994).

Regarding the resources available to the health-care system, the statistics taken into account were those recently published by the Pan-American Health Organization (PAHO) and by CELADE.

Information on basic health conditions, deaths due to cancer, reported AIDS cases, coverage and professional health-care provided in deliveries and births by caesarian section, and on maternal mortality classified according to cause of death were also taken from PAHO data. However, in the case of Guatemala and Honduras, no information is available for deaths due to cancer. No information is reported on maternal deaths classified by cause of death for countries such as Bolivia, Colombia, El Salvador and Nicaragua.

The tabulation on the major causes of death by gender were prepared according to statistics collected by PAHO and data published by the Ministries of Public Health and the National Statistics Institutes included in the books for each country. A single regional table was prepared on the basis of the five major causes of death reported to PAHO by each country; these data have not been included in full. Nevertheless, there are serious inconsistencies regarding the coverage of vital statistics in several countries. This situation, which especially affects data regarding Bolivia, Ecuador, Paraguay and Peru, is a fact that detracts from the reliability of the information. The

dates are dissimilar, which makes comparisons difficult; nevertheless, they correspond to the most recent data available.

Births among women at ages involving obstetric risk were taken from the most recent information available at CELADE. Data on the evolution of maternal mortality was taken both from PAHO statistics as well as from data held by the Ministries of Public Health.

Regional statistics on morbidity disaggregated by gender are seriously deficient. Thus, information on this issue could only be included for some countries.

Information on reproductive health in the region is also affected by major deficiencies. Data on the use of contraceptives stems from Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) published by PAHO. Similarly, information on wanted pregnancies takes these surveys into account as well as some studies carried out by specialized centers in other countries. Figures from the Alan Guttmacher Institute were used for estimates on induced abortion and hospitalization due to abortion; the data are based on research carried out in several countries. Abortion is punished by law throughout the entire region, with the exception of Cuba, which is why there are no official records on induced abortion. This is also the reason why, in many countries, abortion-related hospitalizations are not reported.

LEGISLATION

The legal status of women was analyzed in the light of four major legal statutes: the Constitution, the Civil Code, the Penal Code and the Labor Code. Each of these texts contains the essential provisions that establish equality—or the lack of it—between men and women: political rights, civil capacity of married women and family and property rights; special classification of crimes either committed by women or those in which they are the victims; regulation of women's work and protection for working mothers.

A brief chapter was included on reproductive rights, an issue that is still in its initial stages, and not yet subject to codes or regulations. Therefore, when this subject was addressed adaptations to a different scheme were required, both in this case as well as with regard to other countries since situations differ considerably from one to the other.

The analysis was limited to positive rights although, in some instances, reference was made to certain legal provisions no longer in force in order to illustrate, in specific cases, how legislation has evolved.

It was not possible to obtain data on the administration and application of justice, an issue of major importance, particularly for women.

SOCIOPOLITICAL PARTICIPATION AND ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN

This chapter is mainly devoted to information collected, for each country, through the project Latin American Women in Numbers. The sources will not be specified on this occasion. Nevertheless, a special effort was made to update and complete this information, especially due to the fast rate of variation of some indicators on the social and political involvement of women and of government action in favor of women.

One of the sources used to update such data were national reports prepared by the governments for the Regional Conference on the Integration of Women to Economic and Social Development in Latin America and the Caribbean. Participation in the Conference, which took place at Mar del Plata (Argentina) in September, 1994, was possible thanks to the Women and Development Unit at ECLAC.

Help was also obtained from the network of female researchers in the different countries, particularly those in which the government currently in office has recently changed.

It was not possible to remedy the lack of information on the participation of women in political parties, labor unions and grass-roots associations, in trade groups and associations of entrepreneurs. This was also the case for associations of native Indians and black women.

Undoubtedly, the most significant difficulties regarding information for this chapter are those regarding women's associations. In this case, the information collected by each country was kept and figures were prepared for cases in which the information could be compared to other sources. In the remaining cases, a historic report was prepared, taking into account the events and main activities recorded both in the reports submitted by female researchers in each country as well as by the magazine *Mujer/Fempress*.

SYMBOLS AND NOTES

♀	Woman or women
♂	Man or men
♀/Total	Ratio of women over total
.	Decimals.
,	Thousands.
...	Data missing, not available or not separately reported.
--	Sample size is too small to be used as a basis to estimate the corresponding values with acceptable reliability and precision.
-	Not applicable or not comparable.
c.	Circa
AR	Argentina
BO	Bolivia
BR	Brazil
CL	Chile
CO	Colombia
CR	Costa Rica
CU	Cuba
DO	Dominican Republic
EC	Ecuador
SV	El Salvador
GT	Guatemala
HN	Honduras
MX	Mexico
NI	Nicaragua
PA	Panama
PY	Paraguay
PE	Peru
UY	Uruguay
VE	Venezuela

"Dollar" refers to United States dollars, unless otherwise specified.

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