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Colombia: Human Development Progress towards the Millennium Development Goals

Alfredo Sarmiento Gómez, Lucía Mina Rosero, Carlos Alonso Malaver and Sandra Álvarez Toro

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Background Papers
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*Human Development Progress towards the Millennium Development Goals*

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Human Development Progress towards the Millennium Development Goals in Colombia

During Nineties, human development in Colombia has improved, even though growth has not been continuous. Human Development Index (HDI) increased nearly 6% between 1991 and 2001 from 0.728 to 0.771. In 1997 it reached 0.776, the highest value of the decade. According to UNDP classification published as part of the Human Development Report 2002, during 2000, Colombia is placed as the 68th from 173 countries.

Colombia’s progress is quite unequal not only between urban and rural areas but also among provinces. The provinces from the Pacific Coast excluding Valle del Cauca, the southern municipalities of the Atlantic Coast and those different from capitals from New Provinces,1 with the actual path will not reach most of Millennium Goals. Despite that fact it is important to note the progress found in basic education and access to potable water.

This paper assess, with available information, human development and the progress to meet World Development Goals (WDGs) in Colombia. The study identifies the provinces that are lagging or slipping behind in reaching the goals. It also highlights common characteristics that explain progress towards their achievement. The paper has been structure in four sections. The first section deals with human development, the second discuss WDGs trends and finally, in the third and four sections, we explain the facts behind the disparities among provinces.

1 Human Development Inequalities in Colombia

Human development index for Colombia is presented in table 1. The economic crisis held at the end of the Nineties affected human development, the income level measured by GDP per capita decreased and even more educational attainment index has reduced growing. Despite that, educational index represents together with per capita income explain the changes in HDI.

From 1991 to 1997, the proportion of illiterate people decreased 3 points in percentage and educational enrollment improved specially for the secondary level from 1993 to 1997. At the same period per capita income in nominal currency rose from US $1,320 to US $2,352. As a result of the economic crisis, educational attainment index shrank from 1998 on, household income decreased forcing families to withdraw children from schools and universities. Nevertheless the deterioration of per capita income is counterbalanced by the education index behavior.

Table 1: Colombia. HDI and Income Inequality, 1991, 1997, 1999 and 2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Educational attainment index</th>
<th>Life expectancy index</th>
<th>Per capita GDP index</th>
<th>GINI coefficient</th>
<th>Per capita GDP index adjusted by GINI</th>
<th>HDI</th>
<th>HDI adjusted by GINI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>0,797</td>
<td>0,719</td>
<td>0,668</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
<td>0,728</td>
<td>N.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>0,849</td>
<td>0,762</td>
<td>0,717</td>
<td>0,560</td>
<td>0,316</td>
<td>0,776</td>
<td>0,642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>0,845</td>
<td>0,771</td>
<td>0,662</td>
<td>0,560</td>
<td>0,291</td>
<td>0,759</td>
<td>0,636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>0,844</td>
<td>0,781</td>
<td>0,688</td>
<td>0,546</td>
<td>0,313</td>
<td>0,771</td>
<td>0,646</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


1 As New Provinces are known the ones created by the Constitution of 1991: Arauca, Guainía, Guaviare, Putumayo, Vaupés, Vichada, Amazonas, Casanare and, San Andrés y Providencia.
Variation in life expectancy reflects important demographic and epidemiology changes, but also that the country’s violence has not stopped the index growth. Nevertheless, a life expectancy of 71.9 years in Colombia is lower, compared with that reached by countries with similar economic and social development like Chile (75.1), Argentina (73.1) and Venezuela (72.6). The negative effect of violence on life expectancy has been considerably higher for men, who live 6.3 years less than do women (75.1 years of life expectancy). Due to violence, at the age 15 to 45, eleven men died per one woman.

### 1.1 Rural versus urban human development

Huge economic and social inequalities between rural and urban areas characterize Colombian development. In 2001, HDI for the rural area is 0.096 points lower than urban. The gap in human development between the areas during the decade has decreased. But, while urban sector has met levels close to those classified by UNDP of high human development (where we find Cuba and Mexico at positions 54 and 55 during 2000), rural areas just got medium levels, similar to El Salvador (position 104 in the 2000 international classification)². By 2001 rural area got the HDI that the country had in 1985. All variables used to calculate HDI show differences between the areas.

Life expectancy’s gap has been reducing since 1994 but anyway, people at rural areas live two years less than their fellows in the cities. Illiterate rate in rural sector is almost three times higher than the one in urban areas. Nearly 40 children or young, out of 100 rural people, do not attend university not even school, while at urban areas this number is 28 over a hundred³.


**Source:** UNDP/DNP/PNDH, Diez años de desarrollo humano en Colombia, 2003.

From 1991 to 2001 the distance in human development between the areas decreased by 3% (Graph 1), Enrollment’s growth and the decrease in illiteracy appear among the sources explaining that fact. Income differences between rural and urban sectors are constant during that period. At the cities, GDP per capita measured in dollars PPP rose from 6,764 in 1991 to 7,395 in 2001. Values for the rural area are 2,919 and 3,138, respectively. The economic crisis has affected by far, urban sector and this pushed down the gap.

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1.2 Differences among provinces

There are differences in human development among the provinces in the country. After classifying provinces according to HDI during the decade, two provinces stand out at the extremes: Chocó as the less developed and Bogotá as the top one. Attached maps (1 to 2) show human development changes along the provinces\(^4\). On the maps, the provinces are grouped in terms of standard deviations' number setting apart from country's medium level.

Chocó, Cauca and Nariño remained as the provinces with less human development among the decade. On the other side are Bogotá and Atlántico. There are considerably improvements in Valle del Cauca, Antioquia and Santander, which place themselves among those with the higher levels of development. The first one, advance from the 8\(^{th}\) to the second position, Antioquia moves from 13\(^{th}\) place to 15\(^{th}\) and Santander gains one position.

Provinces like Quindío, Huila and Norte de Santander fell back their human conditions enormously. The earthquake of 1999 could be one of the reasons explaining the behavior for Quindío; besides, coffee production has been falling down since the eighties. Violence and oil production have affected Huila and the exchange with Venezuela has done to Santander.

Graph 2 shows changes in homicides rate per 100,000 inhabitants from 1999 to 2000\(^5\). Horizontal axis condensed data for 1999 and the vertical axis for 2000. National mean for each year is found at the crossed point axes. We got four boxes where provinces are placed according to their rates in both years. At the upper right box are those provinces that during 1999 and 2000 got violent deaths rates higher than national mean. Antioquia with the highest rate in the country during 1990 - 2000 is placed there. Three from the new provinces (Putumayo, Casanare and Arauca) and Caquetá are placed also there. As we will see, they are in the group with human development problems.

On the upper left corner there are provinces that during 2000 have a rate higher than national mean but in 1999 their rates were under that mean. Again at this part of the graph, we find provinces with low human development levels: Guajira, Guaviare and Cesar. The box at the bottom left includes 20 provinces with homicides rates lower than national mean for both years, Cundinamarca, Cauca, Huila, Tolima, Magdalena, Chocó, Córdoba, Nariño and Boyacá are part of that group. The last box does not show any province because there where no one with a higher rate than the 1999's national average, but lower than it in 2000.

Political violence is one of the features of this Colombian history. The armed conflict involves the army, guerrilla and paramilitary groups. As a consequence of violence, thousands of people have been forced to flee to small cities and the Capital District. Data sources related to internal displacement show different figures. The Conferencia Episcopal from Colombia estimates 47,000 displaced between January 1998 and September 2000, in eight ecclesiastic jurisdictions. CODHES\(^6\) says there were more than two million of internal displaced people during 1995-2000 and the CONPES\(^7\) 3057 from 1999 estimated that between September 1995 and November 1999, 400,000 people were forced to flee due to factors connected to the armed conflict. The principal provinces which act as receivers of immigrants fleeing in 2000 are Antioquia, Bolívar, Bogotá and Chocó where arrived 51% of the displaced. Among the causes of displacement are armed conflict (for 53% of that people), armed attacks (19.4) and massacres (14.8)\(^8\). Political violence incidence can be observed on maps 3 and 4.

\(^4\)See also annex 1.
\(^5\)This data is taken from Policía Nacional, 1999, 2000.
\(^6\)Consultoría para los Derechos Humanos y el Desplazamiento.
\(^7\)Consejo Nacional de Política Económica y Social.
\(^8\)DNP, División de Indicadores y Orientación del Gasto Social, boletín SISD # 29, July 2001.
Human development convergence during the Nineties, between provinces with lower and higher HDI, is quite slow. From 1991 to 2001 the gap between the maximum HDI value and the minimum one, decreased just 3%.

Graph 2: Homicides 1999, 2000. Rate per 100,000 people

Country’s life expectancy increased three years between 1991 and 2001, being the less developed provinces the ones with faster growth. The gap in life expectancy between the provinces with the highest and lowest development is reduced during the period by three years. The lowest life expectancy is for Chocó (66.6), a value lower than the one achieved by the country during 1991 (68.1 years). The implication of these is quite clear: inequality in Colombia is extremely high. Chocó is behind more than ten years, compare to the rest of the country. Other provinces with inferior life expectancy to the national mean are Meta (67.4), Caquetá (68.7) and the group of recently constituted provinces.

Despite its relative low development, the Atlantic Coast has together with Bogotá (72.9 years), the highest life expectancy rates in the country⁹. Life expectancy rate grows faster from 1991 to 2001 in Cauca with an improvement of 5.7 years while, in Antioquia and Valle del Cauca the rate increases around 5 years. Among those with the worst behavior are Cundinamarca and Boyacá where that rate just increased one year during the decade.

⁹ Six provinces from Atlantic Cost have life expectancy rates superior to the national mean: Sucre (74.1 years), Bolívar (73.7), Córdoba (73.4), Atlántico (73.0), La Guajira (72.9) and Magdalena (72.6). Cesar is the only one from that region that presents a life expectancy rate (70.8) inferior to the national mean in 2001.
Along those years, the rate of illiteracy decrease and with that, the gap between the province with the highest and lowest rate is also reduced. The best achievements are though, for provinces that during 1991 had the lowest illiteracy rates: Bogotá, Valle and Antioquia. Cauca, Nariño and Magdalena stand out also, due to the decrease on their illiteracy rates. Chocó, the province with the higher proportion of people that neither read nor write, reduce illiteracy rates from 1991 to 2001 in 22%. La Guajira and Meta present also reductions on that rate of 4% and 15%, respectively. Quindío is nowadays placed at one extreme, illiteracy in this province increased by 17%, perhaps as a consequence of the migration process after the earthquake of 1999. For education attainment index, there is not a clear reduction on the gap between the provinces with highest and lowest development. Along Nineties, the difference on that index between those provinces ranges from 15 and 20 points in percentage.

There are not convergence sings while looking at per capita GDP. The gap between Bogotá and Chocó, the provinces with highest and lowest GDP per capita, increase by US$ 1,488 PPP in 1991 to 2,100 in 2001. Income disparities between Bogotá and the rest of the provinces, is so large that its GDP per capita represents 1.53 times the national mean. Economic crisis from the end of the Nineties have produced so negative effects on income in all provinces that during 2001, no one of them has recovered the 1997 income’s level. In Huila, Norte de Santander or Chocó, income decreased to those levels obtained at the middle of the decade. By 2001 the adjusted per capita income for La Guajira was lower than 1990’s figure. From another side, Valle, Tolima, Magdalena and Córdoba, are provinces where GDP per capita index improved more than national mean along the decade.

1.2.1 Human Development at the Pacific Coast

The region with the poorest provinces is the Pacific coast. Among the four provinces from the region, Valle del Cauca is the only that has overpass the national human development mean. We will describe the principal facts behind development progress in the municipalities different from capitals in this region.

Cauca Nariño and Chocó shared a strong dependence on agriculture and a high percentage of their inhabitants living in rural areas. In Nariño and Chocó nearly 60% of the population is from those areas. Measured as a percentage of Gross National Product (GNP), agriculture represents one third in Cauca and Nariño and, almost 36% in Chocó. Coconut palm, henequen, sugar cane, peanuts, rice, and some other cereals are part of the products grew in the three provinces. In terms of land distribution, Cauca and Nariño appear among the provinces where peasantry is extended. Each of those provinces concentrates 8% of country’s smallholdings. In Chocó there is less than a half point percent of total smallholdings. Land’s concentration measured by Gini coefficient was 0.825 in Cauca and 0.722 in Nariño.

Productivity in agriculture is quite low, when proxy by the ratio of the sector’s gross product and the number of people working on it. In fact, the lowest rates in the country are found among those three provinces. By the middle of nineties, the annual product per worker at agricultural sector was approximately US$ 1,150 in Cauca, US$ 1,500 in Chocó and US$ 1,600 in Nariño. During the same

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10 During 1991, illiteracy rates in those three provinces are 3.5%, 7.4 and 10.6, respectively. National mean in that year was 10.51%. In 2001 when national mean was 7.52%, Bogotá has 2.03%, Valle del Cauca another one of 4.65% and, Antioquia 5.26%.
11 During 2000, 69% of the country’s coconut palm production was grown in Cauca and Nariño and 64 % of fique’s national product. In that year, Nariño contributed with 55.9% of wheat (Ministerio de Agricultura y Desarrollo Rural, 2001)
13 Castaño, op cit. There is no data available for Chocó.
period, the country’s mean product per worker was US$ 2,500\textsuperscript{14}. Among the three provinces, Chocó has the lowest rural rate of occupation in that economic sector, representing 48% of the employment in the area. Cauca and Nariño have 68% and 65% of rural workers in agriculture, respectively. But, salaries are extremely low in that sector. Rural workers from these provinces have to manage, at most, with US$ 1.54 per day.

Factors like those described above, explain why human development indicators in those provinces are so low and why they are slipping behind the meeting of World Millennium Goals. From now on, we will describe some important aspects considered, in order to understand each province’s situation.

1.2.1.1 Cauca

Cauca and Huila are two provinces covered by the benefits of Ley Páez or law 218 from 1995. This law was established one year after river Páez flooded some of their areas. This law includes tax rates exemptions when investment is set up in agriculture, manufacture, mining, tourism, and construction. Despite that, growth at those sectors was not according to the investment made as a result of the law. During 1996-1999, US 560.4 millions were invested in Cauca trying to get the benefits from the law\textsuperscript{15}. That amount represents 10% of the province’s GNP for the same period. Despite that, Agriculture experienced a negative rate between 1995 and 1999 (-3.8%) and so did construction (-1.9%) and mining (-0.6%). Though manufacture had a positive rate, it only reached 0.5%.

It seems like the openness of the economy has been given together with a deterioration of Cauca’s exchange terms. Exports were higher than imports in the province until 1996 and from that on, the ratio changes positively to imports. Besides, GNP per capita that had increased during the first half of the Nineties began to fall continuously until 2000.

When assessing government’s role in the province, proxy by social expenditures per capita, it is found that along the whole decade, it has been below the national mean. While in 1998 the country expended a mean of US$ 211.2 per capita, in the social sectors\textsuperscript{16} the expenditure for Cauca was US$ 144.9\textsuperscript{17}.

Though, “ordinary criminality”, measured by violent deaths rate per 100,000 inhabitants during 2,000 in Cauca (45) is inferior if compared to the national rate (62), it almost doubles the one for Bolivia (23.3) or Nicaragua (25.6)\textsuperscript{18}. Terrorism (5.1% of total acts for the country), stealing on roads (5.7%) and kidnapping (2.9%) are the most frequent crimes in the province. The province also suffers the effects of the armed conflict. When looking at the number of people forced to leave the places they have born or have become settled for 2000\textsuperscript{19}, Cauca participates with 2.2% of the country’s internal displaced population. Around 3% of the massacres\textsuperscript{20} in the country during 1999 and 2% of those occurred in 2000. Cauca’s population represents 3.0% from Colombia’s total population.

\textsuperscript{14} Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadísticas, DANE, Cuentas Nacionales and Encuesta de Hogares for several years.
\textsuperscript{16} Those are health, education, public services, social security, social assistance, housing and other social expenses.
\textsuperscript{17} Per capita GNP is measured in constant prices from 1994 and it applies to the country, Cauca and all other provinces. Data is taken from DANE F-400 form of national fiscal accounting.
\textsuperscript{19} This data is generated by Red de Solidaridad Social –SEFC- Sistema de Estimación del desplazamiento forzado por fuentes contrastadas.
\textsuperscript{20} There is a massacre when three or more helpless people are deliberately killed at the same time and place by any of the groups involved with the armed conflict.
Low Human Development in Cauca is then, related to its economic structure, a low government social expenditure and the violence process in which it has been inserted.

### 1.2.1.2 Chocó

All along the country, Chocó is the province with the lowest GNP and social expenditure per capita. Government investment is also the lowest. While government spent US$ 30 per capita in Chocó during 1998, the expenditure was US$ 78 in Valle and US$ 212 in Bogotá during the same year. From 1990 to 1998 average social expenditure measured in constant prices just reached US$ 28 in Chocó. The mean for 24 provinces for that period was US$ 148. That means that as it was said for Cauca, Chocó is also a province with low human development and a social expenditure per capita inferior to the levels found around the country. Rules for distributing social expenditure among provinces from 1994 to 2000 included different factors. Some of them redirected resources in favour of poorer provinces, but others favoured the richest ones. The global effect was against the poorest.

Agriculture’s share in GNP for Chocó has been declining and personal services sector gains part of that fall. By 1999, services represent 20% of GNP and nearly one third of occupation is found at that sector. Salaries in services’ sector more than doubles those found in agriculture, US$ 4.2 and US$ 6.4 per day in rural and urban areas respectively. The increase of services’ participation in GNP from 1990 to 1998 helps to understand the raise in GNP during those years. Another sector with relatively high salaries is commerce, US$ 274.1 per month in urban areas. Unfortunately, more than a third of workers on that sector have born in Antioquia, which means that a great number of jobs with higher benefits are for immigrants rather than natives. Mining, with a decline participation in GNP, 15.5% in 1990 and only 3.7% in 1999, pays the lowest salaries in the province, US$ 2.3 per day at urban areas.

Chocó’s position according to ordinary violence has been showed on graph 2. All others indicators of ordinary violence reveal that such kind of violence is relatively low in Chocó. Anyway, according to data from Red de Solidaridad Social, the incidence of the armed conflict in Chocó is not negligible, 11% of the people forced to migrate from their provinces in 2000 are from Chocó. During that year there were two massacres with 11 victims which represent less than 1% in the total number for the country. Last year, Bojayá, a municipality from Chocó suffered a massacre with no precedents in the province, killing at least 119 civilians inside a church.

Human development level in Chocó is then reached in a context of low social expenditure\(^{21}\), a high dependence on agriculture and the effects of armed conflict.

### 1.2.1.3 Nariño

Nariño on the frontier with Ecuador is sensible to economic and social fluctuations in that country. In fact exports were higher than imports until 1996, when the economic crisis not just in Colombia but also in Ecuador changed its trade of terms. Exports that in terms of GNP represented 4.6% in Nariño during 1994 fell to 2.8% of GNP in 1998. Ecuador where most of Nariño’s exports are sent had negative rates of economic growth during 1998 and 1999.

Agriculture employs 42% of total labor force in the province and another fifth of that population is employed at personal services with salaries that average to US$ 194 and US$ 77 per month in urban and rural areas, respectively. Approximately 15% of Nariño’s labor force is related to commerce with an income of US$ 4.2 per day in the cities and US$ 1.5 per day for rural workers.

\(^{21}\) Per capita social expenditure in Chocó measured in constant prices was US$ 44.3 in 1998.
In Nariño, dependence in some sectors with a low income contribution is at the base of a quite modest human development. But like a vicious circle, productivity at the economic sectors is low and so are government revenues. That’s why per capita social expenses in the province are so low. In 1998 Nariño’s per capita social expenditure of US$ 135.5 was 64% of national mean. Nariño’s contribution to the number of internal displaced people is quite negligible but, 4.5% of the terrorism acts during 2000 and 2.8% of the kidnappings where set in that province.

To conclude, there is a common feature behind human development in the provinces from the Pacific Coast. That is, their dependency on agriculture with a low productivity per worker, a low social expenditure and the effect of political violence basically in Cauca and Chocó.

1.2.2 Poverty in Provinces from the Atlantic Coast

At the Atlantic coast coexist, some big municipalities relatively high developed like Cartagena and Barranquilla with small rural towns. The municipalities from the Atlantic Coast with human development problems depend also on agriculture. They use land to grow corn, cotton, different kind of beans including soy bean, tobacco, banana, cocoa, sugar cane and yucca among others. At the middle of nineties, 67% of the land grew with transitory products and 33% with other permanent, though the last type shows higher benefits. Córdoba, Cesar, Magdalena and Bolivar are the provinces where agriculture is more extended. The first one has also a strong dependence on livestock. One fifth of those provinces’ livestock is found in Córdoba. The province’s contribution to country’s fishing production is significantly low if compared to the participation of Pacific Coast provinces.

In these provinces, the participation of agriculture in GNP ranges from 10% in Guajira to 37% in Cesar. They share with provinces from the Pacific Coast, a dependency on agriculture, but none of them have productivity levels in that sector as low as those described for Nariño, Cauca and Chocó. The lowest productivity per worker corresponds to Córdoba, US$ 2,413 at the middle of nineties. When looking at employment generation through agriculture, it is found that in all provinces more than a third of their labor force depends on that sector.

In relation to land tenure, the region is in some kind feudal, the most frequent form is large farmers. Properties with an extension superior to 100 hectares have 62% of total land. Those with less than 5 hectares amount to 38% of total properties and only 1.2% of total land. Most of the farmers own the land they work. In Guajira the most frequent tenure form is known as colonato.

Almost 1.1 million out of 12.1 millions of hectares from the total extension of land along the Atlantic Coast correspond to smallholdings which represent 64.6% from all properties. That means a high concentration of land tenure among the characteristics of those provinces. Land distribution measured by Gini reaches 0.832 in Guajira, the province with the most severe land monopoly where 65% of properties are smallholdings that work 5% of the land. Gini coefficient is 0.742 in Córdoba, where

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22 Nariño’s population represent 4% of Colombian population.
23 Excluding Valle del Cauca.
25 While Atlantic’s provinces participate with 15% of national fishing, the Pacific ones participate with nearly half of the total production López M. Cecilia and Abello V. Alberto, 1998 “El Caribe colombiano. La realidad regional al final del siglo XX).
26 Properties with an extension higher than 200 hectares are 3.3% from the total but got 51% of land (López M. Cecilia and Abello V. Alberto, 1998, op. cit.).
27 It is land’s exploitation through colonization.
28 López, M. Cecilia and Abello V. Alberto, op. cit.
70.4% of the properties are smallholdings which concentrate 13.8% of total land in the Atlantic Coast area. The coefficient for Cesar is 0.720. Magdalena is the province with the lowest presence of smallholdings and therefore it shows the lowest Gini, 0.67329.

Daily monetary salaries earned during 2000 in agriculture at the rural areas in the provinces of Atlantic Coast with human development problems ranges from US$ 2.2 in Córdoba to US$ 3.9 in Magdalena.

The Atlantic Coast is conformed by eighth provinces but, just two of them concentrate manufacture production: Atlántico and Bolívar. Manufacture is their principal economic activity. While manufacture in 1999 represented 21% and 24% of GNP, in the first and second respectively, the percentage for the other provinces in that year ranges from 0.5% to 5.3%.

### 1.2.2.1 Córdoba

One third of Córdoba’s labor force is occupied at personal services which contribute with 13% of GNP from the province. Urban monthly salaries in that sector that averages US$ 258, overcomes the national mean but, the picture with those paid at rural sector is different. They represent only 36% of urban salaries in the sector and therefore they are lower when compared to national average. But inequality goes further. Almost 51% of Córdoba’s population is living at rural areas and they just participate with 32% of employment in commerce and 28% of the one produced at personal services.

The incidence of violence in Córdoba is quite strong. During 2000, among the 26,040 murders presented in Colombia, the average for the province was 1.7%. Nearly 2% of the massacres that occurred in the country in the same year where placed at Córdoba. The province has a similar participation in Colombia’s total number of kidnappings in 2000. Internal displaced people of the country coming from Córdoba represent 2.1%. Córdoba’s share in total population is 3.1% in 2000.

Government expended US$ 485 in social sectors during 1998. That amount more than doubles the mean for the country in the same year and so did along the nineties. But it was not enough to overcome the effects of being dependent on agriculture and that of political violence so, the lag on human development remains.

Córdoba is then, a province with an economy based on agriculture, personal services and commerce and a high proportion of people living at rural areas. The problem is generated not only due to low payments in agriculture as it happens to be for other provinces but, also because the participation in the distribution of employment and income does not favor peasants. Political violence effect as it was mentioned for provinces at the Pacific Coast with low human development appears again in the case of Córdoba.

### 1.2.2.2 Guajira

Along the nineties, mining has a raising participation in Guajira’s GNP. While in 1980 mining only represented 5.1% of that product, in 1999 it reaches 44.5%. This increase in mining’s participation in GNP is due to gas production. Chuchapa’s production in Guajira, increased 20% during the nineties. Guajira together with Córdoba and Cesar is a coal’s producer. Despite that, during 2000, mining just employed 2% of total labor force in the province, thought it pays the highest salaries, US$ 16 per day for urban workers and US$ 9.9 for rural.

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During the beginning of nineties commerce represents 23% of Guajira’s GNP, but for 1999 that percent has more than halved (8%). Almost one third of labor force in the province depends on commerce and a 29% got employment at personal services\(^{30}\). By 2000, urban payments per day are US$ 7.1 and US$ 6.4 for commerce and personal services, respectively.

Guajira is a province with a product that is partially exported but, its terms of trade during the decade have deteriorated specially from 1994 on. Nevertheless, exports are still higher than imports.

Based on the number of expelled people as a consequence of armed conflict, Guajira’s low human development seems not to be connected with political violence. Less than 0.5% of internal displaced population comes from Guajira. Despite that, homicides rate per 100,000 people in Guajira (69) is higher than the national mean (62). Not only Guajira was a traditional path of smuggling but also it has a cultural tradition of family vengeance.

Social expenditure per capita in Guajira has been rising along nineties but it is still lower than the national average. In 1998 per capita social expenditure was US$ 100.5 in the province.

### 1.2.2.3 Magdalena

Magdalena depends on agriculture, commerce and personal services. Around 61% of the province’s GNP for 1999 was produced in those economic sectors which employed 80% of labor force. The average salaries per month in those sectors fluctuate between US$ 181 and US$ 232.

Along the whole decade, per capita social expenditure in Magdalena is lower than the national mean. The value for 1998 is US$ 107.

Kidnapping is one of the most frequent criminal acts in the province. Magdalena’s participation in the country’s number of kidnappings in 2000 was 3.9%. Provinces’ share in the number of the internal displaced people was 3.6%. Magdalena’s population represents 3.1% from the total for the country.

### 1.2.2.4 Cesar

Nearly 83.5% of labor force in Cesar is working in agriculture, commerce and personal services. In 1999, these three economic sectors generate as well 55% of the province’s GNP. Urban average salaries earned in agriculture are the highest in the country, US$17 per day in 2000. Productivity in that sector is also higher than the national mean. By the middle of the nineties GNP per worker at the sector was US$ 3,764.

Commerce in Cesar also pays its workers more than the national mean, US$ 6.6 per day. Mean salaries at services per day are US$ 7.2.

Social expenditure per capita (US$ 130) in 1998 was less than 62% compared with the national mean.

Murders in Cesar represent 2.5% from the total for the country. Other frequent criminal acts in this province are kidnapping with a share of 7.7% in all Colombian cases, thefts at roads (5.7%) and terrorism acts (3.2%).

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\(^{30}\) Tourism that has been affected as a consequence of the country’s economic crisis is included in personal services.
While population from Cesar is 2.3% from that in the whole country, displaced rises to 2.9% of the total population expelled from their original provinces as a consequence of actions related to political violence.

1.2.3 Poverty in Central Region provinces

Rural workers at provinces in the central region: Boyacá and Cundinamarca, Meta, Caquetá, Tolima and Huila have also a relative lower level of welfare. For all these provinces the economy’s dependency on agriculture is quite important, there we find the most advanced agriculture with the traditional one. Agriculture sector represents from 21% of GNP in Boyacá and Huila to 53% in Caquetá, in 2000, the percentage of labor force in that sector fluctuates from 28% in Meta to 47% in Boyacá.

The lower mean salary, among the provinces considered, is for Tolima with a monthly salary in urban areas of US$ 3.7 which is lower than national average. The mean of rural payments in Tolima for that sector is US$ 3.2. Salaries are relatively high in Meta and Caquetá. Meta is the province that presents the highest agriculture’s productivity along the country31. Productivity at Cundinamarca is lower than that showed for Meta and Caquetá but it is up the national mean. The lowest product per worker during the middle of nineties was found in Huila and Boyacá.

Land concentration at these provinces, as measured by Gini coefficient is high in Meta (0.858). In fact it is the province with the more unequal land’s distribution. Less than one percent of smallholdings in the country are found in this province. Tolima is also one of the provinces where large landed estates predominate, only 3% of the smallholdings in Colombia correspond to that province. As a consequence, Gini measure is 0.751. Though, 16.8% of the smallholdings are in Boyacá, it has a Gini for land distribution of 0.764 which means they have a low participation in total land. Huila and Cundinamarca have a Gini of 0.746 and 0.762.

Among the agricultural products grow in these provinces are: peanuts, cotton, and tobacco, a variety of beans, banana, rice and potatoes. Rice grow by irrigation is quite important in Tolima (46.6% of Colombian’s production), Meta (11.3%) and Huila (9.5%). Another rice variety is found in Meta (39.4% of country’s product). Cundinamarca and Boyacá produce around 70% of potatoes in the country. Meta is the first soy bean producer in the country with 35.1% of total product. Cotton is found in Tolima (19.9% of the national production). Tolima and Huila produce 20% of Colombia’s cocoa product. The first province is also the principal peanuts producer in the country (81.2% of total product). Social expenditure per capita in 1998 fluctuates between US$ 129 in Caquetá to US$ 765 in Huila.

When looking at ordinary violence it is noted that kidnapping, thefts at roads and house’s stealing are the most frequent delinquency forms, presented in all those provinces.

Around 7.7% of Colombia’s displaced population has been expelled from the provinces considered in this group with an insignificant participation for Huila.

Massacres are most frequent in Tolima with 2.9% of the total number of victims in the country, while statistics for other provinces describes the following rates: Cundinamarca 2.6%, Caquetá 1.6% and Huila 1.5%.

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31 Product per worker is estimated in US$ 5,985 at the middle of the nineties. Caquetá with a product per worker during that period of US$ 3,956 is ranked third after Valle.
2 Social exclusion from human development

2.1 Human Poverty Index, HPI

In order to measure the exclusion of some groups from human development, we have calculated human poverty index (HPI) as well. According to that index, poverty has decreased along the decade. HPI for 1990-1995 was 12.8% and it reduced to 10.6% in 1999. The international classification made by UNDP on the report for 2000 that included 88 countries, placed Colombia as tenth with a HPI of 8.9%. The index is upper others from Latino America like Uruguay with an index of 3.9% (first place), Chile or Cuba with 4.2% (3rd and 4th positions), and Costa Rica which is at the second place with 4.0% of poverty. There are advances in access to health services which are a result of the institutional changes introduced in the sector\footnote{In particular, Law 100 from 1993.}. The percentage of people that do not have access to that kind of services was 19% in 1990 and it decreased to 13% in 1999\footnote{UNDP/DNP/Misión Social, Desarrollo Humano, Colombia 2000.}.

The number of people that consume drinkable water has increased. At the end of Nineties 14% of the population is still without access to that service compared to 20% at the beginning of the decade. In the same way, there is a reduction in the number of children less than five years suffering underweight, from 8.4% at the beginning of the decade to 6.7% in 1999 (Table 2). It means that, the variables related to standard of living conditions, have supported poverty reduction in the country.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Probability at birth not surviving to age 40 (%)</th>
<th>Illiteracy rate</th>
<th>Life conditions</th>
<th>People without drinkable water (%)</th>
<th>People without access to health services (%)</th>
<th>Proportion of children 5 or less underweight</th>
<th>Human Poverty Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990-95</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: PNUD/DNP/Misión Social, Desarrollo Humano Colombia 2000.

Though slowly, illiteracy rate decrease during Nineties. The reduction is higher in urban sector than in the rural area. While urban illiteracy rate fell between 1991 and 1999 around 24%, the rural one is reduced by 22%. Maybe, as a consequence of violence in the country that affects mainly young men, the longevity indicator evolved negatively. From 1997 to 1999, the probability at birth of not surviving to age 40, increased in 1.6 points. The result is a higher rate for 1999 than the one during the period 1990-1995 (Table 2). That is a clear violence effect.

At a first look, the improvement on HPI from 1997 to 1999 seems contrary to the reduction on HDI in the same period (from 0.776 to 0.759). Anyway, standard of living conditions variables included in HPI have improved but besides, this index does not include GDP per capita that while decreasing, affected enormously HDI.

Human poverty differs along provinces. Bogotá appears as the one with the lower poverty with 7.9%, while Chocó is the province with the maximum index with 21.9%, more than two times the national mean. There are disparities between Chocó and the country’s mean in all the variables used to obtain the index. While in Chocó 54 out of 100 people, do not consume drinkable water, at the country’s mean there are 14 out of 100. Illiteracy rate in Chocó almost double the national mean and it is ten
times higher compared to the one in Bogotá. Disadvantage of Chocó comparing health services use, is less dramatic, being 2.5 percentage points lower than the national average. The New Provinces, Sucre and Córdoba (both from the Atlantic Cost) together with Chocó, present the highest human poverty rates in Colombia (Map 5).

The higher proportions of children underweight younger than 5, live in three provinces from the Atlantic Coast (Bolívar, Córdoba and Sucre). There 12 out of 100 children are underweight compared to 6 out of 100 at the national level.

In the new provinces and Caquetá, 20 out of a hundred people do not live more than 40 years, a proportion that is lower in Boyacá and Tolima (9 out of 100), the provinces in the country with the higher proportion of people reaching an age of 40 years. Excluding Bogotá, the proportion of people that do not have access to health services varied between 11% and 26% in 1997. Two years later the variation was between 11% and 16%.

2.2 Human Development Disparities and Minorities

Colombia’s Ethnic includes three minority groups: Rom or gypsies, indigenous, and afro-Colombian. Gypsies are dispersed all along the country and so, there are not statistics available about their number. They speak Romany, but they seldom write or read it. They live and move in small groups and are found in cities like Cúcuta (Norte de Santander), Girón (Santander), Bogotá, Sogamoso (Boyacá), Cartagena (Bolívar), Cali (Valle), Itaguí (Antioquia), Pasto (Nariño) and Barranquilla (Atlántico). Even though gypsies have suffered social exclusion and indifference, there are not data regarding to their life conditions. Their continuous migration makes data collection almost impossible. The majority of Rom just finishes junior high and the number of them going to high school or university is quite small.

2.2.1 Afro-Colombians

Afro-Colombians are all around the country but mostly in the valleys along Los Andes: Patía, Magdalena and Cauca. They are also located in some areas at the Pacific, in Urabá (at the north of Antioquia), the Atlantic Coast, San Andrés, Providencia, Santa Catalina, and in some gold producer areas of the country (see map 6). Black people have established in the country’s urban centers: Cali, Cartagena, Medellín and Bogotá.

Life conditions of afro-Colombian are quite poor. The Pacific Coast has the second, under five, child mortality rate, 32 per 1,000 born alive. Common diseases at the provinces are connected to poverty conditions such as those related to the respiratory tract system and some intestinal infections. A high portion of blacks does not have access to health services and when available, they are in bad conditions. In Chocó for example during 2000, no more than 45.8% of people had a health insurance, in Cauca 42.2% had it and 40.8% in Nariño. The percentage of people insured in the provinces at the Atlantic Coast with black communities and low human development, ranges from 35.5% in Magdalena to 43.9% in Guajira. The percentage for San Andrés is 49.6%. The problem is not reduced to a lack of health insurance. At these provinces, people with medical insurance, get low quality services and they are also offered in weak institutional capacity conditions.

34 Kumpanias.
36 The rate for the country is 28.
Black communities in Colombia are living in extremely poor sanitary conditions. Chocó and Córdoba have the lowest percentage of people with access to drinkable water, 47.2% y 57.2%, respectively. Access to sewage system is less extended than water. Around 20% of Chocó’s population live in a house connected to a sewage system; the rate for Córdoba is 29%. Garbage produced by households is collected only for 14% of the population in Chocó38.

Besides lacking sanitary conditions, houses occupied by black communities, usually have not been legalized and it is frequent to find more than three people sharing a room. In Cesar 11.5% of households live in houses where three or more people sleep at the same room, the percentage for Chocó and Córdoba is around 8%. In Nariño there are more than three people sharing a room in 14% of households.

When living at rural areas, afro-Colombians derived income from agriculture and mining. But these activities are exploited with traditional handicraft techniques and are not productive. As a consequence, income is quite low. To give an example, household income per month in Cauca is 62% of national average and 82% compared with national mean in Magdalena. In urban centers it is frequent to find black people working at the informal sector.

As is noted by Barbary (1999), one weakness of the studies dealing with the standard of living determinants among ethnic or minorities is quality of data and the lack of statistics basis. The 1993 Census carried out by DANE included a question in order to classify people according to the ethnic group they belong to. The answer to that question was not really the expected one. For example, just 0.5% of the total population recognized him or herself as an indigenous or Afro-Colombian. In Chocó, a province where most of the inhabitants are blacks or mulattos, only 2.6% of people said he/she belongs to any of those ethnic groups. This figure shows that Colombians could not be conscious about their ethnic and this leads to a biased data. It could also mean that the differences of color are not biological and what is relevant is the personal perception of social exclusion.

During 2000, DANE included in one of its household surveys, a set of social characterization questions39. Though this survey is carried out in 13 cities of the country40, it is the first attempt after the 1993 National Census to obtain data classified by ethnic. Based on that survey we raise some arguments.

The method used to establish the ethnic group the person belongs to, was self-identification. That means the interviewee was shown a set of four photographs from which he or she has to identify. The photos corresponded to a black, a colored, an olive-skinned, and a white person.

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39 DANE, Encuesta Nacional de Hogares carried out during December of that year.
40 Barranquilla, Bucaramanga, Bogotá, Manizales, Medellín, Cali, Pasto, Cartagena, Villavicencio, Pereira, Cúcuta, Ibagué, Montería.
Colombians unconsciousness about their ethnic group seems to have biased the answers from this survey as well. In all thirteen cities only 2.4% of people identify him/herself as been black. This figure is quite below the expected 10%\(^1\). Despite this fact, some of the results from the survey seem to be according to what is foreseen.

There are two basic indicators that help to identify the differences among ethnic groups: illiteracy rate and, gross and net enrolment ratio. The results show that illiteracy tends to increase once skin color darkens. While illiteracy rate for olive-skinned and white people is around 5.5%, the one corresponding to colored people and blacks is around 10%.

Primary net enrolment ratio shows no big differences among the ethnic groups, the rate is around 84% for all groups (Graph 3). Contrary to that fact, the ratio for secondary education and university decreases while the skin color darkens. In other words, while the percentage of white young attending secondary education is 75%, for black young is close to 60%. This gap increases when talking about graduate studies. In this case, 3 out of 10 white young between 18 and 24 go to a university. This contrast to the percentage of black with the same age, 14% attended graduate studies.

Differences on age, children from different ethnic groups go to school could be observed through gross enrolment ratio for primary. That means that white children go to school early than black ones but also, they finish first (Table 3). The average age for black children attending primary school is 9.4. White students are on average 8.0 years old. Besides that, when analyzing the ratio for graduate studies it is found that if blacks do not enroll the university as soon as they finish secondary education, they won’t do that later on. Other ethnic groups have higher possibilities to enroll the university at later ages (Table 3).

\(^{1}\) Barbary, 1999 argues that the number of afro-Colombians have been estimated around 10% of total population.
Table 3: Gross Enrolment Ratios in 13 Cities, 2000

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skin Color</th>
<th>Gross Enrolment Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>117.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colored</td>
<td>110.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olive Skinned</td>
<td>107.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>106.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Color</td>
<td>104.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>107.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Health insurance also decreases when skin color darkens. The lowest percentage of health insurance is for blacks (59% of black population). Around 75% of whites say they have a health insurance (Graph 4).

Graph 4: 13 Cities: Health Insurance by Ethnic Group


Unemployment rates on the other side do not show big differences among ethnic groups. Unfortunately, data availability does not allow knowing the structure of occupations. Therefore, it is not possible to say that blacks have a low unemployment rate because they are ready to take no qualified occupations or ones with low payments. Unemployment rates obtained when grouping black and colored people from one side and olive-skinned and white from the other are 20.6% and 19.9%, respectively. Global participation rate favours the first group (82.8%). Olive-skinned and white as a group, have a participation rate of 81.5%. In summary, blacks have a higher participation in the labour force but they also have a higher unemployment rate.
2.2.2 Indigenous Population

There are not demographic indicators for indigenous in Colombia, but data available show that these people live in marginal and poor sectors. They are settled down in Vaupés, Amazonas, Guainía, Guaviare\(^{42}\) and Guajira. In these provinces most of the population is indigenous. Other provinces with a significant portion of indigenous are Cauca, Chocó, Nariño and Putumayo (see map 7). Human development in all of them is lower than the national mean.

Except for Guajira, life expectancy at birth in these provinces is lower than national average. Access to health services there, is restricted and the quality of those available is poor compared to national level conditions. Again, common diseases at these provinces are those connected to poverty conditions (respiratory tract disease and other intestinal infections). Tuberculosis is also one of the morbidity’s causes found in some of the provinces occupied by indigenous.

Education access is not extended at the New Provinces and though there is not data available, access to other social services is expected to be restricted.

Finally, National Constitution of 1991 has established special conditions for indigenous and afro-Colombian setting rules for the election of the Parliament’s members. While indigenous can elect two people for highest chamber (Senado) blacks have merely access to two positions at the lowest chamber (Cámara).

2.2.3 Income’s inequality effect on HDI

Income inequality has a negative effect on the country’s human development. The Gini coefficient has increased from 0.544 in 1996 to 0.560 at 2000. The value in 2001 is 0.546. Inequality means that, even after doing the required correction for all countries, Colombia will lose several positions in the international ranking. When HDI is affected by Gini coefficient, it decreases 13 points. The values obtained for the index in such a way, are 0.642 and 0.646 for 1997 and 2001, respectively\(^{43}\). Human development adjusted by inequality would increase nearly 2% if Gini would reduce by 10% (Table 1).

Country provinces’ order changes, if inequality in the income distribution is taken into account as part of human development. As an example, inequality is highest in Bogotá compared to Valle del Cauca and Atlántico, as a consequence when provinces are ordered using HDI adjusted by Gini, the gap among them decreases around 50%. Excluding Córdoba, the provinces in the Atlantic Cost show the smallest income inequality indexes. In such a sense, after the adjustment, they have a significant decrease in the human development gap in relation to the national mean.

According to the correction for inequality during 2001, 10 provinces improve their positions. They are: Norte de Santander which gains 9 positions, Magdalena and Cesar that advance 8 and 6 positions, respectively, La Guajira and Bolívar gain 3 and 4 positions, respectively and, Atlántico, Nariño and Chocó, one position among others. After that correction Boyacá, Córdoba, Meta, Antioquia, Huila, Tolima and Valle del Cauca loose positions, while Bogotá, Sucre and Risaralda stand at their positions. Adjustment by income is only made to GDP per capita, constituting just an example of one variable’s effect on human development. There are other disparities related to the distribution of education or life.

\(^{42}\) These are from the group known as New Provinces.

\(^{43}\) The correction for inequality follows the method introduced by UNDP in the 1993’s Report. In other words, Gross Development Product index is adjusted by (1- Gini coefficient).
expectancy that are strongly evident when the index is calculated individually for the different provinces and sectors (urban and rural) in the country.

3 Assessing World Millennium Development Goals’ Progress in Colombia

Two years have passed, since the Meeting of the United Nations was held, in which the world leaders set measurable objectives for development and poverty reduction by 2015. These objectives are summarized as follows:

- Halving extreme world poverty
- Universal primary education
- To promote gender equality in education
- To reduce by two thirds under one and under five child mortality rates
- To reduce mother mortality rates by three quarters
- Tackling HIV/AIDS, malaria and some other diseases
- To assure environmental sustainability
- Make alliances to work in favor of development

Colombia has reached or is on the way to meet two thirds of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The country has gotten progress related to primary universal education and gender equality in basic education (primary and secondary levels). That last goal was even reached since the second half of the Nineties, though as it was said on the previous section, the economic crisis affected women more than men.

Urban areas are close to get universal access to drinkable water but not the rural ones, where the covering is inferior to 50% of the population. Extreme poverty was following a reducing path since 1991 but unfortunately, since 1998 it has been increasing, which means the country is slipping behind on that target.

According to the rate of progress between 1990 and 2000, just four provinces and the Capital District have reached or are on track to get three-quarters of the MDGs.

Thirteen provinces out of 24 including the Capital District have human development problems and that means a high amount of people living in poverty. Those provinces share the same characteristics: infant mortality is by large caused by breathing diseases and intestinal infections, all of them have an economy based on agriculture and, others suffer directly the effect of political violence that forced people at rural areas to migrate to cities.

Provinces with that kind of problems can be grouped as follows: the Pacific Coast except by Valle; those on the Atlantic Coast leaving aside Atlántico, Bolívar and in some way Sucre; and some provinces from the center (Caquetá, Tolima, Cundinamarca, Meta and Boyacá).

Unemployment rates in most of these provinces are higher than national levels. Colombia reached in 2000 an unemployment rate of 20.1% and 13.3% in urban and rural areas, respectively. While Huila,

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44 From those assessed here.
45 Progress is assessed from 1990 to 2000. Where there are not data available for the first year it is used the closest one.
46 We take into account only nine out of 10 goals because there is not data related to hunger conditions for all the population in the country.
Chocó, Cundinamarca and Córdoba got rates superior to the national average for urban areas, Meta, Cundinamarca and Córdoba did for the rural sector.

The following sections describe the progress made by the different provinces to meet MDGs targets.

3.1 Mother mortality rate

Women deaths as a result of pregnancy and childbirth together with child mortality rates are two indicators of a country’s progress. During the period 1983 to 1995, mother mortality rates have been diminishing from 171/100000 to 81.1/100000 of the born alive, but the number of deaths related to pregnancy and childbirth is still high. The highest rate is for those women between 20 and 29 years old. Nearly 13% of maternal deaths are produced before an age of 20.

In 1995, Colombia was still far from providing access and quality services to pregnant women. In Colombia, the probability of dying because of problems related to pregnancy and childbirth is extremely high compared to Chile (48/100000 in 1987) or Canada (5/100000 in 1988). During the second half of the Nineties, the highest mother mortality rate was found at the New Provinces with 183.6 per 100000 of the born alive. This rate more than doubles the national mean. Most of them do not get the universal target of 20/100000 of the born alive. Six among the New Provinces are classified as slipping behind the target. Guainía is the only one considered quite far behind, while Putumayo and San Andrés are on track (Table 4).

The number of women deaths related to pregnancy and childbirth is also high in the provinces from the Pacific Coast (Cauca, Nariño and Chocó). Social and demographic conditions place these provinces among those with extreme poverty in the country. In 1995, mother mortality rates for those provinces varied from 178/100000 to 196/100000 of the born alive. According to the rate of progress achieved from 1986-1990 to 1991-1995 Chocó and Nariño will not meet the target becoming part of the group of the lagging provinces.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4: Mother mortality rate progress in the provinces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Far behind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guainía</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Women at New Provinces represent 2.8% from the total female population in the country; women from Boyacá, Caquetá, Chocó, Huila, Meta and Nariño are 12.7% of that total and, those from the provinces on track to get mother mortality rate target excluding Putumayo and San Andrés are 84.5% from all women in Colombia.

Source: Classified using mother mortality rates generated by DNP/ DDS/Grupo de Calidad de Vida.

According to the progress rate in Boyacá this department is slipping behind the target. Anyway it is important to note that this province has a significant portion of people living in rural areas, where

47 DANE, ENH, September, 2000.
48 DNP/DDS/División de Indicadores y Orientación del Gasto Social Sistema de Indicadores Sociodemográficos para Colombia (SISD), 1999.
49 In order to classify the provinces we follow UNDP method. If the province has attained the rate of progress required to achieve the target by 2015 or has attained 90% of that rate of progress then it is ranked as on track. If the province has achieved between 70% and 89% of the rate of progress required to meet the target then it is said to be lagging. A country is far behind a target when the rate of progress is less than 70%. Finally, if the level of achievement is at least 5 percentage points worst in 2000 than in the reference year (1990), the country is slipping back.
50 Valle del Cauca is excluded due to its considerably low rates and superior development conditions when compared to the others.
access to health services is difficult and there is not the required infrastructure. The other provinces on table 4 show rates that rank them among the group on the way to meet the target by 2015. Most of them are the same provinces that previously where set as those with higher human development indexes.

3.2 Child mortality

Rather than mortality rates, in Colombia the estimations refer to probabilities. Under-one mortality rate estimated by PROFAMILIA for 1995-2000 is 24 per 1000 live births. Children mortality rate (under-five mortality rate) is 28 per 1000 live births. Infant mortality rates like other indexes are higher in rural than urban areas, 31 per 1000 against 21 per 1000 live births, respectively. Mortality rates for under-five are shown on graph 5. The progress to reach infant mortality rates is shown on map 8.

We followed UNDP criteria when ranking provinces according to child mortality progress. In such a sense, a country is on track to meet a target if it has a child mortality rate below 15 per 1000. Between 1975-1980 and 1995-2000 infant mortality rate fell by 50%, but the rate of progress is not enough to reach the target. During that period, under-five mortality rate decreased by 58%. That means, Colombia is lagging in relation to the target.

Provinces with lower child mortality rates are: Bogotá, Antioquia, Caldas, Risaralda, Quindío, Tolima. Huila y Caquetá. The higher ones are found in Cesar, Huila and Magdalena. As expected, child mortality is higher among boys than girls and it depends on mother’s education. Mortality rates among children of women with no education are three times higher than those found when mother has gone to university. Child mortality grows when mother is younger than 20 years old51.

Guajira, Cesar, Magdalena, Bolívar, Sucre, Córdoba, Cauca and Nariño are provinces with the highest child mortality rates in the country. Between 1995 and 2000, six provinces have a raise in that rate: Boyacá, Cundinamarca, Meta, Guajira, Cesar and Magdalena.

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3.3 Extreme Poverty

To assess progress in halving poverty we have used Extreme Poverty Line Index. This index measures extreme poverty through income perceived by households. The method requires measuring the value of a normative food basket with the following conditions:

- It is enough to meet a minimum nourishing requirement per day: 2,200 calories, 62g of proteins, calcium, iron, retinol and vitamin C are among them.
- Population food habits must be respected
- It takes into account food availability
- It has a minimum cost

The value of this normative basket is the extreme poverty line, EPL. A household whose income is not enough to buy that basket for all its members is said to be in extreme poverty. The indigenous line in Colombia was calculated by DANE, using the 1984-1985 Income and Expenditure Survey. From that time on, the line is recalculated month to month based on the consumer prices variations.

| Table 5: Percentage of people living in extreme poverty by area, 1991, 1997 y 2000 |
|----------------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| Total                                 | 20.4   | 18.1   | 23.4   |
| Urbana                                | 13.8   | 8.3    | 15.8   |
| Rural                                 | 35.2   | 42.9   | 43.4   |


According to EPL, extreme poverty in Colombia has been growing (Table 5). In 1991 20.4% of the population was suffering from extreme poverty. In 2000 the percentage was raised up to 23.4%. Although, the higher increase was in the cities, most of people in that situation live in rural areas. When assessing extreme poverty in provinces, those with the higher rates during 2000 were: Chocó (47.4%), Nariño (40.6%) and Cauca (39.7%). Extreme poverty between 1997 and 2000 has a slow decrease in Cauca, Córdoba and Quindío. Colombia’s poverty conditions during last years means that most of the provinces are lagging in relation to the goal of halving poverty for 2015.

3.4 Access to improved water services

The percentage of people with access to improved water services shows social development’s inequality in the country. Colombia has progressed considerably reaching universal access in urban areas. At the rural sector on the other side the picture is bleak. In 2000, 97.3% of the cities’ population can consume drinkable water, while just 47.6% at the rural areas can do it. Urban areas are then on track to meet universal access by 2015 but, rural ones are behind. The millennium goal is to halve the percentage of people without access to improved water. With the present rate of progress, by 2015, 95% of Colombians would have access to drinkable water, which means that although there is not universal access, the goal could be met. There are also big differences in the rate of progress among provinces. Córdoba, Cesar, Meta and Tolima have made the least progress so they are lagging to achieve universal access.

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52 DANE, Encuesta de Hogares of DANE at September from each year.
The higher proportion of people with access to improved water services are found in Bogotá, Atlántico, Valle, Quindío and Risaralda. Sixteen provinces are on track to meet the goal. Chocó has one of the lowest percentages of people consuming drinkable water (47.2%) but if it maintains its rate of progress, it could meet the target by 2015.

3.5 Universal Education

To assess progress achieving universal primary education, we have used net primary enrolment ratio, 1996 and 2000. It is obtained as the ratio of primary enrolment (children 7 to 11 years old) to the total number of children between 7 and 11.

In 2000, primary net enrolment ratio in Colombia was 83.6%. According to that fact, Colombia is on the way to meet universal primary education despite the disparities between urban and rural areas. During that year, 10 out of 100 children between 7 and 11 years old living in rural areas did not go to school. In urban areas the number is 5 out of 100.

There are differences in the time, provinces take to reach universal primary education, but all of them are on the way to do so. There are also disparities related to social and economic factors. Poor do not have the required economic resources to send children to school and besides, government lacks the necessary infrastructure and incentives to maintain them at school. In 1999 nearly 100% of children between 7 and 11 years from the 20% richest population was attended a primary school. The proportion of children from the poorest 20% is around 90%.

In 2000 the closest provinces to universal education in Colombia were: Antioquia, Bogotá, Sucre and Cundinamarca. Bogotá and Valle have net enrolment rates below national mean. This is in part a result of the increasing number of children younger than seven going to school in those provinces. The provinces with the inferior enrolment ratios are Guajira, Caquetá, Cauca, Nariño and Quindío.

53 It means that only 67% among 24 provinces would get the target. Lack of data for the new provinces makes hard to assess their progress, but poor social and economic conditions characterize them suggesting they are struggling to achieve the goal.
55 It is measured according to the participation in total income.
3.6 Children reaching grade five

Taking the cohort 1995-1999 it is observed that just 59 out 100 children enrolled at primary education during the first year reached grade five\textsuperscript{56}. That rate is low in part because merely 75% of children enrolled in first grade finished it. From first to fourth grade another 12% of children left school\textsuperscript{57}. When looking at rural sector, the percentage of children reaching fifth grade is 35 out of 100 enrolled at first grade in 1995, compared to 78.3% at the cities (Graph 7).

\textsuperscript{56} The rate does not depend on the time children take to finish school.

\textsuperscript{57} DNP/DDS/GCV, Boletín SISD #29, 2001.
The country is then lagging to get all children reach grade five. Bogotá and San Andrés got the highest rates, 83.3% and 79.5%, respectively. Despite that fact, they are far behind to meet the goal together with all other provinces. In provinces like Caquetá, Cauca, Cesar, Córdoba, Chocó, Guajira, Sucre, Arauca, Putumayo, Guaviare and Vichada less than 50% of children enrolled at first grade during 1995 reached the fifth in 1999.

### 3.7 Gender equality in basic education: primary and secondary

Before finishing Nineties, Colombia had met gender equality in the access to primary and secondary education. By 1998, a higher portion of girls than boys was attending school. This is perhaps the only MDG the country has met.

There are not big disparities among provinces. In those provinces where there is a ratio of girls to boys in school less than 1, that ratio is never inferior to 0.97. Among them are Caquetá, Córdoba, Cundinamarca, Chocó, Meta and Santander. That condition does not differ between primary and secondary education. Map 9 shows the progress of the provinces to reach all MDGs.

### 4 Concluding Remarks

By 2001, Colombia has reached a HDI of 0.771. There are nevertheless, huge disparities among regions with respect to human development progress. These disparities are also seen when assessing the progress to met MDGs. During that year, HDI for the rural area is 0.096 points lower than urban. While urban sector, has met levels close to those classified by UNDP of high human development, rural areas just got medium levels.

When regions are ranked according to HDI during the decade, two regions stand out at the extremes: Chocó as the less developed and Bogotá as the top one. From 1991 to 2001 the gap between the maximum HDI value and the minimum one, decreased just 3%. The gap in GDP, between Bogotá and Chocó, increased from US$ 1,488 PPP in 1991 to 2,100 in 2001.

Gender inequality in the country, measured through Gender Development Index (GDI), shows an advance during the decade if it is compared with the 1985 levels. GDI for that year is 0.646 and for 2001 it is 0.766. Colombia is in a positive path of gender equity. In seven years, from 1994 to 2001, DGI increased by 4.3 points and as a result, the differential between that index and HDI is reduced. By
2001 the indexes are practically equal, while labor income difference do not favor women, the effect of violence in life expectancy change against men.

According to HPI, poverty has decreased along the decade. HPI for 1990-1995 was 12.8% and it reduced to 10.6% in 1999. Human poverty differs along regions. Bogotá appears as the one with the lower poverty with 7.9%, while Chocó is the region with the maximum index with 21.9%, more than two times the national mean.

Income inequality has a negative effect on the country’s human development. Gini coefficient has increased from 0.544 in 1996 to 0.560 at 2000. That means that HDI adjusted by Gini is reduced to 0.642 and 0.646 for 1997 and 2001, respectively.

When assessing the trends to reach MDGs from 1990 to 2000, just four regions and the Capital District have reached or are on track to get three-quarters of the stipulated goals.

During the second half of the Nineties, the highest mother mortality rate was found at the New Regions with 183.6 per 100,000 of the born alive. This rate, more than doubles the national mean. Most of them will not get the universal target of 20/100,000 born alive by 2015. The number of women deaths related to pregnancy and childbirth is also high in the regions from the Pacific Coast (Cauca, Nariño and Chocó). According to the rate of progress in Boyacá, this department is slipping behind the target.

Regions with lower child mortality rates are: Bogotá, Antioquia, Caldas, Risaralda, Quindío, Tolima, Huila, and Caquetá. The higher ones are found in Cesar, Huila and Magdalena. Guajira, Cesar, Magdalena, Bolívar, Sucre, Córdoba, Cauca and Nariño are regions with the highest child mortality rates in the country.

While assessing extreme poverty in regions, those with the higher rates during 2000 were: Chocó (47.4%), Nariño (40.6%) and Cauca (39.7%). Extreme poverty between 1997 and 2000 has a slow decrease in Cauca, Córdoba and Quindío. Colombia’s poverty conditions during the last years means that most of the regions are lagging in relation to the goal of halving poverty for 2015.

The higher proportion of people with access to improved water services are found in Bogotá, Atlántico, Valle, Quindío and Risaralda. Chocó has one of the lowest percentages of people consuming drinkable water (47.2%) but if it maintains its rate of progress, it could reach the target by 2015.

There are differences on time, regions take to reach universal primary education, but all of them are on the way to do so. Nevertheless, the country is lagging to get all children reach grade five. Bogotá and San Andrés have the highest rates, 83.3% and 79.5%, respectively. In Caquetá, Cauca, Cesar, Córdoba, Chocó, Guajira, Sucre, Arauca, Putumayo, Guaviare and Vichada less than 50% of children enrolled at first grade during 1995 reached the fifth in 1999.

Before finishing Nineties, Colombia had met gender equality in the access to primary and secondary education. By 1998, a higher portion of girls than boys was attending school.

While depending on agriculture, regions with problems to reach MDGs have most of their population living at rural areas, in a Country where land distribution is very unequal. The proportion ranges between 32.7% of total population for Guajira to 62.5% in the case of Cauca. When assessing government’s role in regions with low human development, proxy by social expenditures per capita, it is found that along the decade, government’s expenditure has been below the national mean.
The consequence of political violence, one of the features of Colombian history, is suffered by most of the regions with human development problems. The armed conflict that involves the army, guerrilla and paramilitary groups has forced thousands of people to flee to small cities and the Capital District.

Finally, most of the regions from the Atlantic Coast and others from the Pacific with severe human development problems are occupied by minority groups. A great part of the population at those areas is afro-Colombian. In the New Regions and some other from the center which are lagging behind to reach MDGs we find another minority group: the indigenous.

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Source: UNDP/DNP/PNDH “Diez Años de Desarrollo Humano en Colombia”
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