STATISTICAL ABSTRACT OF LATIN AMERICA

Series Editor

JAMES W. WILKIE

STATISTICAL ABSTRACT OF LATIN AMERICA

VOLUME 37

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UCLA Latin American Center Publications
University of California, Los Angeles

Citation

James W. Wilkie, Eduardo Alemán, and José Guadalupe Ortega, eds., *Statistical Abstract of Latin America,* Volume 37 (Los Angeles: UCLA Latin American Center Publications, University of California, 2001).

Other Library Entries

1. Statistical Abstract of Latin America.

2. California. University, Los Angeles. Latin American Center. Statistical Abstract of Latin America.

3. [Earlier name]. California. University, Los Angeles. Committee on Latin American Studies. Statistical Abstract of Latin America.

4. University of California. Los Angeles. Latin American Center. *Statistical Abstract of Latin America.*

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Box 951447
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Los Angeles, California 90095-1447

http://www.isop.ucla.edu/lac

ISBN (cloth): 0-87903-264-2

Library of Congress Card Number: 56-63569

Printed in the United States of America

∞ The paper used in this publication meets the minimum requirements of the American National Standard for Information Sciences–Permanence of Paper for Printed Library Materials, ANSI Z39.48–1984.

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Editors' Preface

The *Statistical Abstract of Latin America* (SALA) publishes current reliable statistics on the societies, economies, and politics of Latin America and guides users to additional quantitative publications and statistical sources on the region.

SALA compiles and presents data from some 250 national and international sources for twenty Latin American countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Many tables include statistics on regional and world totals, as well as data for non-Latin American countries. In many instances, the abstracted data are compiled from several sources, published and unpublished, and reconfigured to produce tables unavailable elsewhere.

The editors strive to provide the most extensive and complete data on each topic. Statistics are presented in time series covering several years or decades whenever possible. Users who wish to review the approaches and methodologies for the data in each table may wish to consult the original source cited. Abbreviations for the most frequently cited sources and the symbols used in the tables are listed in the Explanation Terms, contained in the preliminary pages, and are reprinted on the front and back endsheets for convenience. The Note on Statistical Definitions gives weight and measure equivalencies and explains alternative methods for calculating rate of change over time.

Every year the editorial staff incorporates the latest available statistics and reviews all data, source citations, and explanatory notes for completeness and accuracy; updates time series data; adds tables on topics not previously covered, where appropriate; and eliminates tables that have appeared, unchanged, in several consecutive volumes and for which no new data are available. In these cases, a footnote refers the user to a previous edition of SALA. Therefore, readers will want to consult previous editions for prior time periods, intervening years, and more extensive coverage of related topics.

In some cases, current data are preliminary or provisional. These figures are confirmed or revised in each subsequent SALA volume. The present volume contains the most current data available as of September 2000. The variation in the latest year shown for particular tables occurs because of the publication schedules of the various sources and the time period of the data contained in them.

As noted above, SALA publishes statistics from numerous sources. For some topics, we present data from more than one source. This practice simply underscores the fact that variations in statistics can be attributed to differences in definition, parameters, coverage, and methodology, as well as date gathered, prepared, or adjusted.

The book is divided into eleven parts:

I. Geography, Land, and Environment
II. Transportation and Communication
III. Population, Health, and Education
IV. Politics, Religion, and Military
V. Working Conditions and Migration
VI. Illegal and Legal Industry
VII. Mining, Energy, Sea, and Land Production
VIII. Foreign Trade
IX. Financial Flows
X. National Accounts, Government Policy and Finance, and Prices
XI. Development of Data

The Introduction discusses the concept of Latin America, as used in SALA, as well as other geographical, geopolitical, cultural, and historical definitions; the rise and composition of regional trade blocs in Latin America and major world trade blocs; and Latin America's integration into world economies. The last section of the Introduction lists the analytical essays that have been published in previous SALA volumes and in the SALA Supplement series.

The editors continually seek to improve the presentation and scope of every table and chapter. Recently, we have expanded coverage on the environment, poverty, women, and globalization. While time constraints preclude the staff from responding to individual requests for data searches, we welcome comments on presentation and content, as well as suggestions of topics for coverage in future editions of SALA.

James W. Wilkie, *Editor*
Eduardo Alemán, *Co-Editor*
José Ortega, *Co-Editor*

Introduction

The concept of Latin America used in SALA utilizes the standard definition involving 20 countries. This standard definition is used for two reasons. First, Latin America's own self-identification of the 20 countries is critical, as discussed below. Second, data are not consistently available for the various other definitions of Latin America, some of which include units (such as Martinique and French Guiana) that are not independent bodies but rather colonies of Europe, legally as well as in economic and financial flows. Although SALA focuses on the standard list of 20 countries of Latin America, at times comparative data are given for bodies considered part of the region when it is defined in extended terms, that is, as Extended Latin America (ELA).

The 20 countries of Latin America (labeled A through T) are listed in Table 1, which presents Latin America as perceived by itself. According to Latin America's self-identification, the region is traditionally united by core language, religion, culture, bureaucratic outlook, and timing of the post-independence experience based upon nineteenth-century liberalism and free trade. Haiti is included not because of its Latin-based French language but because of its interaction with the Dominican Republic (which it ruled between 1822 and 1844) and its historic identification with Latin American affairs. Former non-Spanish colonies of the Caribbean and South America are excluded because they have had little or no interaction in dialogue and events in Latin America. Puerto Rico is excluded from Latin America, of course, because it has never been independent, belonging until 1898 to Spain and subsequently to the United States.

Problems in the definition of Latin America have come from several directions. After 1910 the 20 traditional Latin American republics (plus the United States) made up the Pan American Union, known since 1948 as the Organization of American States (OAS). Cuba was expelled from the OAS in 1962, reducing the number of Latin American members to 19. In 1967 the former English colonies of Barbados and Trinidad and Tobago joined the OAS as did Jamaica in 1969; and thus, in the minds of those who equate the Latin American region with the OAS, the number of countries south of the U.S. border rose to 22. Canada joined the OAS in 1990, further complicating the relationship of the OAS and nontraditionally defined Latin America. Statistical publications of the OAS in the 1970s began to compare total figures for the 22 countries with data for the United States, with the total reaching 31 in the 1980s. Additional problems of definition come from some geographically minded observers who have sought to delimit the world neatly into physical regions regardless of cultural ties and other historical patterns. For those observers "Latin America" includes all of the islands of the Caribbean and the three South American mainland Guianas (see Table 3) even though they are oriented toward Europe. The emergence of trade blocs may change this orientation to identification with the "Americas."

Latin America's regional trade groupings are shown in Table 2. Part I lists the blocs that formed from 1960 through about 1990. Because these groups succeeded only marginally, a new series of

Table 1
THE 20 COUNTRIES OF LATIN AMERICA

A.	ARGENTINA	K.	GUATEMALA
B.	BOLIVIA	L.	HAITI
C.	BRAZIL	M.	HONDURAS
D.	CHILE	N.	MEXICO
E.	COLOMBIA	O.	NICARAGUA
F.	COSTA RICA	P.	PANAMA
G.	CUBA	Q.	PARAGUAY
H.	DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	R.	PERU
I.	ECUADOR	S.	URUGUAY
J.	EL SALVADOR	T.	VENEZUELA

trade arrangements has emerged since 1990, led by Mexico as the linchpin for establishing free trade in the Americas. Part II summarizes the blocs developed by Mexico, which is capitalizing on its role in establishing NAFTA. In addition to NAFTA, Mexico participates in six other agreements. Mexico's grand design calls for integrating the ten free trade areas (FTAs) listed in Table 2, Part III. A potential challenge to Mexico's leadership in forming such free trade arrangements may come from Brazil, which seeks to establish SAFTA, the South American Free Trade Area, as a counterweight to Mexico and NAFTA.

Although Latin America is joining the process of trade globalization by forming blocs within the region and linking the region to other cultural areas, the 20 countries of Latin America maintain their historical self-definition (see Table 1 and Figure 1). Figure 1 shows the size of countries according to population rather than geographical area. The cartographic view in 1980 of Latin America's 20 countries (Figure 1) is compared to that view for Extended Latin America (ELA) based on 30 political units (Figure 2). In 1972 Latin America had an estimated population of 283,822,140 compared with ELA's 291,646,708. The difference of 7.8 million means that Latin America had 97 percent of ELA's population. Of ELA's 19 metropolitan areas of one million persons or more in 1972, 18 were in Latin America. San Juan, Puerto Rico, was the only major city in ELA outside of Latin America proper.

Various definitions of Extended Latin America are given in Table 3, with concepts differing according to agency. ELA contains up to 26 more bodies than the 20 standard Latin American countries. Table 3 expands Latin America to ELA on the basis of the "Caribbean" units defined by the Caribbean/Central American Action (C/CAA). Because C/CAA is oriented toward the U.S. legislative concept called the Caribbean Basin Initiative, C/CAA considers as belonging to the Caribbean 25 political units in addition to the Central American countries (including even El Salvador, which borders the Pacific Ocean, not the Caribbean). The FAO definition is almost as inclusive as that of the C/CAA, omitting only Bermuda. The OAS has 31 members, the Latin American countries plus the 13 included in Table 3. (Since 1962 Cuba has been suspended from activities but not membership; Guyana has observer status but not membership.)

Table 2
REGIONAL TRADE GROUPINGS IN LATIN AMERICA, 1960–90

PART I. HISTORICAL TRADE BLOCS, 1960–90

Bloc	Member Countries	Date of Entry
LAIA/LAFTA[1]	ARGENTINA	Jan. 1981
	BOLIVIA	Mar. 1982
	BRAZIL	Nov. 1981
	CHILE	May 1981
	COLOMBIA	May 1981
	ECUADOR	Mar. 1982
	MEXICO	Feb. 1981
	PARAGUAY	Dec. 1980
	PERU	Nov. 1981
	URUGUAY	Mar. 1981
	VENEZUELA	Mar. 1982
AG[2]	BOLIVIA	Nov. 1969
	COLOMBIA	Sept. 1969
	ECUADOR	Nov. 1969
	PERU	Oct. 1969
	VENEZUELA	Nov. 1973
CACM[3]	COSTA RICA	Sept. 1963
	EL SALVADOR	May 1961
	GUATEMALA	May 1961
	HONDURAS	Apr. 1962[a]
	NICARAGUA	May 1961
	PANAMA	July 1991

PART II. BLOCS WITH WHICH MEXICO HAS FTA (SINCE 1990)

Bloc	Members
NAFTA	Mexico, United States, Canada
Mexico–SICA[4]	Mexico, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua
G3[5]	Mexico, Colombia, Venezuela
Mexico–Chile	
Mexico–Costa Rica	
ACS[6]	Mexico, CARICOM, SICA, Cuba, Colombia, Haiti, Venezuela, Dominican Republic, Suriname
Mexico–Bolivia[7]	

PART III. FREE TRADE AREAS WITH WHICH MEXICO DOES NOT YET HAVE AGREEMENTS, 1994

FTA	Countries
MERCOSUR[8]	Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay
Renewed Andean Pact	Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Venezuela
Re-rejuvenated LAIA	See Part I, above
SAFTA[9]	
Northern South America-Northern Central America	Colombia, Venezuela, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras
Northern Central America	Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras
Belize–Mexico[10]	
European Union-MERCOSUR[11]	
Chile-Bilateral pacts with	Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Venezuela
Colombia-Bilateral pacts with	22 countries worldwide

1. Latin American Integration Association/Latin American Free Trade Association, 1960–80.
2. Cartagena Agreement, Andean Group. Chile withdrew in 1976 and during the 1980s the Andean Group effectively died. In 1991 new agreements were signed to reactivate the Andean Group by 1995.
3. Central American Common Market; effectively died in 1969 with the outbreak of the Soccer War.
4. System for Central American Integration; formerly Central American Common Market. Scheduled to become effective at end of 1996. (For discussion see source, below.)
5. Members of LAFTA (Latin American Free Trade Association), listed in Part I, sclerotic by the 1980s.
6. Association of Caribbean States; became effective January 1, 1995.
7. Became effective January 1, 1995.
8. Mercado Común del Cono Sur; became effective January 1, 1995.
9. South American Free Trade Area; Brazilian plan to counter NAFTA. Scheduled to become effective December 1995.
10. No effective date determined.
11. No effective date determined.

a. Withdrew January 1971.

SOURCE: For detailed discussion and additional data, see James W. Wilkie and Olga M. Lazin, "Mexico as Linchpin for Free Trade in the Americas," SALA, 31, part 2.

Figure 1
POPULATION CARTOGRAM OF LATIN AMERICA
(1980)

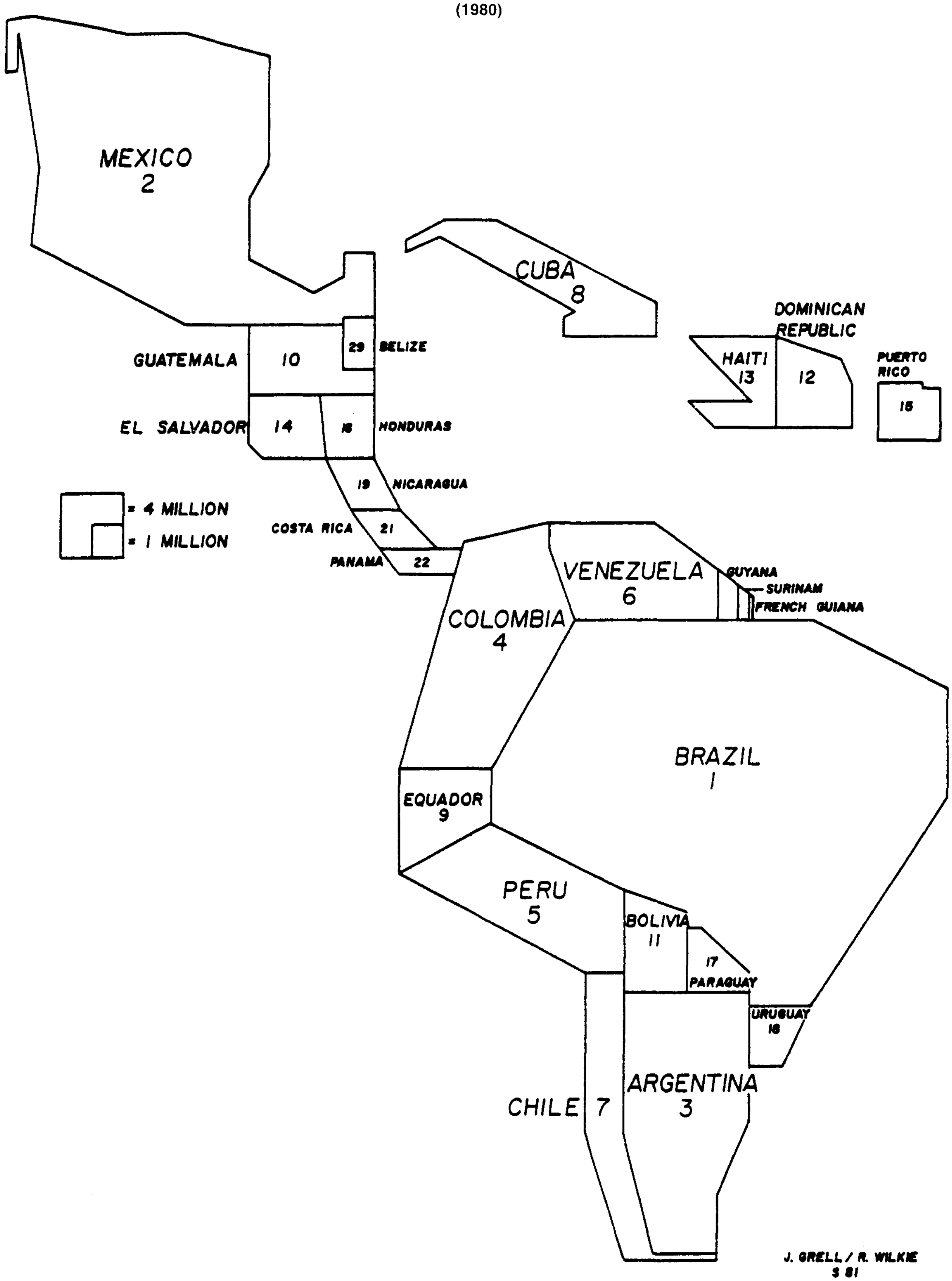
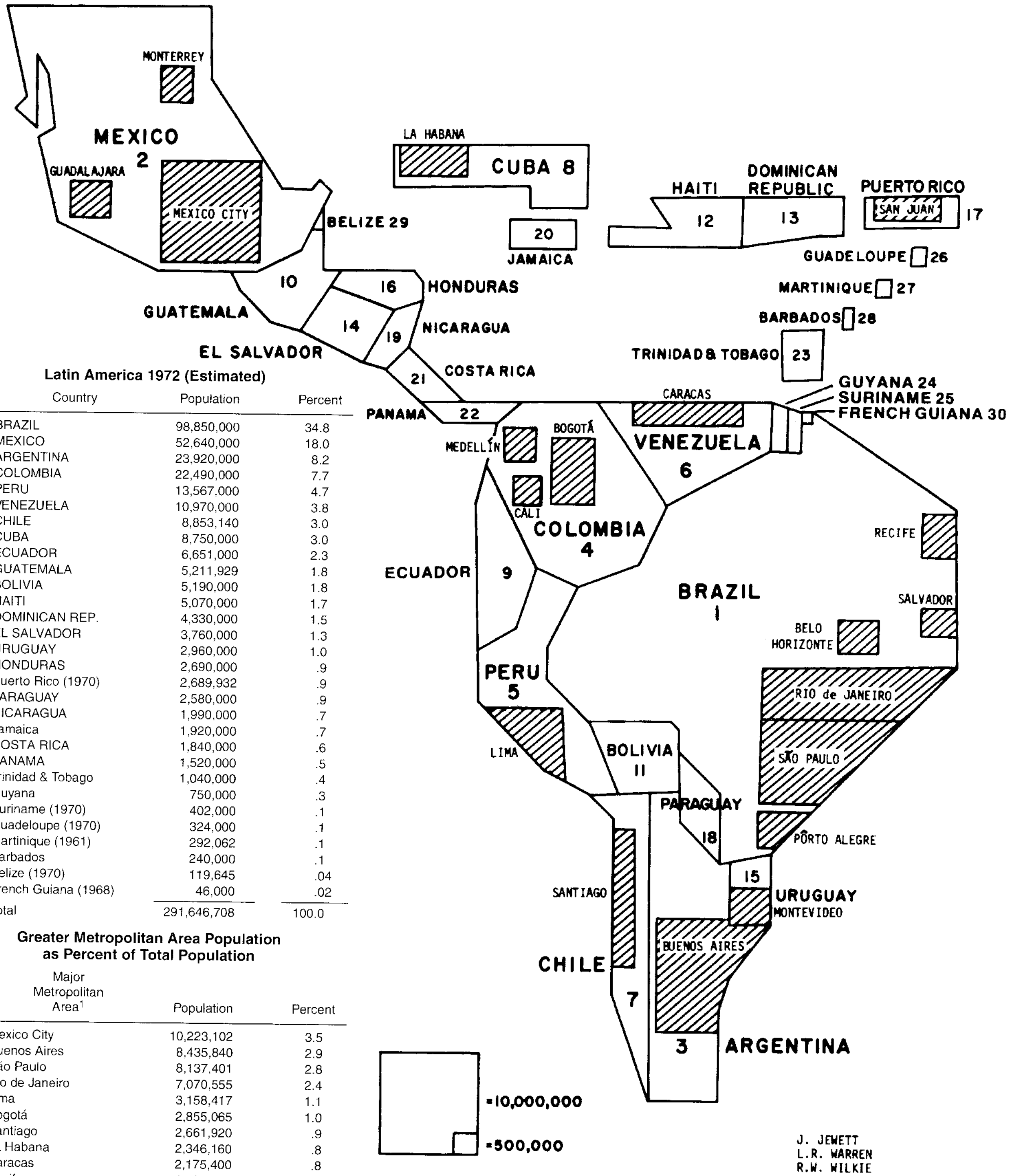


Figure 2
CARTOGRAM OF EXTENDED LATIN AMERICA (ELA)
(1972)



Latin America 1972 (Estimated)

	Country	Population	Percent
1.	BRAZIL	98,850,000	34.8
2.	MEXICO	52,640,000	18.0
3.	ARGENTINA	23,920,000	8.2
4.	COLOMBIA	22,490,000	7.7
5.	PERU	13,567,000	4.7
6.	VENEZUELA	10,970,000	3.8
7.	CHILE	8,853,140	3.0
8.	CUBA	8,750,000	3.0
9.	ECUADOR	6,651,000	2.3
10.	GUATEMALA	5,211,929	1.8
11.	BOLIVIA	5,190,000	1.8
12.	HAITI	5,070,000	1.7
13.	DOMINICAN REP.	4,330,000	1.5
14.	EL SALVADOR	3,760,000	1.3
15.	URUGUAY	2,960,000	1.0
16.	HONDURAS	2,690,000	.9
17.	Puerto Rico (1970)	2,689,932	.9
18.	PARAGUAY	2,580,000	.9
19.	NICARAGUA	1,990,000	.7
20.	Jamaica	1,920,000	.7
21.	COSTA RICA	1,840,000	.6
22.	PANAMA	1,520,000	.5
23.	Trinidad & Tobago	1,040,000	.4
24.	Guyana	750,000	.3
25.	Suriname (1970)	402,000	.1
26.	Guadeloupe (1970)	324,000	.1
27.	Martinique (1961)	292,062	.1
28.	Barbados	240,000	.1
29.	Belize (1970)	119,645	.04
30.	French Guiana (1968)	46,000	.02
	Total	291,646,708	100.0

Greater Metropolitan Area Population as Percent of Total Population

	Major Metropolitan Area[1]	Population	Percent
1.	Mexico City	10,223,102	3.5
2.	Buenos Aires	8,435,840	2.9
3.	São Paulo	8,137,401	2.8
4.	Rio de Janeiro	7,070,555	2.4
5.	Lima	3,158,417	1.1
6.	Bogotá	2,855,065	1.0
7.	Santiago	2,661,920	.9
8.	La Habana	2,346,160	.8
9.	Caracas	2,175,400	.8
10.	Recife	1,538,845	.5
11.	Guadalajara	1,456,000	.5
12.	Belo Horizonte	1,425,600	.5
13.	Porto Alegre	1,223,577	.4
14.	Monterrey	1,213,000	.4
15.	San Juan	1,185,000	.4
16.	Montevideo	1,163,177	.4
17.	Medellín	1,147,000	.4
18.	Salvador (Bahia)	1,007,744	.3
19.	Cali	969,000	.3
	Total	59,079,038	20.3

1. Cities over 1 million population.

Table 3
MAJOR INTERNATIONAL AFFILIATIONS, 20 L, 1995
(As of December 31)

PART I. TRADITIONALLY DEFINED LATIN AMERICA

	Country	Andean Pact	ALADI[1]	Amazon Pact	ACS[2]	CARICOM[3]	Geplacea[4]	Group of Rio	IDB[5]	NAFTA[6]	OAS[7]	SELA[8]	Mercosur[9]
A.	ARGENTINA		A				A	A	A		A	A	A
B.	BOLIVIA	B	B	B			B	B	B		B	B	
C.	BRAZIL		C	C			C	C	C		C	C	C
D.	CHILE	D[10]	D					D	D		D	D	
E.	COLOMBIA	E	E	E	E		E	E	E		E	E	
F.	COSTA RICA				F		F		F		F	F	
G.	CUBA				G		G		**		G[11]	G	
H.	DOMINICAN REP.				H	H[12]	H		H		H	H	
I.	ECUADOR	I	I	I			I	I	I		I	I	
J.	EL SALVADOR				J		J		J		J	J	
K.	GUATEMALA				K		K		K		K	K	
L.	HAITI				L	L[12]	L		L		L	L	
M.	HONDURAS				M		M		M		M	M	
N.	MEXICO		N		N	N[12]	N	N	N	N	N	N	
O.	NICARAGUA				O		O		O		O	O	
P.	PANAMA				P		P	P[13]	P		P	P	
Q.	PARAGUAY		Q					Q	Q		Q	Q	Q
R.	PERU	R[14]	R	R			R	R	R		R	R	
S.	URUGUAY		S				S	S	S		S	S	S
T.	VENEZUELA	T	T	T	T	T[12]	T	T	T		T	T	

1. Latin American Integration Association, 1990.
2. Association of Caribbean States, 1994.
3. Caribbean Community and Common Market, 1973.
4. Group of Latin American and Caribbean Sugar Exporting Countries, 1974.
5. Inter-American Development Bank, 1959.
6. North American Free Trade Agreement, 1993.
7. Organization of American States, 1948.
8. Latin American Economic System, 1975.
9. South American Common Market, 1991.
10. Chile withdrew in 1976.
11. Cuba was suspended in 1962.
12. Observer.
13. Panama's membership was suspended in 1988.
14. Peru was temporarily suspended following the 1992 presidential coup.

SOURCE: *Keesing's Record of World Events*, vol. 42, 1996, Reference Supplement, p. R62.

Table 3 (Continued)
MAJOR INTERNATIONAL AFFILIATIONS, 20 L, 1995
(As of December 31)

PART II. NON-TRADITIONALLY DEFINED LATIN AMERICA ADDS:

			Organization by Country											
Independent Countries	Year of Independence	From	Amazon Pact	ACS[1]	OAS	IDB:L	ECLA:L	CARICOM[2]	Geplacea[3]	ECCM	OECS	CBI-IB	FAO	SELA[4]
1. Antigua-Barbuda	1981	Great Britain		1	1			1		1	1	1	1	
2. Bahamas	1973	Great Britain		2	2	2	2	2				2	2	
3. Barbados	1966	Great Britain		3	3	3	3	3	3			3	3	3
4. Belize	1981	Great Britain		4	4	4		4				4	4	
5. Dominica	1978	Great Britain		5	5			5		5	5	5	5	
6. Grenada	1974	Great Britain		6	6		6	6		6	6	6	6	6
7. Guyana	1966	Great Britain	7	7	7	7	7	7	7			7	7	7
8. Jamaica	1962	Great Britain		8	8	8	8	8				8	8	8
9. St. Kitts-Nevis[5]	1983	Great Britain		9	9			9		9	9	9	9	
10. St. Lucia	1977	Great Britain		10	10			10		10	10	10	10	
11. St. Vincent-Grenadines	1979	Great Britain		11	11			11		11	11	11	11	
12. Suriname	1975	Netherlands	12	12	12	12	12	12				12	12	12
13. Trinidad and Tobago	1962	Great Britain		13	13	13	13	13	13					13

Dependent Countries	Belonging to	CARICOM[2]	ECCM	OECS	CBI-IB	FAO
T1. Anguilla	Great Britain		T1			T1
T2. Bermuda	Great Britain[6]					
T3. British Virgin Islands	Great Britain				T3	T3
T4. Cayman Islands	Great Britain				T4	T4
T5. French Guiana	France					T5
T6. Guadeloupe	France					T6
T7. Malvinas (Falkland) Islands	Great Britain					
T8. Martinique	France					T8
T9. Montserrat	Great Britain	T9	T9	T9	T9	T9
T10. Netherlands Antilles	Netherlands				T10	T10
T11. Puerto Rico	United States					T11
T12. Turks and Caicos	Great Britain				T12	T12
T13. U.S. Virgin Islands	United States					T13

1. Association of Caribbean States.
2. The Caribbean Community and Common Market (CARICOM) was established in 1973 to replace the Caribbean Free Trade Association (CARIFTA), founded in 1967.
3. Group of Latin American and Caribbean Sugar Exporting Countries.
4. Latin American Economic System was established in October 1975.
5. St. Kitts is officially known as St. Christopher.
6. Bermuda has been self-governing since 1968. Although under Great Britain, it claims Bermudian nationality.

SOURCE: Various, including especially C/CAA, 1983; COHA, May 4, 1982, p. 4; WA, 1987, p. 640; *Keesing's Record of World Events*, vol. 42, 1996, Reference Supplement, p. R62.

Figure 3
MAP OF EXTENDED LATIN AMERICA (ELA)
(Mercator Projection)

SOURCE: SALA-SNP, p. xxvi.

Figure 4
POLITICAL MAP OF EXTENDED LATIN AMERICA (ELA)

Table 4
LAND AREA OF LATIN AMERICA, 20 LRC

	Country	% of Latin America	Sq. Mi. (T)	Equals Approximate Foreign Area as Coded
	Latin American Total	100.0	7,686	ASA 2 X the 50 U.S. States[1]
A.	ARGENTINA[2,3]	14.0	1,072	AA 4 X Texas
B.	BOLIVIA[4]	5.5	423	SLT California and Texas
C.	BRAZIL[3]	42.5	3,265	ASA 9% larger than continental U.S.[5]
D.	CHILE[2,3]	3.8	292	SLT 2 X California
E.	COLOMBIA[3]	5.7	440	SLT California, Texas, Maryland and Connecticut
F.	COSTA RICA	.3	20	ASA 5 X Los Angeles County
G.	CUBA	.6	44	SLT Pennsylvania
H.	DOMINICAN REP.	.2	19	ASA Vermont and New Hampshire
I.	ECUADOR[3]	1.4	104	ASA Colorado
J.	EL SALVADOR	.1	8	ASA 2 X Los Angeles County
K.	GUATEMALA	.5	42	ASA Tennessee
L.	HAITI	.1	11	ASA Maryland
M.	HONDURAS	.6	43	MT Tennessee
N.	MEXICO[6]	9.9	760	SLT 3 X Texas
O.	NICARAGUA[7]	.6	46	SLT Mississippi
P.	PANAMA[8]	.4	30	SLT South Carolina
Q.	PARAGUAY	2.0	157	SLT California
R.	PERU[3,9]	6.4	494	SLT 2 X Texas
S.	URUGUAY	.9	69	MT Washington State
T.	VENEZUELA[3,10]	4.5	347	MT 2 X California
	Israel	**	8	ASA 2 X Los Angeles County
	Japan	**	144	SLT California
	Switzerland	**	16	ASA 4 X Los Angeles County

Code: ASA = about same as...
MT = more than...
SLT = slightly less than...

1. Fifty U.S. states = 3,540 sq. mi., excluding lakes.
2. Excludes Argentina's South Atlantic islands and Antarctica (482,000 sq. mi.) and Chile's Antarctica (483,000 sq. mi.).
3. Excludes areas in litigation.
4. Excludes 1,424 sq. mi. of Bolivia's part of Lake Titicaca.
5. Forty-eight continental states = 2,968 sq. mi., excluding lakes.
6. Excludes islands.
7. Excludes 3,474 sq. mi. of Nicaragua's lakes.
8. Includes Panama Canal Zone (568 sq. mi.).
9. Excludes 1,917 sq. mi. of Peru's part of Lake Titicaca.
10. Excludes 5,113 sq. mi. of Venezuela's lake Maracaibo and Lake Valencia.

SOURCE: Calculated from SALA, 21–300 and 21–301; IASI-AC, 1972, table 101-04 and IASC-AC, 1974, table 201-01. Bolivia is from Jorge Muñoz Reyes, *Geografía de Bolivia* (La Paz: Academia Nacional de Ciencias de Bolivia, 1977), p. 2; United States is from USBC-SA, 1978, p. 6. Israel, Japan, and Switzerland is from WA, 1984, pp. 509, 512, 541. For area in square kilometers, including each country's lakes and inland waters, see table 100, below.

Table 5
LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES RANKED ACCORDING TO AREA, POPULATION SIZE, AND DENSITY[1]

Country (Largest Area to Smallest)	Area (Excluding Lakes)[2]	Population (Highest = 1) (1972)	Density[3] (Lowest = 1) (1970s)[4]
BRAZIL	1	1	5
ARGENTINA	2	3	3
MEXICO	3	2	14
PERU	4	5	4
COLOMBIA	5	4	10
BOLIVIA	6	11	1
VENEZUELA	7	6	8
CHILE	8	7	7
PARAGUAY	9	17	2
ECUADOR	10	9	13
URUGUAY	11	15	9
NICARAGUA	12	18	6
CUBA	13	8	17
HONDURAS	14	16	12
GUATEMALA	15	10	16
PANAMA	16	20	11
COSTA RICA	17	19	15
DOMINICAN REP.	18	13	18
HAITI	19	12	19
EL SALVADOR	20	14	20

1. For discussion, see SALA, 25, pp. xxii–xxvi.
2. Excluding lakes and inland waters; for these inclusions, see table 100 below.
3. Persons per km^2 (population divided by area).
4. Varying years from 1971 to 1982.

SOURCE: SALA, 25, p. xxiii.

Table 6
LATIN AMERICA LAND AREA IN ELA AND THE WORLD

Category	Area (k^2)	Explanation
World	132,495,836	
A. ELA[1]	20,447,284	A = B + G
B. Latin America	19,907,626	Included in A
C. CACM[2]	411,170	Included in B
D. LAIA[3]	19,228,658	Included in B
E. Andean Group	5,443,818	Included in D
F. CLA[4]	267,798	Included in B
G. CNLA[5]	539,658	Included in A
H. CARICOM[6]	257,384	Included in G

1. Extended Latin America.
2. Central American Common Market.
3. Latin American Integration Association.
4. Caribbean Latin America.
5. Caribbean Not Latin America.
6. Caribbean Community and Common Market.

SOURCE: Adapted in summary form from SALA, 23-2.

Figures 3 and 4 present a geographical view and a political view of ELA, respectively. Some small Caribbean islands appear as dots on these maps, but are better represented in Figure 2 which portrays the population relationship.

The comparative land area of Latin America proper is detailed in Table 4. Comparisons are made not only among the 20 countries but also with states in the United States and with three small countries which have achieved major roles on the world stage—Israel, Japan, and Switzerland. Comparisons of the size of Latin American countries vary according to observers; for example, in England Guatemala is often compared to Greece but in Guatemala the comparison is to Holland, Belgium, and Switzerland. Latin America constitutes 97 percent of ELA. This can be calculated from Table 6.

Rankings of the 20 Latin American countries are given in Table 5. The countries with the first and third largest land area (Brazil and Mexico) contain 52.4 percent of the region's territory (see Table 4). The countries with the first and second largest populations (Brazil and Mexico) contained 53.4 percent of the region's population in 1972 (see Figure 1). (In 1980 these two countries accounted for 54.3 percent of the total Latin American population; see Figure 5:1 in Chapter 5.) The country with the smallest land area (El Salvador) was the highest in density even though it ranked 14 in population size. The country with the smallest population (Panama) ranked 16 in area and 11 in density. The country of median rank (10) in area is Ecuador, which in the 1970s ranked 9 in population and 13 in density.

Latin America and the World

With economic globalization and Latin America's integration into world economies, the need for comparative data on economic and trade blocs has become ever more apparent.[1] To serve the expanding needs of researchers and to aid current and future analysis, SALA now publishes more extensive worldwide data, with particular emphasis on comparisons with Latin America.

Japan looms especially large in Latin America not only because of its immigrant populations in Brazil and Peru but also because of its major investments in those countries and in the Mexican northwest border region. China sees Mexico as its major competitor for access to U.S. markets for low-cost, low-tech products. In their quest for membership in the European Union (EU), the countries of Eastern Europe hope to learn from the experiences of countries like Chile and Argentina, who seek to join NAFTA.

Table 7 shows Latin American membership in various Western Hemisphere trade blocs as well as selected members of the European Union (EU) and the Association of Petroleum-Exporting Countries (APEC). Comparative data on the membership of the North American Free Trade Area (NAFTA) appear in Table 8.

[1]See Olga M. Lazin, "Emerging World Trade Blocs: The North American Free Trade Area and the European Union Compared," SALA 31:2, pp. 1205–1219.

The population of the world's two most important trade blocs, NAFTA and the fifteen countries of the EU, is approximately the same—about 370 million. With respect to economies, Germany is the leading economic power within the EU, followed by France and Italy. The United States has the highest GNP among all countries ($5.9 trillion) and the highest GNP/C within NAFTA ($23,120) (Table 8).

Japan is often considered the economic "enemy" of both NAFTA and the EU, and Table 7 shows why. Japan has established a worldwide web of trade dependency. Japan's GDP/C is 21 percent higher than that of the United States. Its accumulation of world trade capital is one reason why so many countries are forming implicit trade blocs in order to compete successfully in global markets. NAFTA offers the United States, Canada, and Mexico the potential to expand international trade at Japan's expense.

The United States is the Western Hemisphere leader in terms of GDP/C, followed by Canada at 84.3 percent of the U.S. total (Table 7). Although the population of the EU is 48 percent larger than that of the United States, its GDP/C is only 89 percent of the U.S. figure.

In the Americas, Mexico has established itself as the linchpin for free trade,[2] despite the fact that Mexico has only one-third the U.S. population, 5 percent of the U.S. GNP, and 15.3 percent of the U.S. GNP/C (Table 8). The NAFTA framework, however, has enhanced Mexico's position, as illustrated by increased U.S. business investment since 1994. The EU divides into five constituencies, illustrated by the four concentric circles and the core (Belgium, France, Germany, Holland, and Luxembourg) in Figure 5. The rings depict the relative influence of the various countries, with the core being the most committed to the process of integration. The EU case is illustrative, for it portends the kind of internal economic alliances into which NAFTA will no doubt divide as it expands. Already, for example, Mexico and Brazil compete for dominance of Latin American trade in the Americas. Argentina is a member of the Brazil-dominated MERCOSUR but seeks alliance with

[2]See James W. Wilkie and Olga M. Lazin, "Mexico as Linchpin for Free Trade in the Americas," SALA, 31:2, pp. 1173–1203.

Table 7
MAJOR WORLD TRADE BLOCS AND SAMPLE MEMBER COUNTRIES[1] (About 1993)

PART I. BLOCS

Trade Bloc	Number of Members	Population (M)	GDP (B US)	GDP/C[2] (US)
NAFTA	3	363.3	6,404.2	17,622
SICA	6	29.5	36.0	1,222
ACS	25	198.7	474.0	2,386
G3	3	137.8	377.7	2,740
Andean Pact	5	93.8	160.1	1,707
MERCOSUR[3]	4	191.6	544.1	2,840
European Union[4]	15	368.8	7,269.1	19,658
European Union	12	345.0	6,144.0	17,809
APEC	13	1,961.0	11,135.1	5,678

PART II. SAMPLE MEMBER COUNTRIES[5]

Trade Bloc	Number of Members	Population (M)	GDP (B US)	GDP/C[2] (US)
NAFTA				
Mexico		83.3	282.5	3,391
United States		252.7	5,610.8	22,203
Canada		27.3	510.8	18,711
SICA				
Costa Rica		3.1	5.6	1,796
ACS				
Cuba		10.7	26.9	2,500
G3				
Colombia		33.6	41.7	1,241
Andean Pact				
Venezuela		20.2	53.4	2,644
MERCOSUR				
Brazil		151.4	414.1	2,735
Chile[6]		13.4	31.3	2,336
European Union				
Germany		79.6	1,692.0	21,256
APEC				
Japan		124.0	3,337.0	26,911

1. Mexico included in NAFTA, SICA, ACS, and G3; Colombia and Venezuela included in ACS, G3, and Andean Pact.
2. Revises source data.
3. Mercado Común del Sur.
4. Includes the three countries that joined the EU in 1995 (Austria, Finland, and Sweden). Data are for 1992.
5. Except NAFTA includes all three member countries.
6. Nonmember.

SOURCE: Adapted from James W. Wilkie and Olga M. Lazin, "Mexico as Linchpin for Free Trade in the Americas," SALA, 31:2, table A3.

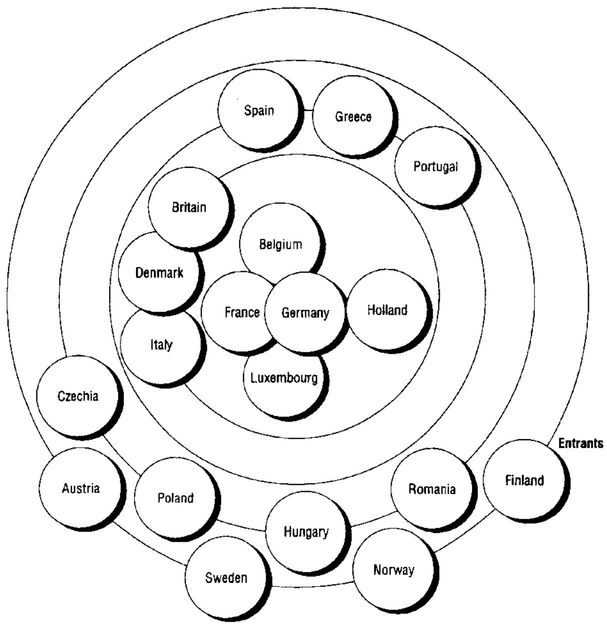
Table 8
NORTH AMERICAN FREE TRADE AREA POPULATION, GNP, GNP/C, AND EXPORT SHARE OF GNP (1992)

Country	Population (M)	GNP (M US)	GNP/C (US)	Export Share of GNP (%)
Canada	27,844	565,787	20,320	25
Mexico	84,967	294,831	3,470	14
United States	255,414	5,904,822	23,120	11
Total	368,225	6,765,440	18,374[a]	12[a]

a. Weighted.

SOURCE: Olga M. Lazin, "Emerging World Trade Blocs: The North American Free Trade Area and the European Union Compared," SALA, 31:2, table B3.

Figure 5
THE EUROPEAN UNION'S FIVE "CONSTITUENCIES"



SOURCE: Based upon "The European Union: Back to the Drawing Board," *The Economist*, September 10, 1994.

Mexico in order to protect itself against Brazilian dominance in South America.

Table 9 (based on the work of José Luis Cordeiro) compares the wealth of the 20 Latin American countries with that of major regions, nations, cities, companies, universities, and individuals worldwide. In 1992 the EU ranked first in wealth, with $6,561.3 billion (6.6 trillion) of gross product, with the United States and Japan following with $935.5 billion (5.9 trillion) and $3,509.7 billion (3.5 trillion), respectively. Extended Latin America (defined by Cordeiro as 26 countries, including Puerto Rico) had a GDP of $1,216.8 billion (1.2 trillion), matched by Italy and nearly matched by Yorki-fornia—New York + California = $1,083.2 billion (1 trillion).

The city-to-city comparisons are interesting. In 1992 Metro Tokyo had more wealth ($654 billion) than Canada ($568 billion), Brazil ($426 billion), or Mexico ($295 billion). Metro Mexico City had a GDP of $79 billion, yet its population of 21 million was larger by 2 million than Metro Tokyo. U.S. entrepreneur William (Bill) Gates is worth $6.7 billion, more than the GDP for each Central American country except Guatemala ($9.5 billion). Harvard University's endowment of $5.3 billion is more than two times Haiti's GDP of 2.5 billion.

Rankings of "wealth" are not easily carried out comparatively, however, as we are reminded by the fact that GDP values at market exchange rate (which reveals international buying power) may not be the same when valued in terms of "purchasing power parity" (PPP). (PPP takes into account the factor by which a dollar buys more inside developing countries than inside rich ones.) Figure 6 shows the top 30 economies in the world ranked according to GDP in two different ways. The bar graph gives the absolute value according to PPP values (rankings shown in left column) and according to market exchange rate values (rankings shown in right column). The only country with the same rank according to both methods is the United States, ranked 1. Brazil's rank in world GDP is 9 at PPP value and 8 at market exchange rate value; Brazil is the only Latin American country that ranks in the top ten. Among the other countries in the top 10 (Part I), Japan, Germany, and Italy also rank very closely on both scales.

The PPP rankings of the next 20 countries (Part II) show that Mexico (13), Argentina (23), and Colombia (25) rank well ahead of Switzerland

Table 9
WORLDWIDE COMPARATIVE WEALTH:[1] REGIONS, NATIONS, CITIES, COMPANIES, UNIVERSITIES, AND INDIVIDUALS, 1992
(B US)

Entity	Wealth	Entity	Wealth
European Union (15 countries)	6,561.30	British Petroleum (U.K.)	59.2
United States	5,935.50	T. VENEZUELA	58.8
Japan	3,509.70	Malasia	51.9
Germany	1,856.20	Siemens (Germany)	51.4
France	1,277.70	Philip Morris (U.S.)	50.2
Latin America	1,216.80	E. COLOMBIA	44.4
Italy	1,182.60	Singapore	44.0
Yorki-fornia	1,083.20	D. CHILE	37.1
California (State)	656.8	Sultan of Brunei	37.0
Tokyo (Metro)	654.0	Procter & Gamble (U.S.)	29.9
Canada	567.5	Puerto Rico	23.7
China	546.2	PDVSA (Venezuela)	21.5
Spain	546.2	R. PERU	21.3
New York (State)	426.4	Pemex (Mexico)	21.1
Russian Federation	374.0	G. CUBA	17.1
United Kingdom	316.7	Petrobrás (Brazil)	14.2
Texas (State)	315.9	I. ECUADOR	11.8
Low Countries	311.3	S. URUGUAY	10.4
Australia	302.1	King of Saudi Arabia	10.0
South Korea	296.7	K. GUATEMALA	9.5
N. Mexico	295.0	Kenya	8.6
Los Angeles (Metro)	274.1	Queen of England	7.8
India	273.9	H. DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	7.7
Florida (State)	261.6	Sheikh of Kuwait	7.0
Illinois (State)	251.3	William Gates (U.S.)	6.7
Switzerland	249.0	Telmex (Mexico)	6.6
Sweden	235.0	General Motors of Mexico	6.6
Paris (Metro)	222.1	J. EL SALVADOR	6.3
A. ARGENTINA	200.3	F. COSTA RICA	6.3
Taiwan	192.9	Q. PARAGUAY	6.2
London (Metro)	188.6	P. PANAMA	6.1
Itochu/trading (Japan)	154.5	CFE (Mexico)	6.0
Sumitomo/trading (Japan)	144.5	Petrobrás Distrib. (Brazil)	6.0
Massachusetts (State)	144.3	Harvard University (U.S.)	5.3
Mitsubishi/trading (Japan)	142.6	Autolatina (Argentina-Brazil)	5.2
Marubeni/trading (Japan)	138.9	Trinidad and Tobago	5.1
Mitsui & Co./trading (Japan)	137.5	B. BOLIVIA	5.1
General Motors (U.S.)	132.8	Lucky Goldstar/trading (Korea)	5.0
Saudi Arabia	126.2	YPF (Argentina)	3.9
Thailand	106.7	Emilio Azcarraga (Mexico)	3.7
Exxon (U.S.)	103.5	Bahamas	3.6
Ford Motor (U.S.)	100.8	Ross Perot (U.S.)	3.3
Shell (U.K.-Holland)	98.9	Jamaica	3.2
Hong Kong	89.1	M. HONDURAS	3.1
Mexico (Metro)	79.2	Carlos Sim (Mexico)	2.9
Toyota Motor (Japan)	79.1	Hermanos Safra (Brazil)	2.5
Portugal	73.0	L. HAITI	2.5
São Paulo (Metro)	68.7	Hermanos Luksic (Chile)	2.1
IBM (U.S.)	65.1	Barbados	2.0
Daimler Benz (Germany)	63.3	Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) (U.S.)	1.9
General Electric (U.S.)	62.2	Suriname	1.7
Hitachi (Japan)	61.5	O. NICARAGUA	1.3

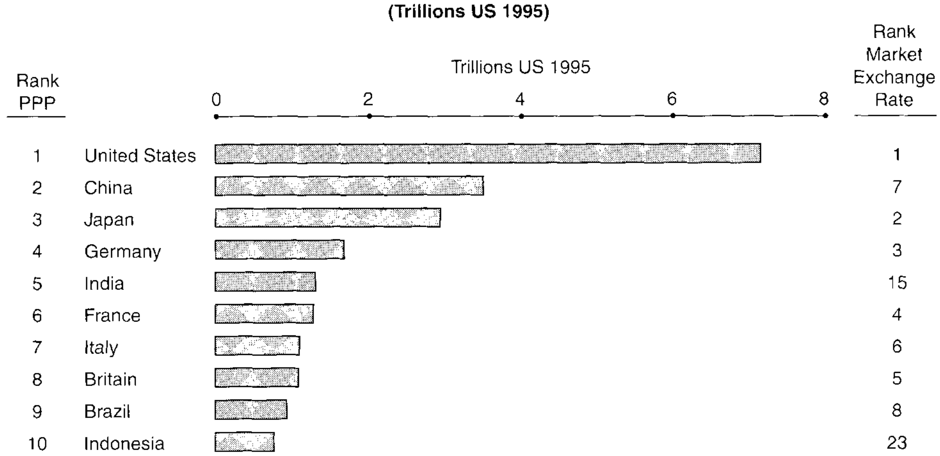
1. The various entities report wealth as GNP, GDP, sales, endowment, net worth, and so on.

SOURCE: José Luis Cordeiro, *El desafío latinoamericano* (Caracas: McGraw-Hill International, 1995), table 13-3.

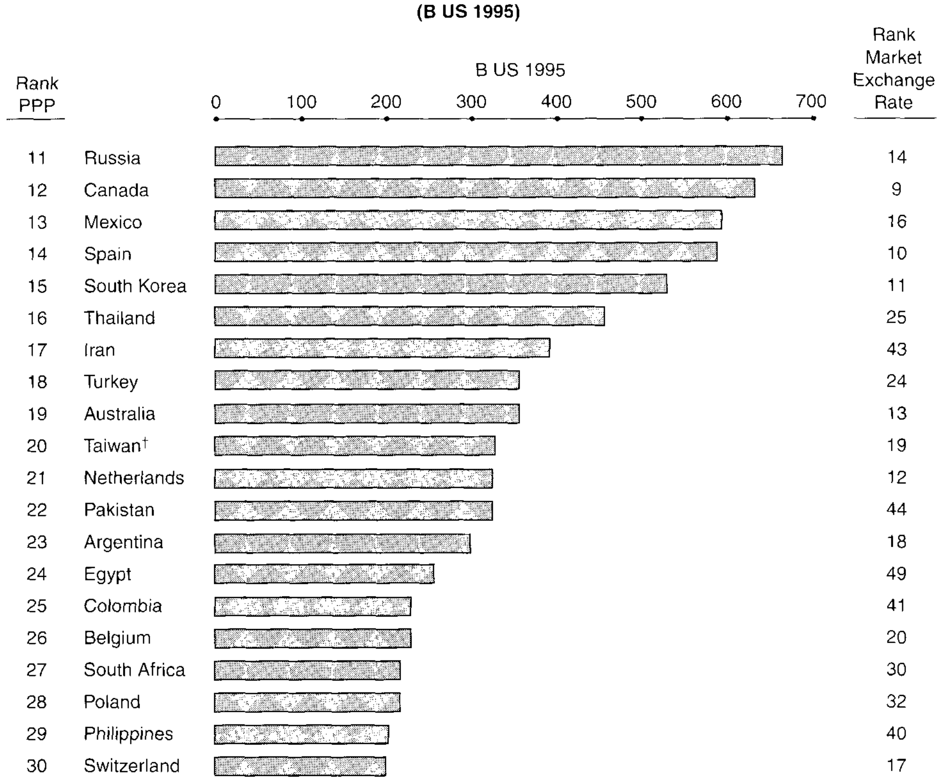
Figure 6

WORLD'S TOP THIRTY ECONOMIES: RANKED BY GDP AT PURCHASING POWER PARITY AND MARKET EXCHANGE RATE

PART I. TOP TEN
(Trillions US 1995)

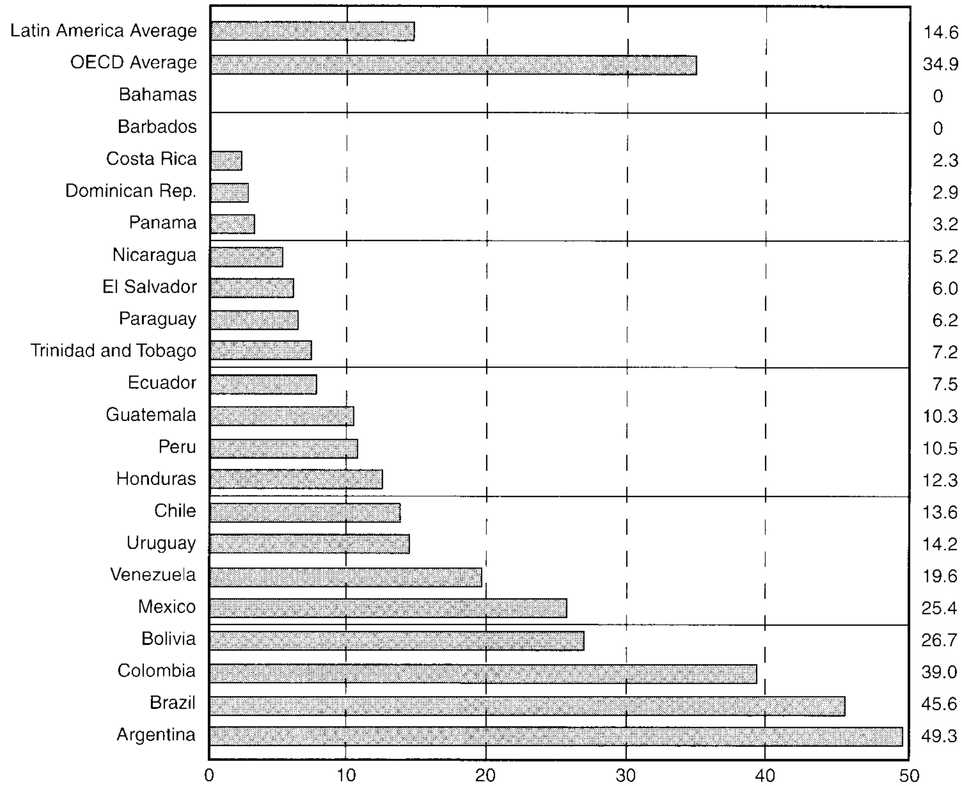


PART II. THE NEXT TWENTY
(B US 1995)



SOURCE: World Bank data adapted here from *The Economist*, June 7, 1997, p. 110.

Figure 7
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE CONTROLLED BY LOCAL AND PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS, 18 LRC, MID-1990s
(%)



SOURCE: IDB-ESPLA, 1997.

(30), although for international purchases the latter ranks 17, behind Mexico (16) and ahead of Argentina (18) and Colombia (41).

To take yet a different view of rankings, the Inter-American Development Bank has calculated the share of the total government budget spent by local and provincial governments (Figure 7). By the mid-1990s, in Latin America local and provincial governments accounted for an average of 15 percent of government spending, compared to the OECD average of 35 percent. (The data in Figure 7 exclude Cuba, where the central government controls 100 percent of the budget.) Whereas an extremely small country such as Costa Rica (where the capital is within easy reach of the provinces) could conceivably justify keeping expenditures 98 percent centralized, a large country such as Mexico (with its poor internal communications system) cannot justify holding 75 percent of the budget in the hands of the central government. In contrast, Brazil and Argentina (both large countries) have dismantled central state power by turning over nearly half of total government expenditure to the local and provincial governments. Even Colombia and Bolivia show higher percentages of decentralized expenditure than Mexico. As of 1998, however, Mexico has begun to turn over a larger share to localities and provinces.

The move away from central government and statist expenditure is reflected in the development of the euro monetary unit, which is scheduled to be implemented in 1999. The euro is intended to compete with the U.S. dollar (since the 1940s) and the Japanese yen (since the 1980s), which heretofore have been the world's reserve and trading currencies. By creating the euro, the European Monetary Union, which comprises 11 of the 15 members of the European Union (EU), seeks to establish a countervailing monetary power. Table 10 compares the economies of the European Monetary Union, the United States, and Japan, the European Monetary Union being second to the United States

Table 10
COMPARATIVE POWER OF THE EURO, THE DOLLAR, AND THE YEN, 1996 AND 1997

	1997		1996	
Entity	GDP (Trillions US)	GDP/C (US)	Exports as Share of GDP (%)	Imports as Share of GDP (%)
European Monetary Union	6.28	21,600	11.7	10.8
United States	8.09	30,100	8.5	10.8
Japan	4.23	33,500	8.9	7.6

SOURCE: IMF and OECD data adapted from the *New York Times*, April 26, 1998.

Table 11
HISTORY AND COMPONENTS OF GLOBALIZATION

A. Gradual Globalization under Mercantilism, Free Trade, and Neo-Mercantilism, 1565–1991	
1. 1565	Long period of mercantilist free trade begins in 1565 with the opening of the first regular global trade link (Europe-Mexico-Orient) via the Manila Galleon from and to Acapulco and ends with the 1991 collapse of the Soviet Union.
2. 18th Century	Smugglers versus Mercantilism.
3. 19th Century	British and U.S. free traders spread the products of the Industrial Revolution to the world. They use Liberal Capitalism to fight Statism, thus opening Central and South America, China, and Japan to steamship trade, investment, and railroad building. Britain fights the slave trade to end slavery's contribution to unfair competition. Rise of the "active state." European countries consolidate colonies in Africa, India, and Asia. Age of the steam locomotive, railways, the telegraph; establishment of Greenwich Mean Time.
4. 20th Century	First World War, or the "Greater European Mechanized War"; rise of Wall Street stock market as world source of capital; first worldwide depression (1930s); rise and fall of Statism (actually Neo-Statism, which now includes welfare capitalism and state capitalism); closed trade blocs; Second World War (the first worldwide war); Cold War.
5. First Green Revolution	From Mexico (where corn production doubles 1940–60; wheat production quadruples 1950–70) First Green Revolution (1950s–80s) radiates outward to avert famine in India and Pakistan, earning U. S. plant breeder Norman E. Borlaug 1970 Nobel Prize. India wheat production triples 1967–92; Philippines rice production doubles 1960–80; extra rice produced by high-yield varieties feeds 700 million people worldwide. Leads to Second Green Revolution (see Part B, item 10 below).
6. Rise of Hi-Tech Light Industry	Hi-tech, light industry replaces low-tech, heavy industry model, upon which, for example, the Russian "Empire" was based beginning in the 1930s; two oil embargoes (1973 and 1979) by Arab states against the United States cause world economic recession of 1970s; U.S. industrial restructuring begins.
7. 1981	Reagan/Thatcher Neo-Liberal revolution versus Statism and closed trade blocs. Soros Foundation helps break the Communist monopoly of news and promotes the rise of civic society by distributing photocopy machines and newsprint behind the Iron Curtain. Fax machines and the Internet facilitate communication and promote awareness of the Chinese Student Revolution (1989) and Chiapas Rebellion (Mexico 1994).
8. 1981–1991	Rise of Neo-Liberalism in the West; fall of the Berlin Wall (1989); implosion of USSR (1991) and the greatest bloodless revolution of the twentieth century; in 1991 U.S. President Bush recalls "all" (or at least most) U.S. tactical weapons based in foreign countries (see item 4, above); end of U.S. defense-oriented economy accelerates U.S. industrial restructuring.
B. Fast-Track Globalization and Interpenetration of 21 Global Components	
1. Communication	New forms of communication enable Neo-Liberalism to capitalize on near-instant worldwide links, compacting time and space, legally and illegally. Jet planes and super tankers (since 1970s); worldwide television and fax transmissions (since 1980s); e-mail (since 1990); global cellular phone communication (by 1998).
2. Personal Computer Revolution	Arrival of the personal computer; flow of information and analysis via the Internet and the World Wide Web in the English language; e-commerce (late 1990s); dramatic growth of stock markets worldwide; e-trading of stocks; first e-citizens (Singapore 1999); increase in self-spreading computer viruses; digital libraries and distance learning; threats of cyber terrorism; Encyclopedia Britannica goes online; real-time voice transmission using Internet protocol (late 1990s); digital video cameras make their way into war zones; ever more powerful computer chips.
3. Electronic Communication and Digitized Analysis and Design	Dramatic growth in financial services, investment, currency trading, insurance underwriting; development of commodity chains for manufacturing and marketing; standardized products (e.g., "World Car," "Barbie Doll") are designed and administered in cyberspace and assembled in several countries using parts manufactured in dozens of countries. Fiber-optic undersea network; U.S. dominates satellite launches, contracting some to China to reduce costs; to compensate for shortage of skilled engineers and other technical staff, U.S. companies hire contract technical professionals from abroad.

Table 11 (Continued)
HISTORY AND COMPONENTS OF GLOBALIZATION

4. NAFTA Open-Trade Model and Rise of Virtual Trade Blocs after 1989	Emergence of the Trans-Global Corporation (TGC), based in cyberspace, represents shift away from the National Production Model of the Trans-National Corporation (TNC) and Multi-National Corporation (MNC). NAFTA signed (1993); Mexico establishes agreements to expand free trade (with Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Venezuela, Chile, Costa Rica) and begins free trade negotiations with Central America, Israel, Japan. Mexico exports as share of GDP rise from 37 percent (1993) to 57 percent (1999); total Latin America exports as share of GDP rise from 30 percent to 38 percent in same period. Mexico signs free trade agreement with EU (1999). EU launches Euro (January 1, 1999). World trade (exports and imports) increases 62 percent, to US$10 trillion (1989–95).
5. Worldwide Flow of Economic Investment	Asian economic crisis of 1997–98 reverberates in Russia, Argentina, Brazil, and, briefly, Mexico; rumors that the U.S. Federal Reserve Bank, seeking to curb inflationary pressures, will raise short-term inter-bank interest rates cause U.S. economy to slow and worldwide stock markets to decline. For example, rumors of April 27, 1998, trigger the following composite one-day percentage declines in market indexes: *Americas:* New York (–2.0), Buenos Aires (–3.5), São Paulo (–5.7), Mexico City (–3.5), Toronto (–1.8) *Asia:* Hong Kong (–2.6), Tokyo (–2.3), Seoul (–1.3), Singapore (–1.3), Sidney (–1.3), Taipei (–1.9), China World (–2.2) *Europe:* Frankfurt (–1.1), London (–2.4), Paris (–2.6), Stockholm (–2.2).
6. Migration	Stock of world immigrant resettlements grows from 50 million in 1989 to 100 million by 1992. Ethnic restaurants spread globally even as hybrid cultures develop in destandardized food and clothing sales.
7. International Tourism	Number of international tourist travelers per year more than doubles between 1980 and 1995 and increases 87 percent by 1998 to 635 million; international tourist expenditures nearly double between 1989 and 1998 (US$439 billion); number of American tourists traveling outside NAFTA region increases from 12 million in 1986 to 20 million by 1996.
8. Educational Standardization	Call for universal high school education; development of university research programs; international student exchanges; spread of distance learning.
9. Health Standardization	Western medicine (immunization/antibiotics/surgery) merges with Eastern medicine (acupuncture/herbs/meditation) leading to holistic approaches to medical treatment.
10. Second Green Revolution (1990s)	Sixteen centers of the Coordinating Group for International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), headquartered in Mexico, undertake long-term breeding of plants to engineer highly productive, disease-resistant, drought-tolerant seeds and plants; modernization of food processing techniques and agricultural processes (e.g., Mexico's GRUMA produces an improved, fortified tortilla for worldwide consumption through an ecologically balanced process); Mexico announces that its "Quality Protein Maiz," with a protein content double that of any previous corn seeds (perfected in Ghana and tested in China and Brazil), would be made available to all Mexican farmers by 2000.
11. Genetic Engineering Revolution	Because plant breeding involves long-term transplant and testing of whole gene pools, it is not seen as "genetic engineering," which met with much criticism in Europe (since 1997) and the U.S. (since 1999). Genetic engineering involves laboratory transplant and manipulation of one gene without long-term field testing prior to marketing. Its application to humans generates less protest than its application in creating bio-tech plants, labeled "Frankenstein foods" by critics of genetic engineering.
12. U.S. Leadership of Globalization Process	Number of U.S. college students studying abroad for credit rises 84 percent between 1985/86 and 1995/96; number of U. S. phone calls to foreign locations more than doubles between 1985 and 1990 and triples by 1994; number of Americans living abroad rises from about 1 million in 1965 to some 5 million by 1998; U.S. direct foreign investment rises from US$640 billion in 1994 to US$796 billion in 1996; one in ten Americans are foreign-born (half born in Latin America); amount of time U.S. network television devoted to foreign news decreases from 45 percent in the 1970s to 13.5 percent in 1995.
13. Worldwide Flow of For-Private-Profit Funds	Investment in plants, stocks, currency, credit services (e.g., foreign direct and portfolio investment) in developing countries rises 468 percent (1990–97), reaching US$153 billion; view of "Trans-National Corporation" shifts from negative to positive.
14. Low U.S. Inflation Rate	U.S. inflation rate less than 3 percent (1997–99); unemployment rate falls to 4.1 percent (well below the 5 percent threshold thought by many theorists to trigger inflation), calling into question predictions since the 1980s that globalization would send millions of American workers to low-paying menial jobs. Instead, by 1999 the five so-called interacting negative factors of globalization (industrial restructuring, export of U.S. capital, export of U.S. jobs, U.S. computer automation, and rising U.S. imports) are seen as leading to more efficient production, more jobs, a labor shortage, and higher average wages. Average real wages, stagnant from 1972 to 1996, rise by 3 percent per year since 1997 to US$13.70 in 1999 (adjusted for inflation in 1999 dollars), up from US$2.50 in 1900 and US$12.50 in 1970.
15. Worldwide Flow of Not-for-Private-Profit Organization Funds: Three Models	(1) *Rockefeller Foundation model:* responsibility for decision-making centralized in New York City–based board of directors, (2) *Soros Foundation model:* board of directors for each country determines how Foundation donations are to be spent; (3) *El Paso Community Foundation model:* trans-border board of directors makes decisions for Greater El Paso/Ciudad Juárez.
16. Promotion of Democratic, Human Rights, and Environmental Values	Democratic, human rights, and environmental values gain status as worldwide goals; increased use of cellular phones and video recordings exposes abuses in these areas; worldwide mobilization via the Internet of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) against World Trade Organization (WTO) (November 1999).

Table 11 (Continued)
HISTORY AND COMPONENTS OF GLOBALIZATION

17. Restructure of Post-1945 National Models to Compete with Post-1980s U.S. Model	*European model:* Beginning of the end of the European development strategy founded on broad-based social security, uniform book pricing, government subsidies of the film and television industries, etc. For example, in 1990s Sweden restructures to encourage entrepreneurship (especially in telecommunications, airlines, and banking) and to narrow income gap between white- and blue-collar workers, while maintaining its system of social welfare benefits. Industrial and financial restructuring begins in Germany (1999), challenging the post-1945 model based on industry/labor/banking agreements on wages, working conditions, decision-making, "bailouts," etc. *Asian model:* Asian model of "Crony Capitalism" reinvents itself. China tries to emulate Taiwan economically but not politically. South Korea breaks up huge, interlocking companies protected by state policy and state funding; by 1999 economic recovery from the 1997–98 crisis begins. Japan begins industrial and financial restructuring (1998) to break the recession that began in 1990, marking the beginning of the end of the Japanese model of the 1980s, which promised workers lifetime employment, encouraged excessive trade surpluses, and discouraged foreign imports and investment. Japanese government invests heavily in public works projects and initiates a campaign to reduce the high, counter-productive personal savings rate (1999). *Communist model:* By 1990s the Communist model persists in only four countries: Cuba, Vietnam, North Korea, and China (politically, but not economically). *Brutal dictatorship model:* January 1, 2000, Fidel Castro completes 41 years in power, a period exceeded only by that of Ibn Saud, who ruled Saudi Arabia for 51 years, Chiang Kai-shek, who ruled over parts of China for 49 years, and Kim Il Sung, who ruled North Korea for 47 years.
18. End of Presidential Immunity	Human rights violations declared unpardonable. Dictators and other heads of state lose their "right" to immunity from prosecution. Spain accepts jurisdiction (1998) to try Chilean dictator Augusto Pinochet for human rights violations. In 1998 Spain accepts jurisdiction to try 98 Argentine military officers and three Guatemalan dictators: Fernando Romero Lucas García (1978–82), Efraín Ríos Montt (1992–93), and Oscar Mejía (1983–85).
19. Transition from Cold War to Cultural War	International terrorism marks shift from Cold War (Communism versus Western Capitalism) to Cultural War (Islamic Extremism versus Western Capitalism).
20. Breakthroughs in Health and Medical Research	Pace of medical discoveries and new treatments increases dramatically. Penicillin, discovered in 1928, made useful in 1943; polio conquered (1950s); first human heart transplant (1967); expensive AIDS medications make survival possible for the well-insured, while 23 million poor in Sub-Saharan Africa have no hope (1999); 6 million live with AIDS in South and Southeast Asia and 1.5 million in Latin America; with less than 7,000 cases of syphilis (1999), U.S. plans to eradicate the disease by 2005; Gates Foundation grants US$750 million to immunize children against disease in underdeveloped countries and US$26 million to combat tetanus (1999). U.N. and major drug companies join with Rockefeller Foundation and other entities to develop "unprofitable" medications, e.g., to combat malaria which causes 300 to 500 million deaths per year, mostly in Africa (1999).
21. Science and Communications Technologies Research and Development	Breakthroughs in science and communications shake the ability of analysts to understand the scope of rapidly changing views of societies around the world and their place in the universe (e.g., microscopic, self-replicating, and communication robots; "molecular logic gates"; human attributes embedded into computer logic; "cochlear implants" to treat deafness; neuron implants to treat paralysis). "String theory" suggests that the universe consists of eleven dimensions, rather than the traditional four (space, time, energy, and matter). Millennium celebration commemorated on television by the first telecast covering all 24 time zones, in 155 countries (December 31, 1999). While early-sixteenth-century navigators proved the earth to be round, according to astronomers mapping the cosmology at the end of the twentieth century, "Inflation, the theory of what provided the fuel for the Big Bang [of ever-expanding space], predicts a universe that is almost exactly flat."

SOURCE: Sources: Olga Magdalena Lazin, "Decentralized Globalization: Free Markets, U.S. Foundations, and the Rise of Civil Society and Civic Society from Rockefeller's Latin America to Soros' Eastern Europe," Ph.D. dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 2001 and (among other sources) James W. Wilkie and Olga M. Lazin, "Globalización *Fast-Track:* El surgimiento de Areas de Libre Comercio (ALC) y Corporaciones Transglobales (CTG) Virtuales," in Oscar M. González Cuevas, ed., *México frente a la modernización de China* (México, D.F.: Limusa-Noriega y Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana-Azcapotzalco, 1999), pp. 307–359. Paul Kennedy, *The Rise and Fall of the Great Powers: Economic Change and Military Conflict, 1500–2000* (New York: Vintage Books, 1989), p. 225). WB, *Global Development Finances,* 1998; UN-YITS, 1995; UN-SY, 1996. *Los Angeles Times,* December 22, 1997, April 28, 1998, November 16, 1999, November 20, 1999, November 21, 1999, November 24, 1999, January 3, 2000; *International Herald Tribune* (Frankfurt), June 19, 1998; *Wall Street Journal,* October 27, 1999, December 30, 1999; *New York Times,* December 25, 1995; October 8, 1999, November 22, 1999, November 26, 1999; *La Opinión* (Los Angeles), December 4, 1999.

Table 12

WORLD DICTATORS HOLDING POWER TWENTY YEARS OR MORE SINCE 1900: RANKED BY NUMBER OF YEARS HAVING SUCCESSFULLY SUPPRESSED HUMAN RIGHTS, ARBITRARILY JAILED AND KILLED DISSIDENTS, AND ENGAGED IN TORTURE FOR POLITICAL PURPOSES

PART I. INDIVIDUAL DICTATORS

Country	Dictator	Years in Power[1]	Period
Saudi Arabia	Ibn Saud	51	1902–53
Chinese Republic (Based in Taiwan)	Chiang Kai-shek	49	1926–75 (1949–75)
North Korea	Kim Il Sung	47	1945–92
CUBA	**Fidel Castro***	42	Dec. 31, 1958–
People's Republic of China	Mao Tse-tung	42	1934–76
Albania	Envar Hoxha	40	1945–85
Iran	Muhammad Reza Shah Pahlevi	38	1941–79
Morocco	Hassan II	38	1961–99
Congo	Josef Mobutu	37	1960–97
Palestine Liberation Organization Virtual State	**Yasir Arafat***	36	1964–
Spain	Francisco Franco	36	1939–75
Portugal	Antonio de Oliveira Salazar	36	1932–68
Burma	Ne Win	36	1952–88
PARAGUAY	Alfredo Stroessner	35	1954–89
Bulgaria	Todor Yivkov	35	1954–89
Yugoslavia	Tito (Josip Broz)	35	1945–80
Togo	**Gnassingbé Eyadéma***	33	1967–
MEXICO	Porfirio Díaz	34	1876–1911
Hungary	Janos Kadar	33	1956–89
Indonesia	Suharto	32	1966–98
Libya	**Muhammad El Khadafi***	31	Sept. 1969–
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	Rafael Leonidas Trujillo	31	1930–61
Singapore	Lee Kuan Yew	31	1959–90
Syria	Hafez Assad	30	1970–2000
Germany	William II	30	1888–1918
Russia	Josef Stalin	29	1924–53
Iraq	**Sadam Hussein***	27	July 1973–
Zambia	Kenneth Kuanda	27	1964–91
VENEZUELA	Juan Vicente Gómez	26	1909–35
Romania	Nicolae Ceausescu	24	1965–89
Vietnam	Ho Chi Minh	24	1945–69
Italy	Benito Mussolini	22	1923–45
GUATEMALA	Manuel Estrada Cabrera	22	1898–1920
Philippines	Ferdinand Marcos	21	1965–86
Zimbabwe	**Robert Mugabe***	20	April 1980–
Malaysia	**Mohamad bin Mohamad***	19	Sept. 1981–

PART II. FAMILY DICTATORSHIPS

Country	Dictator	Years in Power	Period
Saudi Arabia	**Saud Family[2]**	98	1902–
Iran	Pahlevi Family[3]	54	1925–79
NICARAGUA	Somoza Family[4]	43	1936–79
Egypt	Faud Family[5]	29	1923–52
HAITI	Duvalier Family[6]	28	1957–85

*Currently in power.

1. Depending on month taking power and as of December 31, 2000.
2. Ibn Saud 1902–53; his son to 1964; King Faisal to 1975; King Khalid to 1982; King Fahd to the present.
3. Reza Shah Pahlevi 1925–41; Muhammad Reza Shah Pahlevi to 1979.
4. Anastasio Somoza 1936–56; Luis Somoza Debayle and Anastasio Somoza Debayle to 1979, the latter ruling alone after the death of Luis in 1967.
5. Faud I 1923–36; King Faruk to 1952.
6. François "Papa Doc" 1957–64; Jean-Claude "Baby Doc" to 1985.

SOURCE: Developed from Kenneth Ruddle and Philip Gillette, eds., *Latin American Political Statistics,* SALA Supplement 2 (Los Angeles: UCLA Latin American Center Publications, 1972); *Columbia Encyclopedia,* Fifth Edition (1993); *New York Times,* June 22, 1999 (for Togo); *Infoplease Encyclopedia and Dictionary.* http://www.infoplease.com/encyclopdict.html (January 16, 2000); *Contacto: Una Revista para el Latino de Hoy.* http://www.contactomagazine.com/index.htm (January 1–2, 2000); *Out There News.* http://www.megastories.com/iraq/family/saddam.htm (December 9, 2000) (for Iraq); *Los Angeles Times,* December 9, 2000 (for Libya); *The Library of Congress Country Studies, Libya.* http://lcweb2.loc.gov/cgi-bin/query/r?frd/cstdy:@field(DOCID+ly0037) (December 9, 2000); *World Fact Book.* http://www.bartleby.com/151/150.html (for Malaysia); *Britannica.com.* http://www.britannica.com/bcom/eb/article/7/0,5716,117947+8+109721,00.html (for Zimbabwe).

Table 13

DOW JONES GLOBAL STOCK INDEXES, PERCENTAGE CHANGE MEASURED IN U.S. DOLLARS AND LOCAL CURRENCY, 1999

Region/Country	U.S. Dollars	Local Currency
Americas		
BRAZIL	50.99	134.82
CHILE	32.91	48.88
MEXICO	91.01	82.52
VENEZUELA	−12.57	.45
Canada	42.98	34.65
United States	18.90	18.90
Europe		
Austria	−6.97	8.4
Belgium*	−17.29	−3.66
Denmark	5.38	22.13
Finland**	153.14	193.79
France	32.18	53.50
Germany	20.87	40.74
Great Britain	14.26	17.45
Greece	39.30	62.99
Ireland	−13.24	1.19
Italy	6.45	24.33
Netherlands	7.24	24.92
Norway	33.29	41.04
Portugal	−7.17	8.18
Spain	4.58	21.87
Sweden	70.72	78.85
Switzerland	−6.70	7.84
Africa		
South Africa	64.35	71.52
Asia-Pacific		
Australia	20.53	12.45
Hong Kong	73.20	73.81
Indonesia	77.31	58.05
Japan	67.26	50.12
Malaysia	42.30	42.31
New Zealand	9.27	10.37
Philippines	2.59	5.75
Singapore	56.18	57.60
South Korea	110.63	99.06
Taiwan	42.30	38.82
Thailand	39.46	43.28

*Worst performer.
**Best performer.

SOURCE: *Wall Street Journal*, January 3, 2000, p. R21.

Table 14

PERCENTAGE CHANGE IN NATIONAL STOCK MARKET INDEXES, 1999[a]

Country	PC	Country	PC
ARGENTINA	28.00	Malawi	39.27
Armenia	23.34	Malaysia	38.59
Australia	12.05	Malta	154.62
Austria	6.87	Mauritius	−6.07
Bahrain	1.06	MEXICO	80.06
Bangladesh	−11.87	Moldova	781.00[b]
Barbados	−9.03	Mongolia	5.96
Belgium	−4.95	Morocco	−4.57
Bermuda	−1.07	Nairobi	−22.38
BOLIVIA	14.70[b]	Namibia	48.11
Botswana	47.86	Nepal	48.50
BRAZIL	151.93	Netherlands	24.71
Bulgaria	434.20[b]	New Zealand	6.85
Canada	36.65	Nigeria	−8.42
CHILE	43.76	Norway	42.27
China (Shen)	58.01	Oman	9.10
China (Shan)	32.04	Pakistan	49.05
COLOMBIA	−10.05	Palestine	52.77
COSTA RICA	60.68	PANAMA	−15.24
Croatia	−.93	PERU	37.41
Cyprus	688.13	Philippines	8.85
Czech Republic	24.23	Poland	43.80
Denmark	16.57	Portugal	10.15
ECUADOR	45.94	Qatar	−.44
Egypt	42.50	Romania	28.88
EL SALVADOR	49.34[b]	Russia	260.68
Estonia	38.32	Saudi Arabia	39.10
Fiji	22.25[b]	Singapore	78.04
Finland	161.98	Slovakia	−18.01
France	51.12	Slovenia	4.92
Germany	39.10	South Africa	69.42
Ghana	14.21	South Korea	82.78
Greece	102.19	Spain	18.35
Hong Kong	68.80	Sri Lanka	3.08
Hungary	39.82	Swaziland	5.91
Iceland	47.45	Sweden	70.96
India	63.83	Switzerland	5.72
Indonesia	70.06	Taiwan	31.63
Iran	29.96	Thailand	35.44
Ireland	.43	Trinidad and Tobago	−4.31
Israel	62.47	Tunisia	74.21
Italy	22.30	Turkey	385.03
Ivory Coast	−10.45	Ukraine	81.22
Jamaica	6.31	United Arab Emirates	−12.72
Japan	36.79	United Kingdom	17.81
Jordan	−5.10	United States	25.22
Kenya	−22.24	Uzbekistan	−43.80
Kuwait	−9.26	VENEZUELA	13.14
Latvia	−10.57	Zambia	21.65
Lebanon	−20.88	Zimbabwe	125.12
Lithuania	.01		
Macedonia	−6.90[b]		

a. Changes were computed based on the year's performance of the local stock index, or, as noted, by change in market capitalization. Figures are preliminary. Bulgaria, Macedonia, Moldova, and Uzbekistan as of September 30, 1999; Nepal as of November 11, 1999; Bolivia as of November 30, 1999; Saudi Arabia as of December 12, 1999.

b. Based on market value change.

SOURCE: *Wall Street Journal*, January 3, 2000, p. R21.

and ahead of Japan in terms of GDP, GDP/C, and exports as share of GDP in 1997. With respect to imports as share of GDP, the European Monetary Union and the United States were equal in 1996. The European Union's new initiative will give it greater bargaining power as it competes with NAFTA for the South American market. The EU seeks to defeat the idea of a dollar-oriented Free Trade Area of the Americas, and the euro will advance that cause.

It is within the context of these kinds of comparisons that SALA has begun to incorporate more international data. Whereas a few years ago we extended the comparative dimension of SALA to include new data on trade blocs (in addition to the standard country data), we have now expanded our coverage of world data to facilitate understanding of Latin America's integration into the globalization process. Table 11, based on the work of Olga Lazin and expanded considerably since its publication in SALA, volume 35, illustrates the increasing pace of global interactions and serves as a guide to the categories of world data to be incorporated in future volumes of SALA.

The final year of the millennium throughout the world, except in Cuba, is 1999. Realizing that Cuba's millennial celebration would go unnoticed in 1999 given the array of events planned around the world, Fidel Castro decreed that Cuba would follow the precedent set at the passing of the nineteenth century, when the celebratory events were held on December 31, 1901. Thus Fidel has set December 31, 2001, as the date for Cuba's commemoration of the new millennium.

Perhaps Fidel's bow to the past does not seem unreasonable since he holds the record for "Living Dictator with the Greatest Number of Years in Power"—41 years. The duration of his term in power during the twentieth century is exceeded only by that of Ibn Saud, who founded and ruled Saudi Arabia for 51 years, Chiang Kai-shek, who ruled over parts of China for 49 years, and Kim Il Sung, who misruled North Korea for 47 years before he died in 1992

Latin America figures prominently among twentieth-century dictators. Table 12 lists dictators (Part I) who have held power twenty years or more (six of whom remain in power) and long-surviving family dictatorships (Part II). Cuba could be added to this list if Raúl Castro succeeds his brother, considered by many to be quite unlikely.

The year 1999 marked a surprisingly quick world recovery from the Asian economic crash of 1997 and the Russian crash of 1998. The Dow Jones Global Stock Indexes for 1999 are shown in Tables 13 and 14 to illustrate different ways to measure value. Table 13 shows performance measured in local currency and in U.S. dollars, and Table 14 shows the percentage change in national stock market indexes.

Let us examine the data for Mexico and Brazil. The value of Mexico's stock market in pesos increased 91 percent compared to the dollar value change of 83 percent. Calculating the percentage change of the Mexican stock market index, the gain was 80 percent. For Brazil, the gain in local currency was 51 percent, but 134 percent when calculated in dollar values. If we use the percentage change in the Brazilian stock market index, the change is 152 percent.

Given the expanding worldwide economic interactions, it seems increasingly necessary to adopt a global currency unit. The euro (which represents fifteen countries of the European Union) has not demonstrated the requisite stability. The euro was adopted in January 1999 at 14 percent greater value than the dollar, but by November 2000 had fallen to 17 percent less than the dollar. By January–February 2001 it had regained some ground but was still about 5–7 percent less than the dollar—a 19–21 percent overall loss since inception.

Table 15 lists the countries that have adopted the U.S. dollar and defines the concept of "dollarization," an often misunderstood term. As used here, the term means "adoption of the U.S. currency" as the basic monetary unit, not the euro or the mark.

With Ecuador and El Salvador having adopted the U.S. dollar in 2000, a "Latin American dollar bloc" is emerging, which also includes Argentina and Panama. Thus, the U.S. dollar is seen as the way to halt inflation and encourage

Table 15
DOLLARIZATION AS OF JANUARY 2001[a,b]

PART A. FULLY DOLLARIZED

Country	Standard
ARGENTINA	Fully convertible and may be used instead of the peso; each peso is backed with dollars and regulation by currency board, since 1991
CUBA	Dollar gradually came to be the standard informally beginning in the mid-1990s to compete openly with the peso, which is not the currency of choice; dollars now circulate legally and do not have to be exchanged for pesos
ECUADOR	Uses only dollars since March 9, 2000
EL SALVADOR	Uses only dollars beginning in 2001, although in theory the colón also circulates
Liberia	Dollar standard since 1940, floating against the Liberian dollar since 1995
PANAMA	Dollar standard, since 1904

PART B. HIGHLY DOLLARIZED (50–70 PERCENT)

BOLIVIA	
MEXICO	Northern border is fully based on the U.S. dollar, as are certain financial sectors and industrial sectors such as exports and tourism
PERU	

PART C. MODERATELY DOLLARIZED (20–50 PERCENT)

COSTA RICA	
EL SALVADOR	
HONDURAS	
NICARAGUA	
Russia	Some sectors are highly linked to the U.S. dollar.
URUGUAY	

a. "Dollarized" here means use of the U.S. dollar by other countries in lieu of (or in tandem with) their own national currency, but in the literature it sometimes means use of any foreign currency (such as the euro or mark) as the basic currency of a country whose own currency is not stable enough to support international transactions, such as Bulgaria.

b. Two-thirds of all U.S. dollars circulating are held outside the United States. For example, between 1989 and 1996, U.S. exports of dollar currency totaled $44 billion to Russia and $35 billion to Argentina alone. See data provided by Financial Crimes Enforcement Network, U.S. Department of the Treasury, as recorded in the Customs Service Currency and Monetary Instruments Reports (CMIR) forms and reported in IMF, *Monetary Policy in Dollarized Economies*, Occasional Paper No. 171, 1999, p. 10, cited in C. Fred Bergsten, "Dollarization in Emerging-Market Economies and Its Policy Implications for the United States," Institute for International Economics, 1999. http://www.iie.com/TESTMONY/dollariz.htm#note3.

SOURCE: Adapted by SALA from World Bank Web site (now outdated), "Dollarization," http://wbln0018.worldbank.org/external/lac/lac.nsf/bc67c81027cc470e852567d6006c2776/84e2905b927d3789852568ce005d4f3b?OpenDocument. See also Zeljko Bogetic, "Official or 'Full' Dollarization: Current Experiences and Issues," 1999; http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/li.html#Econ; and http://washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/articles/A33118-2000Dec6.html. For the views of a leading proponent of dollarization, see Steven Hanke, "Reflections on Dollarization," Cato Institute, 1999. http://www.cato.org/dailys/04-27-99b.html.

foreign investment. Argentina, however, has suffered during the last few years because of its dollar base, which it cannot devalue as Brazil can. Regardless of the Argentine case, other countries, such as Bolivia, Mexico, and Peru, have virtually dollarized. And the U.S. dollar is king in Cuba, now fully dollarized because the population is reluctant to accept the Cuban peso, which is nearly worthless. (Most Cuban government employees have no choice but to accept the peso.) Ironically, the dollar represents the main link to the United States.

Table 16
MEXICO'S FREE TRADE AGREEMENTS (FTAs) (Signed since 1992[a] and Being Negotiated, as of February 2001)

Agreement	Year Effective
Signed as a Member Organization	
NAFTA (Mexico-USA-Canada)	1994
Group of Three (Mexico-Colombia-Venezuela)	1995
Signed with Trade Blocs	
European Union (EU, 15 nations)	2000
European Free Trade Association (EFTA, 4 nations: Switzerland, Norway, Iceland, and Liechtenstein)	2000
Northern Triangle (El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras)	2001
Signed as Bilateral FTAs	
Middle East: Israel	2000
Latin America:	
Bolivia	1995
Chile	1992
Costa Rica	1995
Nicaragua	1998
Signed as Quasi-Bilateral FTA	
Argentina (Pre-Mercosur trade agreement, to which Brazil objects)	
FTAs Being Negotiated with Trade Blocs	
FTAA (Free Trade Area of the Americas, 33 other countries)	
ACS (Association of Caribbean States, among 25 countries)[1]	
APEC (geo-political organization moving toward FTA status among 21 countries)[1]	
MERCOSUR (Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay)	
Pre-FTA Pending Ratification with Bilateral Status	
Uruguay (goes beyond pre-Mercosur trade agreement,[2] to which Brazil also objects)	
FTAs Being Negotiated with Bilateral Status	
Asia: Japan,[3] Singapore, and South Korea	
Eastern Europe: Romania	
Latin America: Argentina, Brazil,[4] Ecuador, Panama	
Caribbean: Trinidad and Tobago	
FTAs in Feasibility Analysis for Bilateral Negotiation	
Asia: China	
Latin America: Brazil, Peru	

1. Negotiations are on "slow-track."
2. Agreement exists that gives 90% of goods free-trade status; pending ratification is an Economic Complementary Accord.
3. Mexico and Japan have a Reciprocal Investment and Protection Accord.
4. Preliminary to FTA negotiations; now negotiating Preferential Commercial Tariff Accord.

a. Facilitating agreements signed: GATT (1986); OECD (1994).

SOURCES:

A. Olga M. Lazin, "NAFTA and the European Union Compared," SALA, Vol. 30, Part 1, pp. 1208–1220, and in *Mexico & the World Web*, Issue 3, May 1997. http://www.netside.net/mexworld; translated and published as "Bloques emergentes de comercio internacional," *Carta Económica Regional* (Universidad de Guadalajara), May 1996, pp. 29–36.

B. For analysis of Mexico's role in laying the basis for the FTAA, see James W. Wilkie and Olga M. Lazin, "Mexico as Linchpin for Free Trade in the Americas," SALA, Vol. 31, Part 2, pp. 1176–1204, and in Carlos Pallán Figueroa et al., eds., *Mexico and the Americas* (México, D.F., ANUIES, 1996), pp. 23–61.

C. See the Mexican government's Web site on its FTAs at http://www.secofi-snci.gob.mx/Negociaci_n/negociaci_n.htm.

D. José Antonio Avila, "The Zedillo Years: First Pain, Then Gain," *Mexico City News*, December 1, 2000, p. 36; and William D. Jarve, "Mexico Globalizing," *MB*, October 2000, pp. 16–22.

E. "Nation to Consider Mercosur [On Fast-Track Basis]," *Mexico City News*, December 8, 2000.

F. Mexico, Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores, "Tratados de libre comercio y negociaciones comerciales de México," *Enlace Mexicano*, July–August 2000, pp. 4–7.

G. "Free Trade Agreement between the EFTA States and Mexico" [Signed November 27, 2000, to take effect July 1, 2001]. http://secretariat.efta.int/news/dbafile4118.html (February 2000).

With dollarization, the rise of Free Trade Areas (FTAs) becomes ever more important. Mexico, the world leader in this area, is the only country with two major FTAs: the European Union and

NAFTA. Many EU and NAFTA companies are locating in Mexico now, not so much in order to ship duty free to the United States but to ship to countries with which Mexico has FTAs. Table 16 lists Mexico's FTAs as of early 2001, a web of FTAs that runs from the Americas through Europe (now including EFTA) and into Eastern Europe where Mexico is negotiating with Romania.

In Asia, Mexico is a leader in the Pacific region and will host the APEC summit of 2002, probably in Cabo San Lucas, when it expects to advance the Asia-Pacific agenda to establish free trade. In the meantime, Mexico is negotiating FTAs with Singapore, South Korea, and Japan. In the Middle East, Mexico has established a free-trade bridgehead with its FTA with Israel, signed in 2000. And the negotiations with Romania also give Mexico potential access to the Black Sea region, whose borders provide a link to Turkey and Central Asia.

J.W.W.
Istanbul, July 2000
Los Angeles, February 2001

APPENDIX
Development of Data

The analytical essays published in SALA and the SALA Supplement series are listed below, arranged by area and topic. The source, in parentheses, refers to the volume number of SALA or a SALA Supplement.

Globalization

"Mexico as Linchpin for Free Trade in the Americas," by James W. Wilkie and Olga M. Lazin (vol. 31:2)

"Emerging World Trade Blocs: NAFTA and the European Union Compared," by Olga M. Lazin (vol. 31:2)

Latin America

"Population Change in Northern Latin America: A Map Series and Analysis," by Richard W. Wilkie, Sean FitzGerald, and Halvdan Barrett (vol. 33)

"Measuring Megacephalia: Population Concentration in the Largest City in Each Latin American Country, 1920–90," by Ronald E. Young (vol. 29:1)

"Determining the Population in the Largest City of Each Latin American Country, 1900–1970," by Marshall C. Eakin (vol. 19)

"The Populations of Mexico and Argentina in 1980: Preliminary Data and Some Comparisons," by Richard W. Wilkie (vol. 21)

"A Proportional Approach to Measuring the United States–Latin America GDP 'Gap' since 1940," by Michael Ray and James W. Wilkie (vol. 37)

"Real Industrial Wages in Postwar Latin America," by Bradley E. Pinchot (vol. 29:1)

"Labor's Real Wages in Latin America Since 1940," by John L. Martin (vol. 18)

"Measuring Indebtedness: Latin American Total External Debt Per Capita, 1970–89," by Christof Anders Weber (vol. 29:2)

"United States Foreign Assistance to Central America, 1946–89: A Tool of Foreign Policy," by Christof Anders Weber (vol. 30:1)

"Announced U.S. Assistance to Latin America, 1946–88: Who Gets It? How Much? And When?," by Christof Anders Weber (vol. 28)

"U.S.-Latin American Senior-Level Exchanges, 1953–88," by John L. Martin (vol. 28)

"The People Speak: A Database and Sample Analysis of Latin American Public Opinion Polls, 1947–86," by Louise Harris Berlin (vol. 28)

"Comparative Analysis of Human Rights Violations under Military Rule in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Uruguay," by Peter John King (vol. 27)

"Soviet Economic Relations with Latin America: Trade and Economic Assistance since 1964," by Charles N. Grimes (vol. 27)

"The Rapid Expansion of Voter Participation in Latin America: Presidential Elections, 1845–1986," by Enrique C. Ochoa (vol. 25)

"On Measuring Political Conflict in Latin America, 1948–1967," by Manuel Moreno-Ibáñez (vol. 20)

"Survey Research in Authoritarian Regimes: Brazil and the Southern Cone of Latin America Since 1970," by Brian H. Smith and Frederick C. Turner (vol. 23)

"Democratic versus Dictatorial Budgeting: The Case of Cuba with Reference to Venezuela and Mexico," by Enrique A. Baloyra (Supp. 7)

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