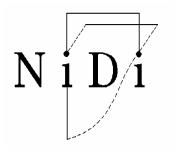
THE LIVING CONDITIONS OF REFUGEES, ASYLUMSEEKERS AND OTHER COLOMBIANS IN ECUADOR

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS AND COPING BEHAVIOUR

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Ecuador Country Report October, 2006



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Acronyms

AIDS - Acquired Immuno-Deficiency Syndrome

ACNUR - Alto Comisionado de las Naciones Unidas para los Refugiados

CBR - Crude Birth RateCDR - Crude Death Rate

CEPAR - Centro de Estudios de Poblacion y Desarrollo Social

CPR - Contraceptive Prevalence RateHIV - Human Immuno-deficiency Virus

INEC - Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censos

LFPR - Labour Force Participation RateMDG - Millennium Development Goal

NIDI - Netherlands Interdisciplinary Demographic Institute

PPP - Purchasing Power Parity

UNHCR - United Nations High Commisioner for Refugees

UNICEF - United Nations Children's Fund

UNIFEM - United Nations Development Fund for Women

Acknowledgments

This report is produced as part of the UNHCR project 05/AB/VAR/CM/203, entitled Standards and Indicators Mainstreaming. The main objective of the overall project is to obtain estimates of Millennium Development Indicators and insights into coping behaviour of refugees, asylum-seekers and internally displaced persons in Armenia, Sri Lanka and Ecuador, by means of scientifically representative sample surveys. The project was executed by the Netherlands Interdisciplinary Demographic Institute (NIDI) and implemented by UNHCR country offices, local research institutions, government statistical offices and/or NGO's in Armenia, Ecuador and Sri Lanka. NIDI developed prototype data collection and analysis documents which were adapted for all three countries. These included research design and training instruments (questionnaires, sample design, database design and analysis and report writing plans). In the case of Ecuador, these documents were translated into Spanish and then adapted for Ecuadorian conditions by the authors, with the collaboration of the local UNHCR office (ACNUR) in Quito, Ecuador. The survey was implemented in Ecuador in January-April, 2006.

We thank Jean-Bosco Rushatsi, Khassoum Diallo, Sabine Wahning, José Samañiego and —in the initial stage of the project— Bela Hovy at UNHCR Headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, for unflagging support during the implementation of the project and for comments on earlier drafts. Our colleagues on the project at NIDI —Bart de Bruijn, George Groenewold and Jeannette Schoorl— ere also helpful in the preparation of this report for Ecuador. We also acknowledge the encouragement and contributions of two persons especially in Ecuador: Durval Martinez of the ACNUR office in Quito, made available information about UNHCR/ACNUR activities in Ecuador as well as estimates of international migration of Colombians from admission statistics, which was drawn upon in Annex IV; and Estuardo Albán of the Government Statistical Office (Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censos, INEC) provided data from the most recent census of Ecuador in 2001, which was used to create the sample frame for drawing the sample for the survey. We are especially appreciative of the hard work and good spirits of the supervisors and interviewers who carried out the fieldwork under difficult and sometimes even dangerous conditions in northern Ecuador (Annex II).

X Acknowledgement

Last but not least, we express our gratitude and respect to the Colombian migrants we interviewed and with whom we had many insightful discussions during the fieldwork. They shared some of their lives and trials and tribulations, sometimes heart wrenching, with us. We deeply hope that our research findings will point the way towards improvements in their lives.

Executive Summary

For decades small numbers of Colombians have been entering Ecuador as international migrants, seeking work and a better way of life, as well as to escape from the civil strife and violence in Colombia. But migration to escape the violence has increased considerably since the late 1990's. Data from the most recent population census and other sources indicate a substantial increase in Colombians living in Ecuador. The Government of Ecuador is interested in understanding better the origins and characteristics of this increasing flow of international migrants, which is the main influx of international migrants to Ecuador, as well as their living situation in Ecuador, including degree of assimilation, economic situation, living standards, plans to remain and in general their benefits and costs to Ecuador. The local office of UNHCR in Ecuador. ACNUR, is also very interested in having much better data about Colombians in Ecuador in order to determine how many persons and families are in need of protection and assistance as refugees or asylum seekers or likely to seek that status, how many could qualify, and what the numbers are likely to be in the future.

This monograph summarizes the results of a project intended to provide detained information about Colombians living in Ecuador who arrived recently. The project centred on a household survey, "Survey on Living Conditions of Refugees, Asylum Seekers and Other Recent Immigrants from Colombia." In the absence of more recent or complete data, the sampling frame for the survey was the November 2001 census of population. The survey used a multi-stage, stratified, largely self-weighting sample design to sample households containing Colombians who arrived in Ecuador after January 1, 2000 and who were at least age 15 at the time of arrival (to ensure they were involved in the decisionmaking process). In the end, those for whom complete data were collected included 123 households comprising only refugees or asylum seekers, 99 households containing both refugees/asylum seekers and others, and 277 households containing only Colombian immigrants who had not asked for asylum or refugee status. The sample was intended to be representative of all Colombians who came to Ecuador during the six-year period from January 1, 2000 (an easy date for respondents to recall) up to the time of the survey in early 2006, but financial constraints made it necessary to limit the geographic coverage of the survey to the five northern provinces--the five receiving the largest numbers of migrants from Colombia in 2005. The survey provides a Xİİ Executive summary

wealth of data on the composition and characteristics of Colombians entering Ecuador since 2000, including whether they are refugees or asylum seekers, the assistance they have received, and their need for further assistance. Data from the survey indicate that nearly 2 in 5 of the Colombians arriving in Ecuador actively seek assistance as refugees or asylum seekers, but the numbers in need of assistance are undoubtedly higher.

The survey results show that refugees/asylum seekers as well as some other recent migrants from Colombia constitute an important vulnerable group in Ecuador, with high levels of unemployment and poverty (higher than those of non-refugee migrants from Colombia or of Ecuadorians) and that many live with insecurity and fear. Most but by no means all Colombian immigrants are aware of the existence of UNHCR (ACNUR) and the possibility of applying for and receiving assistance and most of those who say they have actually applied for protection and assistance from ACNUR have received it, from an apparently well-functioning program. That assistance was very important for them in the first months or year after arrival. But this assistance was almost always temporary and has long since ended for most of these households, who arrived throughout the six year period prior to the survey.

Given that almost 9 out of 10 of the migrants intend to remain in Ecuador (apparently thinking the 40-year violence in Colombia is not about to end), then several questions arise: (1) Do any refugees/asylum seekers have needs for assistance after the initial aid they receive from ACNUR, and how can those needs be met, or their problems alleviated? (2) Are there other Colombian migrants who are in need of protection and assistance who have not applied for it and why? (3) For those who are refugees, how can they be weaned of the need for assistance and better integrated into Ecuadorian life? Many refugees as well as many others who have not applied for refugee status (whose status as distinct from refugees is not always clear, since over 40% say they left Colombia due to the violence, albeit lower than the 80% figure for refugees) are unemployed or have low-paying jobs. This may be due in part to their lack of an inexpensive document that would give them legal permission to live in Ecuador and work. If the Ecuadorian government, working together with ACNUR, were to facilitate such a document, many migrants would likely improve their living conditions on their own. This could be a very cost-effective way of addressing their poverty and deprivation, as well as their feeling of insecurity and vulnerability.

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Apart from the economic differences above, the survey also yields other results that indicate that refugees from Colombia are generally not as well off as non-refugees, and the two groups generally have living conditions inferior to those of Ecuadorians, as measured by the Millennium Development Goal indicators. However, it is not possible to fully compare the circumstances of the Colombian migrants with those of Ecuadorians since it was not possible for this present survey to collect data from a comparable sample of Ecuadorians in the same study sites. As a result, data on Ecuadorians comes from independent sources, mainly from a high quality national demographic and health survey carried out about a year and a half before this survey (see Summary Table below, footnotes). That survey used different sampling methods and sometimes different questions to collect the data.

The results from the present survey indicate that education levels of refugees are slightly higher than those of non-refugees, though economic living conditions are inferior. Data on education indicate a lower enrolment ratio of girls than boys in primary school among refugees, unlike the situation for non-refugees and Ecuadorians; and greater adult illiteracy of females compared to males for refugees compared to other migrants from Colombia. Immunization levels are also slightly lower for refugee children than non-refugee children, but refugee women are more likely to have modern medical personnel attending their births. Both measures suggest that Colombian migrants have little difficulty obtaining health care equal to that of Ecuadorians on average. On the other hand, use of contraceptives including condoms is much lower among Colombians, indicating a need for better access to information and methods for spacing pregnancies, especially for refugees. Furthermore, Colombians have a huge deficit in access to secure housing compared to Ecuadorians. This is especially true for refugees, with very few having secure tenure, though partly due to their recent arrival. On the other hand, access to safe water is the same for Colombian migrants and Ecuadorians, but sanitary facilities are better for refugees than the other two groups. With respect to modern technology, refugees have little access to telephones or computers in their house —less than that of other Colombian migrants or Ecuadorians—but their use of cell phones and the internet is higher, indicating they have knowledge of technology and find ways to access it, despite having lower incomes and fewer assets.

In addition to information on MDG indicators, much additional data was collected and analyzed from the survey on the broader 'context' of living conditions of refugees and non-refugees. This includes information on their

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perceptions about whether their household income and food consumption is sufficient, on what they see as their major needs and on whether they feel secure or have any fears living in Ecuador. Results are also provided on coping behaviour, especially the types and sources of assistance received to meet their basic needs, such as housing, food and health care. A key issue is whether and how to assist those who are now in Ecuador for the long-term, beyond the initial protection and assistance (mainly food) that refugees receive from UNHCR. As noted above, one approach could be to improve access to an inexpensive document that would give them the right to work in Ecuador.

Key figures

Goal	Targets	Indicators	Refugees	Mixed	Other Colombians	Ecuadorians
1 Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	1 Halve, between 1990 and 2015, proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar per day	1 Percentage of population below \$1 (PPP) per day Percentage of population below \$2 (PPP) per day	50 75	58 84	36 61	15.5 (1999)
	2 Halve, between 1990 and 2015, proportion of people who suffer from hunger	4 Proportion of population with fewer than two meals per day	8.1	4.0	6.2.	n.a.
2 Achieve universal primary education	3 Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, complete a full course of primary	6 Net enrolment ratio in primary education	77		n.a.	89
	schooling	8 Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds	86		78	87
3 Promote gender equality and empower women	4 Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education,	9 Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education	0.89 (primary)		1.22 (primary)	1.01, 0.89, 0.85
	preferably by 2005 and in all levels of education no later than	10 Ratio of (fully) literate women to men, 15-24 years old	1.00	5		
	2015	10a. Ratio of illiteracy of females 15+ to males 15+	1.03	5	.98	1.40
		11 Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector	43%	6	41%	39%
4 Reduce child mortality	5 Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate	15 Percentage of 1 year-old children immunised against measles	90		95	66
5 Improve maternal health	6 Reduce by 3/4, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	17 Percentage of births attended by skilled health personnel	98		93	74

Goal	Targets	Indicators	Refugees	Mixed	Other Colombians	Ecuadorians
6 Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	7 Halt by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS	19 a Condom use as share of contraceptive prevalence	4.	3	5.2	5.9
		b Percentage of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS	15 (males), 1	13 (females)	8 (males), 16 (females)	n.a.
		c Contraceptive prevalence rate (among women 15-49 in union)	56	5.0	52.0	72.7
7 Ensure environmental sustainability	9 Integrate principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse loss of environmental resources	29 Percentage of population using solid fuels	7	7	10	11
	10 Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation	30 Percentage of population with sustainable access to an improved water source 31 Percentage of population with access	88	87 71	89 63	88 64
	11 By 2020, achieve a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	to improved sanitation 32 Percentage of households with access to secure tenure	2	4	18	67
8 Develop a global partner- ship for development	16 Cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth	45 Unemployment rate (%) of young people aged 15-24 years, each sex and total	29 (total), 25 (fema		19 (total), 14 (males), 23 (females)	16 (total), 13 (males), 21 (females)

Goal	Targets	Indicators	Refugees	Mixed	Other Colombians	Ecuadorians
	18 In cooperation with the private sector, make available the	* * * * *	4	3	12	32
	benefits of new technologies, especially information and	` '	41 0	37 3	37 7	31 11
	communications	population; Internet users per 100 population	12	n.a.	15	1.5 (2004)

Notes:

n.a.= not applicable or not available.

Education figures for Ecuador as a whole are usually for 1995 (Ecuador, 2005).

For target 11, figures refer to the percentage of households that own the house they live in.

Housing indicators are unweighted averages of urban and rural percentages.

The column at right providing data for Ecuadorians is based on data for the whole country, usually taken from one of three documents:

- (1) the official Ecuadorian Government document on its MDGs (Ecuador, 2005);
- (2) the latest national demographic and health survey, ENDEMAIN IV in 2004 (CEPAR, 2005); or
- (3) the most recent census of population (November 25, 2001) in Ecuador (INEC, n.d.).

Although the survey here was carried out in only five of the 21 provinces of Ecuador, these five are the northern ones where most recent Colombians migrating/fleeing to Ecuador arrive and reside. Differences between the national level indicators and those of Ecuadorians living in these five study provinces are very small and do not affect any of the comparisons. The text notes the few cases where differences are more than one or two per cent.

1. Introduction

1.1. General introduction

At the Millennium Summit of the United Nations in September 2000, leaders of 189 countries reiterated their commitment to the goals and development targets set at previous UN Global Conferences, giving priority to the right to development, peace and security, gender equality, the eradication of poverty and human development. A principal overall objective is to reduce poverty in the world by half by 2015 in comparison to the poverty level in 1990. Poverty has also been a major development issue in Ecuador for some time, although there has been little gain in per capita income nor reduction in poverty since the early 1980's.

In addition to setting targets for poverty alleviation, the international community identified seven other broad development goals related to poverty reduction that require major attention. Together these constitute the 8 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). To achieve these goals, 18 time-bound, quantifiable targets have been set, measured in turn by 48 indicators to measure progress toward the MDGs for 2015.

The eight Millennium Development Goals agreed upon are as follows:

- 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- 2. Achieve universal primary education
- 3. Promote gender equality and empower women
- 4. Reduce child mortality
- 5. Improve maternal health
- 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- 7. Ensure environmental sustainability
- 8. Develop a Global Partnership for Development

In many countries, these 'Global' MDG's and their concomitant indicators of progress have been 'translated' into country-specific goals, including the setting of targets for a wide range of development indicators (UNDP 2003). Ecuador has slightly adapted the Global goals to create its own Millennium Development Goals (Ecuador, 2005), which include the following targets (a few others are not relevant to this survey project, or cannot be measured using survey data): (1) to

reduce poverty by 2015 to half the level in 1990 and similarly reduce the proportion of people suffering from hunger by half; (2) to ensure that all children get a full course of basic education by 2015 (nine years plus kindergarten); (3) to achieve gender equality in education and employment, including equal proportions of women studying at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels; (4) to reduce child mortality by two-thirds; (5) to reduce maternal mortality by 75% and improve access to professional care at birth; (6) to combat the spread of HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; (7) to ensure the sustainability of the natural environment; (8) to improve access of households to safe water, sanitation and secure housing; (9) to improve access to employment and reduce unemployment, especially among young adults aged 15-24; (10) to improve access to modern technology; and (11) to ensure political rights and responsibility, including protection of human rights. For each of these general MDG goals, specific and measurable indicators of progress have been identified and defined by the national government in cooperation with local United Nations representatives.

UNHCR Ecuador (ACNUR) is also committed to these goals, insofar as possible, for the distinct and particularly vulnerable group of people known as refugees and asylum seekers, most of whom have arrived in recent years from Colombia. Within the context of its country programme to provide assistance to those in need and to better identify the profiles of refugees and asylum seekers, UNHCR/ACNUR in Quito has regularly collected data on those it provides assistance to in various parts of Ecuador — on their numbers, location and a few basic characteristics. For example, in 2005, in collaboration with CEPAR, ACNUR conducted a survey of persons registered and receiving assistance in several provinces to learn more about the characteristics of those receiving aid. However, ACNUR is aware that these persons already receiving assistance are not the only persons in need of aid and indeed may even be a minority of those needing assistance. In the case of Ecuador, these persons are overwhelmingly Colombian, have come in recent years and are increasingly widely dispersed throughout the country. They are thus very difficult to locate and identify because of that dispersion, because they do not live in refugee camps (as is true of refugees in most host countries), speak the local language, and are often physically similar to Ecuadorians.

Therefore ACNUR has provided strong support for the present initiative of UNHCR to conduct a methodologically innovative survey to collect data from a scientifically representative sample of households containing Colombian

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immigrants, including not only refugees and asylum seekers but also other Colombian migrants who have come to Ecuador in recent years (since January 1, 2000). The results of this survey could possibly be used to estimate the total number of Colombians in the five northern provinces of Ecuador in 2006 as well as those in need of assistance. Such information is crucial for both ACNUR and Ecuadorian Government agencies in developing policies to address the large and growing population of Colombian refugees and asylum seekers in Ecuador.

The Ecuador study is part of a larger, comparative study of living conditions and coping behaviours of persons of concern to UNHCR in three countries, as follows: Internally Displaced Persons in Sri Lanka, long-term refugees in Armenia, and refugees and asylum seekers in Ecuador. The Millennium Development Goals have a central place in the analysis of the living situation of these groups in each country. The study focuses on persons living outside refugee camps. Special attention is also given to vulnerable groups within the study population — women, the elderly, children and adolescents.

The tangible outputs of the project consist of country reports for Sri Lanka, Ecuador and Armenia and a comparative report that summarizes and highlights the main findings. The country reports are similar in content and design so as to facilitate inter-country comparisons. In addition, the project includes a brief desk study on the living conditions of Afghan refugees in Pakistan.

The country studies for Sri Lanka, Ecuador and Armenia are based on a household survey that was specifically developed for this project, marking a new methodological approach of UNHCR to collect more detailed data on populations of interest to UNHCR that extend beyond refugee camps. A standard questionnaire was developed by NIDI and slightly adapted for each country by the team implementing the survey. Valuable inputs were also provided by the local UNHCR offices and other institutions, including Government ministries, the United Nations Development Programme, the International Labour Office and UNICEF. The survey questionnaires used in Ecuador are included in this report as Annex III (in Spanish).

The use of household surveys provides rich information to analyse the living conditions and coping behaviour of the study populations. It also allows for the collection of data that measure the status of the study population in relation to a number of MDG indicators, which is at the core of the present study. However, some MDG indicators cannot be calculated on the basis of the present survey

data or indeed any data from a household survey, or are not relevant in the context of this study (see summary table above showing relevant MDG indicators for Ecuador).

The main objective of this report is to describe the living conditions of refugees, asylum seekers and other migrants from Colombia. The core of this monograph is the chapters on living conditions linked to: poverty and hunger (Chapter 4), education (Chapter 5), gender equity (Chapter 6), health (Chapter 7), HIV/AIDS and other diseases (Chapter 8) and housing and sanitation (Chapter 9). Each of these chapters focuses on relevant MDG indicators for the Colombian populations of interest in Ecuador. Other chapters address general population and household characteristics (Chapter 2), the migration background and intentions of the study populations (Chapter 3), employment and access to modern information technology (Chapter 10) and the identification of vulnerable groups and coping mechanisms (Chapter 11).

This report presents the findings from the analysis of data from the survey conducted in early 2006 in households containing Colombians who were at least age 15 at the time of their arrival in Ecuador since January 1, 2000. The goal is to provide a profile of the demographic and socio-economic characteristics and living conditions of refugees, asylum seekers and other recent Colombian migrants in Ecuador in the context of the MDG indicators. Collecting data on refugees and asylum seekers together with data on other recent Colombian immigrants in Ecuador (and with Ecuadorians, based on data from other reputable sources) provides a basis for comparing the living conditions and assessing the unmet needs of the migrants from Colombia, which is of major policy interest to UNHCR/ACNUR as well as Government agencies and non-government organizations in Ecuador.

1.2. The Ecuadorian context for the study

Refugee issues have only recently become important in Ecuador and are intimately linked to the civil conflict in neighbouring Colombia to the north. There, beginning in the 1960's but increasing greatly in the 1990's, two active guerrilla movements (*Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia*, or FARC and the *Ejercito de Liberación Nacional*, or ELN) and a paramilitary group opposing them, have waged war on the Colombian society and polity. The Colombian armed forces have been unable to control the guerrilla movements and have been accused of adding to the violence. Originally having

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a strong ideological and revolutionary purpose, FARC and ELN have over time become increasingly involved in the international drug trade to finance their activities (along with kidnappings, Colombia being by far the world leader in kidnappings) and have attacked peasants as well as the wealthy. They have kidnapped young persons and forced families to provide household members as "recruits" for their guerrilla armies, which operate mainly out of mountain areas and the southern Amazon region of Colombia in the province of Putumayo along the Ecuadorian border. The violence in Colombia has increased with the Plan Colombia of the United States, in which substantial additional military aid has been provided to Colombia to strengthen the Colombian army's capabilities to fight against the guerrillas. That has led to a large further increase in Colombians fleeing the violence across the border to Ecuador since the late 1990's. Meanwhile, other people continue to migrate from Colombia to Ecuador for economic and personal reasons, just as people migrate internationally between countries all over the world and increasingly so in this globalized world. Ecuador has always been a receptive country for migrants, receiving (and sending) small numbers of international migrants from its neighbours and from other countries, largely in Latin America but also including Spaniards, Italians, Lebanese, Chinese and many others.

Colombians migrating to Ecuador are not easy to distinguish from Ecuadorians, even though many have a distinctive accent. Despite the widespread (and erroneous) impression among Ecuadorians that Colombians are "todos ladrones" (all thieves), on an individual level, Colombians are generally well thought of as neighbours in Ecuador.¹ Many have established themselves in business and throughout society for decades, including inter-marrying. Given that Colombians have continued to migrate to Ecuador in the recent time period for the traditional reasons as well as to escape the increasing violence in their country, it is particularly important to attempt to distinguish the two groups of Colombian migrants —refugees and non-refugees— to determine their impacts on the Ecuadorian society and economy, as well as the extent to which they are in need of assistance.

Since Ecuador and Colombia are members of the Andean pact, no visas are required for travel between the countries. However, since May 2004, Colombians entering Ecuador are supposed to provide proof of a non-criminal

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In fact, in a national study of penal investigations in 2004, the percentage who were Colombian was only 2.5, or no higher than the percentage of Colombians in the population of Ecuador.

record from Colombia, called the *pasado judicial*, to enter Ecuador. Since this document is not normally obtained and indeed is available only in certain major cities not convenient to many potential emigrants, especially in southern Colombia, most Colombians migrating to Ecuador do not have such a document. This may lead to fear of being found out and deported, on the part of all Colombians, except perhaps those already recognized officially as refugees by the Ecuadorian Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Refugees also have the legal right to work, whereas asylum seekers do not, even though it make take up to a year to process their claims, do not. Most evidently need to have some work to support themselves and their families, working illegally and are likely concerned about being detected and expelled. Even for refugees, many employers require a work permit, but the high cost (\$60) is a major obstacle to obtaining one. Hence, even refugees are often subject to exploitation via low wages and poor working conditions²

Throughout this monograph, partly for ease of tabular presentation and to avoid small numbers of cases, the results are generally presented for "refugees", on the one hand, and "non-refugees" or "other Colombian migrants/immigrants", on the other. The number of persons aged 15+ who were interviewed and declared themselves to be refugees was 222, with another 162 saying they were asylumseekers and 61 that their request for asylum has been rejected. The total number of persons combined is thus 443 in the category referred to here as refugees. These three types are analyzed together in this monograph, despite their differences. The number of "other Colombians" interviewed is 448, which is referred to throughout this monograph interchangeably as non-refugees and other Colombian migrants or immigrants.

In recent years, assistance has been provided to thousands of persons seeking aid, but many more persons in need of help have not received it for various reasons, including not knowing such assistance is available, thinking it is too small and not worth the trouble to apply for, or fear of being found and deported if they applied for it. At the same time, many Colombians coming to Ecuador in recent years have not asked for assistance and did not come to Ecuador *mainly* to flee from the violence on the other side of the long and porous border but rather for economic or personal reasons, such as marriage.

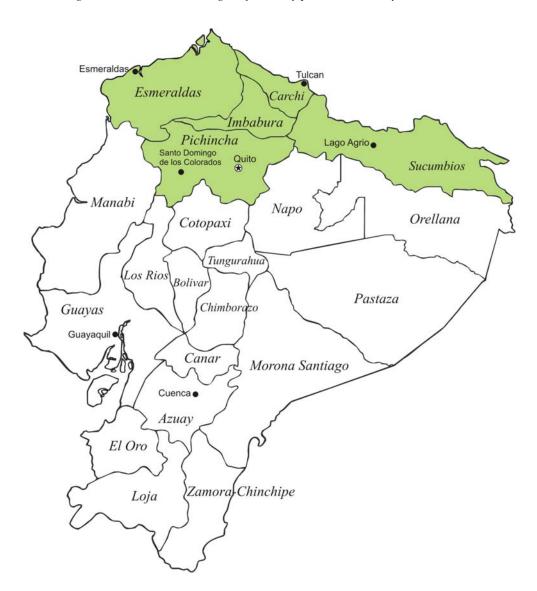
The local office of UNHCR in Ecuador, referred to as ACNUR for its acronym in Spanish, has been active in providing assistance to those in need, especially in

We are most grateful to UNHCR/Geneva for this information.

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recent years and primarily Colombians. In its recently prepared operational plan for 2007 and beyond (UNHCR, 2006), it notes that there could be as many as 450,000 Colombians in Ecuador and that those in need of international protection and assistance could be as high as 250,000 (see Annex IV). It notes that 36,665 persons were registered as asylum seekers between January 1, 2000 and December 31, 2005 (which coincides with the reference period of this present study), with 11,492 recognized as refugees, 12,921 rejected by the Government of Ecuador and 2,774 still being processed as of March, 2006 (p. 9). In 2005 about 600 persons arrived per month. The present survey found that 2005 was the year of heaviest in-migration of Colombians as well, both refugees and others. The UNHCR report further states that "whilst the operation will continue to focus on core protection activities for registered refugees and asylum seekers in 2007, there will also be much effort to reach the unregistered population..." (op. cit., pp. 1 and passim). ACNUR has three offices in Ecuador for registering those seeking protection and assistance, in Quito, Lago Agrio (in Sucumbios, in the Amazon) and Ibarra (in Imbabura)—see figure 1.1 below. Refugee status is determined jointly by ACNUR and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. ACNUR has also developed a number of special programs, including Development Assistance for Refugees in the Northern Border, a Bi-national Integration Plan for the three border provinces, community projects, sensitization campaigns to combat negative attitudes of Ecuadorians towards Colombians, a programme of providing monthly food rations jointly with the World Food Programme (in danger of being ended after 2006), a programme with UNIFEM (the UN Development Fund for Women) to strengthen the Women's Federation in Lago Agrio and a program with the UN Population Fund (UNFPA) and UNIFEM to provide training in HIV/AIDS and reproductive health to women, including refugees, in Lago Agrio in Sucumbios. ACNUR recognizes that the conflict has been intensifying so that voluntary repatriation of Colombians in not feasible in the short run and local integration is the "main durable solution for the majority...." (p.8). However, this assistance may remain insufficient: "Given the limited resources, the magnitude and dispersion of the population of concern....assistance will be limited to new arrivals..." (p. 9).

Figure 1.1. Ecuador, showing the five study provinces and key cities



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UNHCR is keenly aware that it needs better data (p. 3) and that its statistics on those it serves do not reflect the magnitude or location of all or even most of those who may be in need of assistance (*op. cit., passim*). UNHCR also recognizes that large numbers of Colombians come to Ecuador mainly for reasons other than fleeing the violence and therefore have not usually asked for protection. It is therefore interested in the data from this study, which provide a representative indication of (a) the magnitude and characteristics of Colombians who have recently migrated to Ecuador (since 2000); (b) the population in need of assistance; and (c) the population receiving and not receiving assistance.

To the extent most Colombians, both refugees/asylum seekers and others, report they *do not intend to return* to Colombia (and the civil strife and violence has been going on for four decades), their integration into the Ecuadorian economy and society must be addressed as a key policy issue, which the data here shed light on. The survey also provides data that can be compared with data from other sources to investigate the extent to which refugees/asylum seekers and other Colombian migrants differ from Ecuadorians, in their characteristics, needs and standard of living. Perhaps the time is approaching when Ecuador may consider granting Colombians the right of legal residence in Ecuador, including inexpensive work permits (see footnote 2, above) and access to health care and public schools for their children on an equal basis with Ecuadorians. Through such a process, those Colombians who are currently refugees/asylum seekers or who were before would cease to be solely the subjects of social policy and assistance (or not) from ACNUR and other sources and would become self-supporting.

Before we move on to examine the data collected in the survey, it is useful to summarize some pertinent aspects of the society, polity, economy and demography of Ecuador, as each has undergone substantial change in recent decades. First, the main demographic trends in Ecuador in the past 35 years are indicated in *table 1.1*. While the population size has exactly doubled, it is evident from the crude birth rates and crude death rates that population growth has steadily declined over this period,³ i.e., that Ecuador is well into its demographic transition, which is characterized by a secular decline in mortality

Table 1.1. Main demographic indicators and trends in Ecuador

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The difference between the CBR and the CDR is the rate of population growth (in the absence of significant international migration, which had been the case in Ecuador up until the late 1990's).

Year	Population	Crude	Crude	Infant	Total	Percent	GNP per
		Birth	Death	Mortality	Fertility	Urban	Capita ^a
		Rate	Rate	Rate	Rate		
1970	6.6	40.6	11.5	95	6.0	39	979
1980	8.0	34.8	8.1	68	4.7	47	1146
1990	10.3	27.5	5.9	44	3.4	55	1103
2000	12.3	23.3	4.9	25	2.8	60	1142
2005	13.2	21.3	5.1	21	2.6	63	n.a.

Source: United Nations, PRED Bank 4.0 Country Profiles, 2005 and World Population Prospects, The 2004 Revision, New York, 2005 (DESA/Population Division).

Data for CBR and CDR are for five-year period following year indicated.

followed by a secular decline in fertility. Population growth accelerates during the initial mortality decline, but declines as fertility declines, which has been in process since around 1970 in Ecuador. Thus population growth declined from 2.9% per annum in 1970 to about 2.2% in 1990 and 1.6% in 2005. The decline in mortality is especially evident in the sharp fall in the infant mortality rate, (deaths of persons under age 1 divided by births in a 12 month period) and the reduction in fertility is evident in the more than halving of the total fertility rate (number of births expected to be born to a woman during her reproductive life from age 15 to age 49). The decline in fertility was due mainly to a large increase in the use of family planning, especially modern methods, with contraceptive use by couples in union rising from 34% in 1979 to 73% in 2004 (ENDEMAIN, 2004). That increase was in turn stimulated by the enormous increase in school enrolments and educational attainment in Ecuador over the past half century, especially of females.

The political system has also changed considerably during recent decades, having evolved from a military dictatorship in the 1970's to a series of stable, democratically elected governments from 1977 to 1997, albeit increasingly ideologically on the right, manifested in shrinkage of the public sector and reduced social expenditures. From 1997 to 2006 political instability has been the norm, with eight changes in the presidency. The economy, meanwhile, was a semi-feudal agricultural one up to the time of the land reform law in 1964, which called for land redistribution and ended the practice of "huasipungo", a form of indentured servant labour on haciendas. That freed up the agricultural population to migrate and seek its own fortune (or not), whether in other rural areas or in cities. While significant land reform has never occurred and Ecuadorian society continues to be characterized by great inequality in land

^a The figure for 1970 is for 1975. 2005 is not available yet. Values are in constant 1990 dollars.

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distribution as well as income distribution (the Gini coefficient for household incomes was said to be 0.54 in 1999, according to the document on MDG indicators: Ecuador, 2005), the economy has evolved from an agricultural one based on exports of bananas to one dominated by a much expanded tertiary sector and dependent on petroleum exports, which for three decades have provided about half of all foreign exchange earnings and half of government revenues. Receipts from petroleum have made possible a large expansion of the social sector (e.g., education and health services) and of infrastructure, such as roads.

This was all made possible by the discovery of oil in the northern Amazon near what has since come to be the largest city in the region, Lago Agrio, in 1967. That led to greatly increased resources for development and to many changes in the past three decades in Ecuador, as mentioned above, but without altering socio-economic inequality. The expansion of oil production and exports helped the economy grew rapidly up until the early 1980's, which probably attracted the first modest wave of immigrants to Ecuador, from Colombia, Chile and elsewhere. The attraction of Ecuador to its neighbours received a further boost when Ecuador switched its currency from the sucre to the dollar in 1999, since migrants could earn dollars to take home or send home. Still, mismanagement of the petrodollars and corruption have blocked significant economic growth since the early 1980's: In table 1.1, the right-most column shows that real per capita income has not increased significantly in the past 25 years. With people becoming more educated and healthy due to the expansion of social expenditures up to the 1990's, the lack of expansion of economic opportunities has led to growing unsatisfied aspirations and hence significant international out-migration of Ecuadorians, for the first time, in search of better lives, especially to Spain, the United States, Canada and Italy. Finally, the end of huasipungo and the expansion of the tertiary sector have led to the rapid urbanization of Ecuador, with the proportion living in urban areas rising from less than 2 in 5 in 1970 to more than 3 in 5 at the beginning of the new Millennium (table 1.1).

Demographic trends in Ecuador, including slowing population growth, growing urbanization and increasing international out-migration of Ecuadorians, may all have played small roles in facilitating the arrival of immigrants from Colombia, but the main factor has been the violence in Colombia and the peace in Ecuador, which is confirmed by survey findings, to which we now turn.

2. Characteristics of the study population: Migrant households and individuals from Colombia

In this chapter we describe the main demographic characteristics of the study population of Colombian migrants in Ecuador. The map in Figure 1.1 shows the location of the five study provinces in northern Ecuador, with Colombia bordering Ecuador along the northern borders of Esmeraldas and Carchi (the Colombian department of Nariño) and Sucumbios (the department of Putumayo). Table 2.1 shows the distribution of survey households among the three types or categories of households: (1) those in which all members are refugees or asylum seekers; (2) those in which all members are *not*; and (3) those which contain both refugees/asylum seekers and others. The numbers of households in the three groups in the survey are, respectively, 123, 277 and 99, the total number of households being 499.4 Since the survey covered the population of recent migrants from Colombia (those arriving since 2000, in which the informant reporting was at least age 15 at the time of arrival in Ecuador) in a scientifically representative manner, the data indicate that between 25% (123/499) and 44% (222/499) of the Colombians in recent years in the five study provinces are refugees or asylum seekers. Actually, we will see below that we can do better than this, once we look at the classification of persons living in the 99 mixed households by refugee status.

But before we move on, it is important to clarify here at the outset several aspects of the data from households, as reported in *table 2.1* and subsequent tables. First, the classification of households has to allow the middle or mixed category, since there were cases in which the head of the household was a refugee/asylum seeker and one or more other household members was not (which could simply be a child born in Ecuador to Colombian refugee parents after their arrival), or in which the head of the household was not a refugee

The survey attempted to collect data for 40 additional households (a total of 539), but those interviews could not be completed for various reasons: no appropriate adult respondent was available despite repeated visits; the Colombian adults in the household had come before 2000; the dwelling was not occupied (error in the listing); or, in a few cases, the respondent refused. In a dozen or so cases, in Sucumbios in the Amazon especially, some sample households could not be interviewed due to insecurity resulting from the presence of FARC guerrillas or the threat of FARC guerrillas appearing.

Table 2.1. Distribution of households in survey by status as refugee/asylum seeker or not, by sex of head

by sex of nead							
Sex	Refugees/asylum	Mixed	Other	Total			
Бел	seekers						
	% col.	% col.	% col.	% col.	Cases		
Male	70.7	73.7	81.6	77.4	386		
Female	29.3	26.3	18.4	22.6	113		
Total cases	123	99	277	100	499		

but one or more other household members (of any age) was. An example of the latter is when a Colombian woman (or man) comes to Ecuador as a refugee and then marries an Ecuadorian man (or woman). Another is when a Colombian woman migrated to Ecuador to work and later a niece came to live with her, fleeing from violence. Examples of these situations were fortunately encountered during the initial pre-tests of the survey instruments and hence were anticipated.

Second, *none* of the data come from people living in refugee camps, as is common in UNHCR data, but rather from a representative sample survey of households (in the five study provinces) containing one or more adult migrants from Colombia, as defined above. Thus an exhaustive and time-consuming initial listing operation had to be designed and implemented in the field in which all households in the selected Primary Sampling Units (census sectors) were first visited to list one-by-one every occupied residential address/dwelling, recording the address. On one line per household, listers recorded the number of occupants and whether the household contained any Colombian who had arrived since January 1, 2000 and who was also at least age 15 at the time of arriving in Ecuador. The result was that about 50 households had to be listed for each one that was found to have an appropriate Colombian and therefore for each one which was visited to conduct the interview (see discussion of the sample in Annex I), and for which we present data in this report.

Returning to table 2.1, we observe that it also shows the percentage of households which had *female heads*, which was higher for refugee/asylum and mixed households than for the other, non-refugee households, being 29, 26 and 18 per cent, respectively. This indicates a clear difference between the types of households. The higher prevalence of female-headed households among

refugees may be due to the fact that some of these women had husbands who were kidnapped or killed by guerrillas in Colombia before she fled to Ecuador.

The next, more detailed table shows the distribution of household members by sex and age within each of the three categories of households. First, table 2.2 shows that there are slightly more males than females in the households containing only refugees/asylum seekers, in contrast to the situations of mixed and non-refugee households. Table 2.2 also shows mean household size at the bottom, revealing no difference between refugee/asylum seeker households and other migrant households; however, mixed households are significantly larger, with a mean of 5.0 persons compared to 3.9 for the other two categories. It is not clear why this is the case, as the mixed group is diverse, including households headed by Ecuadorians as well as Colombians. However, some of these are essentially refugee households in which the Colombian couple gave birth to a child in Ecuador, who would not qualify as a refugee, making it a mixed household and one which would be larger than the equivalent household which did not have a birth. So there is likely to be an element of selectivity in households being classified as mixed also having one more member on average. But this can only explain about a fifth of the difference in mean household size.

Data at the bottom of table 2.2 show the mean numbers of working-age adults, children and the elderly for the three groups of households. It is evident that the proportion elderly (over age 65 is generally small and hence cannot vary much across the three categories of households. The mean number of children is highest for mixed households, but is also significantly higher for refugee/asylum seeker households than for the other, non-refugee households. Thus the ratio of child dependents to working age adults in refugee households is 0.79, which is considerably higher than the mean value of 0.70 for other households. The proportion of children (child dependents under age 15) in the population 0-64—the child dependency ratio— is also higher among refugee/asylum seeker households at 0.44 (and in mixed households where it is 0.47) than in non-refugee migrant households, where it is 0.41. While these sex and age differences are small, they indicate a somewhat greater burden of child dependency among refugee and mixed households.

Another important finding about the composition of Colombian migrants can be gleaned from the data on household members classified by age, sex and especially refugee status, once the 494 persons in the *mixed* household category

Table 2.2. Distribution of household members by status of household, sex and age

Sex	Age Group	Refugees/asylum seekers		Mixed		Non-refugees/ asylum seekers		Total	
		% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases
	0-4	6.3	30	9.3	46	8.3	88	8.1	164
Males	5-9	9.2	44	6.7	33	5.7	60	6.8	137
	10-14	8.8	42	7.1	35	5.1	54	6.5	131
	15-19	5.5	26	4.5	22	4.2	44	4.5	92
	20-24	2.9	14	3.2	16	6.0	63	4.6	93
	25-29	2.3	11	3.6	18	5.3	56	4.2	85
	30-34	3.8	18	3.4	17	3.2	34	3.4	69
	35-39	4.8	23	3.2	16	2.8	30	3.4	69
	40-44	1.9	9	1.8	9	2.6	28	2.3	46
	45-49	1.7	8	1.8	9	1.8	19	1.8	36
	50-54	1.0	5	1.0	5	0.7	7	0.8	17
	55-59	2.1	10	0.8	4	1.2	13	1.3	27
	60-64	1.0	5			0.7	7	0.6	12
	65 +	0.4	2	1.4	7	1.0	11	1.0	20
	Total	51.8	247	48	237	48.6	514	49.2	998
	0-4	4.6	22	11.5	57	8.9	94	8.5	173
	5-9	7.1	34	5.7	28	7.1	75	6.8	137
	10-14	7.5	36	6.3	31	4.8	51	5.8	118
	15-19	4.6	22	7.1	35	5.3	56	5.6	113
	20-24	3.1	15	6.1	30	6.3	67	5.5	112
	25-29	4.8	23	3.4	17	5.4	57	4.8	97
	30-34	3.6	17	3.2	16	3.0	32	3.2	65
Females	35-39	4.8	23	2.0	10	3.4	36	3.4	69
	40-44	3.1	15	2.4	12	2.3	24	2.5	51
	45-49	1.5	7	2.0	10	1.3	14	1.5	31
	50-54	1.3	6	1.0	5	1.1	12	1.1	23
	55-59	1.0	5	0.6	3	0.9	9	0.8	17
	60-64	0.2	1			0.9	9	0.5	10
	65 +	0.8	4	0.6	3	0.7	7	0.7	14
	Total	48.2	230	52	257	51.4	543	50.8	1030
TOTAL, BOTH		477	100	494	100	1057	100	2028	
SEXES		4//	100	494	100	1037	100	2028	
Mean no. of persons per household		3.88		4.99		3.87		4.41	
Mean num	Mean number aged 0-14		1.69		2.32		1.55		1.73
Mean number aged 15-64			2.14		2.57		2.22		2.61
Mean number aged 65+			0.05		0.1		0.07		0.07

are separated into those who are refugees/asylum seekers (285) and those who are not (209). The latter group comprises those who are Colombians but are not seeking asylum (70) plus those born in Ecuador (139), which in turn includes the survivors of children born to the Colombian migrants after their arrival (fewer than 20) and others. Most of the latter are spouses and other relatives of the head of household or his/her spouse; many of these households as observed in 2006 involved unions of Ecuadorians and Colombians. If we take out the 139 persons born in Ecuador, the total population of Colombians encountered in the survey in the five study provinces is 2028-139=1889. Out of these, 477 persons are refugees/asylum seekers in households comprising only them (see Table 2.2), to which we add 285 from the mixed household category, resulting in a total Colombian refugee population covered by the survey of 762 persons. This means the total number of non-refugees from Colombia covered by the survey is 1889-762=1127. Therefore, we conclude that our best estimate of the proportion of recent Colombians migrants living in the five study provinces who are refugees and asylum seekers (including some whose request for asylum has been rejected) is 762/1889 or 40.3%. If this percentage can be considered representative of the distribution of recent immigrants to Ecuador from Colombia in general, then it would indicate that 2 in every 5 Colombians arriving in Ecuador in recent years are seeking refuge or asylum. However, this is likely to be slightly higher that the correct proportion in the country as a whole, to the degree that those seeking refugee/asylum status are usually fleeing violence, poor and desperate and can only make it into Ecuador as far as the northern border provinces. Thus it is likely to be persons who have not applied for asylum or refugee status, viz., non-refugees, that migrate to and settle in the other provinces of Ecuador further south, including some who first settle in a northern border province but later move south to better integrate themselves into the Ecuadorian economy and society. That said, it is still likely that the five study provinces account for the overwhelming majority of recent migrants from Colombia, so the true proportion of Colombians arriving in Ecuador in recent years who are refugees or asylum seekers is still likely to be at least one in three. In fact, 87% of the registered asylum seekers arriving during 2005 lived in the five provinces covered by this project (UNHCR, 2006, p. 10).

Returning to the data on the demographic characteristics of the survey population, *table 2.3* presents data on marital status. The data show some modest differences in marital status between refugees/asylum seekers and others, especially among women: significantly more refugee women are

Table 2.3. Marital status of refugees/asylum seekers and others by sex (percentage distribution)

Sex. marital status	Refugees/asy	lum seekers	Oth	iers	Total
Sex, martiai status	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	cases
Males	100	200	100	205	405
Single	26.0	52	30.7	63	115
Currently married	24.5	49	26.3	54	103
Consensual union	43.0	86	38.0	78	164
Widower	1.5	3	1.5	3	6
Divorced	0.5	1	0.0		1
Separated	4.5	9	3.4	7	16
Females	100	244	100	243	487
Single	23.8	58	23.5	57	115
Currently married	23.4	57	28.0	68	125
Consensual union	34.0	83	37.0	90	173
Widow	6.6	16	4.9	12	28
Divorced	0.4	1	0.0		1
Separated	11.9	29	6.6	16	45

widows, divorced or separated, doubtless reflecting the effects of having lived with and escaped from violence, sometimes losing their husbands in the process. For males, refugees are slightly less likely to be single and more likely to be in consensual unions or separated, compared to non-refugees. Looking at differences by gender among refugees, again women are more likely than men to be widows or separated and less likely to be in a union. Overall, the data suggest that refugee women have suffered more marital disruptions and/or been less able or interested to form new relationships than refugee men, though the numbers are too small to assert this with great confidence.

Table 2.4 shows the urban-rural distribution of migrant households in the survey, though this is affected by the sample design, which aimed *a priori* to collect data from an equal number of urban and rural census sectors. However, in sample sectors in Quito fewer households than expected were found with Colombian migrants, while more than expected were found in some rural sectors of Sucumbios, overall the final sample of completed households interviewed comprised 289 households in rural areas and 210 in urban areas. Table 2.4 further indicates that mixed households are more likely to be found in rural than urban areas, that non-refugee households were more likely to be in urban areas, and that refugee-asylum seeker households were about equally likely to be found in urban and rural areas. Overall, female headed households

Table 2.4. Percentage distribution of households by refugee/asylum status, urban-rural residence and sex of head

Sex		Urba	n		•					
	Refugees/ asylum seekers	Mixed	Other	Total urban	Refugees/ asylum seekers	Mixed	Other	Total rural	Total	
Male	76.0	62.9	76.0	73.8	67.1	79.7	86.2	79.9	77.4	
Female	24.0	37.1	24.0	26.2	32.9	20.3	13.8	20.1	22.6	
Total	50	35	125	210	73	64	152	289	499	

were also more common in urban than rural areas (26% vs. 20%), which is consistent with the greater general prevalence of females than males among migrants of all kinds in urban communities of Latin America, including Ecuador. The prevalence of female heads is highest, however, among mixed households in urban communities and refugee households in rural areas.

Finally, table 2.5 shows the distribution of refugee, mixed and non-refugee or other households by size, i.e., by number of persons living in the household. The number of households with only one or two members was about the same for refugee and other households, but very small for mixed households (indeed, this explains part of the different noted above regarding household size across the three categories). At the other end of the distribution, the percentage of households with seven or more members is 11 for refugee/asylum seeker households and 9 for non-refugee households, but it is twice that (21%) for mixed households. It is possible that the mixed households are more likely to have married couples with children, often involving a man from one country and a woman from the other. This would be consistent with the data here as well as table 2.2. Unfortunately, we did not cross-classify those persons in the individual interview according to the category of household they live in, which could clarify this. If we examine the percentages of households with 6 or more members, the difference between refugee and non-refugee households disappears, but the gap between both and mixed households increases in terms of the mixed households being larger on average.

Table 2.5. Household size of refugee/asylum seekers and other Colombian migrants in Ecuador (percentage distribution)

Persons in household	Refugees/asylum seekers	Mixed	Other	Total cases
1	14.5		13.7	56
2	16.9	11.1	16.2	77
3	17.7	17.2	20.9	97
4	16.1	23.2	16.6	89
5	17.7	17.2	14.1	78
6	6.5	10.1	9.4	44
7	3.2	9.1	2.5	20
8	4.8	6.1	2.5	19
9	0.8	1.0	2.2	8
10	0.8	3.0	0.4	5
12			1.1	3
14		1.0		1
16			0.4	1
19	0.8			1
20		1.0		1
Total	124	99	277	500

3. Origins of the study population of migrants from Colombia, location in Ecuador and intentions to remain or not

As mentioned above in Chapter 1, the migration of Colombians to Ecuador accelerated beginning in the late 1990's as a result of increasing civil strife and violence in Colombia. The survey provides information on the migration history and context of these migrants, both refugees/asylum seekers and others, who came to Ecuador since 2000. The data refer exclusively to households containing one or more Colombians who were at least age 15 when they migrated.

Table 3.1 shows the origins of these migrants, in terms of the departamento or province of previous residence in Colombia immediately prior to moving to Ecuador. It should be noted that the information here does not reflect the origins of all migrants from Colombia to Ecuador, but only of those who migrated to the five northern survey provinces. That said, these are the provinces that received and continue to receive the vast majority of migrants from Colombia. It is striking that, over half (55%) of all the sample population of Colombian migrant respondents (aged 15 or over at the time of migration) come from only two departments, Putumayo and Nariño. These are the two departments that border Ecuador (along with scarcely populated Amazonas). The next three departments, each accounting for around 5% of the sample, include two just north of the border departments in Colombia—Huila and Valle de Cauca (which contains the second largest city in Colombia, Cali)—plus heavily populated Cundinamarca (which contains the capital and largest city, Bogotá). It is interesting that the origins of refugees/asylum seekers and non-refugees differ considerably, with Putumayo in the Colombian Amazon accounting for 28% of refugees, followed by Nariño with about half that (15%) and then by Caqueta (the Amazonian department just north of Putumayo), Valle de Cauca and Huila. All of these provinces have experienced considerable violence. In contrast, those who are not refugees/asylum seekers migrated overwhelmingly from one single department, that is, 53%, from Nariño, in the Colombian Andes, situated along the main road connection between the countries, the PanAmerican Highway. This highway also passes through the border cities of Tulcan and Ipiales, where there is considerable trade, including smuggling. After Nariño, the other main departments of origin of non-refugees were Putumayo with 14%, followed by the heavily populated, urban departments of Valle de Cauca and Cundinamarca, each with 6-8%

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Table 3.1. Origins of Colombian migrants to Ecuador, by department of previous residence

Department		s/asylum kers	Oti	hers	То	tal
	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases
Caldas	2.5	11	1.3	6	1.9	17
Caqueta	8.3	37	2.2	10	5.3	47
Cauca	4.1	18	1.3	6	2.7	24
Cundinamarca	3.2	14	6.3	28	4.7	42
Huila	7.7	34	2.0	9	4.8	43
Nariño	15.1	67	53.1	238	34.2	305
Putumayo	27.5	122	13.8	62	20.6	184
Risaralda	0.9	4	1.8	8	1.3	12
Santander	1.4	6	1.1	5	1.2	11
Tolima	3.6	16	1.6	7	2.6	23
Valle del Cauca	8.3	37	7.6	34	8.0	71
Quindio	2.5	11			1.2	11
Other departments	14.9	66	7.8	35	11.3	101
Does not know	0.2	1			0.1	1
Total	100.0	444	100.0	448	100.0	892

The main conclusion to be drawn from these data is that the area of heaviest refugee flows due to violence is in the Amazon, from Putumayo across the Rio San Miguel to Sucumbios. Thus the vast majority of the flows across the border in the Andes and Pacific coastal regions are the usual *non-refugee* flows of international migrants, though they do include some refugees and asylum seekers. The next table below, *table 3.2*, suggests that those coming from Putumayo stay mainly in the Amazon and arrive specifically in the province of Sucumbios and its capital city, Lago Agrio, where the presence of Colombians is quite evident.

Table 3.2 thus shows the distribution of the sample actually interviewed in the survey conducted in the five study provinces in Ecuador. While this reflects the sample design, that design was itself developed to collect data from households in the Ecuadorian provinces with the highest prevalence of Colombians (percentage of Colombians in the province), based on the 2001 census of population in Ecuador. Sucumbios had the highest percentage, followed by Carchi (see Annex I). In addition, during the course of the fieldwork, Sucumbios was the only province of the five where *more* Colombians were observed

Table 3.2. Place of residence in Ecuador of refugee/asylum seeker, mixed and other households

	nousenous												
Place of residence		Refugees/asylum seekers		Mi	xed	Oti	Total						
		% row	Cases	% row	Cases	% row	Cases						
	Carchi	6.4	6	6.4	6	87.2	82	94					
	Esmeraldas	18.0	9	10.0	5	72.0	36	50					
Province	Imbabura	44.4	24	25.9	14	29.6	16	54					
	Pichincha	27.9	24	18.6	16	53.5	46	86					
	Sucumbios	27.9	60	27.0	58	45.1	97	215					
A **00	Urban	23.8	50	16.7	35	59.5	125	210					
Area	Rural	25.3	73	22.1	64	52.6	152	289					
Total		24.6	123	19.8	99	55.5	277	499					

in the household listing operation than had been expected based on the 2001 census, indicating a continuation of heavy migration of Colombians into Sucumbios. Thus over 40% of the final sample interviewed was in Sucumbios, followed by Carchi and Pichincha. In addition, 42% is urban, reflecting the effort made in this survey to collect data on rural as well as urban areas, to reflect the distribution of Colombian migrants expected in Ecuador based on data from the 2001 census (fieldwork is far more difficult and time-consuming/expensive in rural areas in Ecuador).

It is possible to further identify certain places which were found in the survey to have high proportions of Colombians during the course of the household listing operation carried out prior to the actual survey (see Annex I). The criterion used here is that the listing operation reveal the census sector to have at least either 10 households or 10% of the households in the sector being recent migrants from Colombia (since 2000). There were some surprises found in the fieldwork, with fewer such sectors than expected found in all provinces except Sucumbios. Thus in Pichincha, only three sectors out of 23 in the sample in Quito had such a concentration of recent Colombian migrants, plus one urban sector nearby Sangolqui. None of the six rural sectors had more than a couple households. In Carchi, not a single one of the 23 urban or rural sample sectors had that many. In Imbabura, also in the Sierra between Carchi and Pichincha, only in two of the seven sample census sectors were over 10 recent Colombian migrant households listed, both urban. In Esmeraldas, three of the seven had at least 10 households with migrants from Colombia (each with 10 or 11), but in no case was this over 7% of the total households. Each of these was urban; neither of the rural sample sectors had more than three migrant households.

In contrast to the other four provinces, in Sucumbios, half of all sample sectors (11 of 23) had at least 10 households or 10% of the total households comprising one or more Colombians aged 15+ who had arrived since January 1, 2000. In urban Lago Agrio, four of the five sectors had such a concentration, along with all 3 urban sectors of General Farfán (on the border), but such a concentration was not found in the only other urban sector in the Sucumbios sample in El Eno. In contrast, very few of the rural sample sectors had such a concentration of recent migrant Colombians: only one of four in Lago Agrio, one in six in General Farfán, one in three in Pacayacu and none of the five in Shushufindi, Limoncocha, Dorado de Cascales and Aguas Negras had more than a few Colombian households. The one case of Pacayacu is striking, however, with 80 of the total of 144 households in the rural sector being recent Colombian migrants. But the rules of sampling for the project established a priori limited interviewing to a maximum of 10 of those households, which were selected through a subsampling procedure (see Annex I). In general, the experience of this survey indicates that the vast majority of Colombian migrant households are located in urban areas, mainly close to the border, in Sucumbios and Esmeraldas. This may be useful to know for any subsequent follow-up fieldwork.

It is interesting to observe how the geographic distribution of the sample varies by type of household. First, the urban-rural distribution is not very different, though mixed households are more likely to be rural and non-refugee/asylum seeker households are more likely to be living in urban areas of Ecuador. On the other hand, the provincial distributions are extremely different, with Colombian migrants in the two border provinces of Carchi and Esmeraldas much more likely to *not* be in refugee/asylum seeker households, while those in Imbabura are *more* likely to be refugees/asylum seekers. However, the sample sizes in these three provinces are small, so this conclusion is only tentative. Evidently, the province with by far the largest *number* of refugee/asylum seeker and mixed households in the sample is Sucumbios, which also has slightly more non-refugee households.

When did the international migrants, refugees and others, come into Ecuador and is the pace of in-migration increasing over time? While the sample is small and was not designed to address these questions, the mere selection of a representative sample and careful implementation of the survey should provide some relevant data. In contrast to the findings in table 3.1 and table 3.2, which are based on the household interview, the remainder of the tables and discussion

in this chapter are based on results from the individual-level interviews, that is, interviews with all Colombians above age 15 who had come since January 1, 2000. *Table 3.3* shows the year of arrival of migrants to Ecuador during the six full years from 2000 to 2005 plus the first 2-3 months of 2006. It is evident from the data that there has been a continuing inflow of migrants of both refugees-asylum seekers and non-refugees, but that the flows were larger in the first year, 2000 (and probably in the years immediately preceding, due to an intensification of violence in Colombia), lowest in the next two years and then increased to reach a peak in 2005. Judging from the data for early 2006, based on the survey being carried out primarily in February and March, this heavy in-migration is likely continuing. Thus inflows of refugees and asylum seekers have likely been rising, being highest in 2005 and the present year and were fairly steady at less than half that pace in the preceding years. It is striking that the timing of immigration of non-refugee immigration from Colombia is so similar to that of refugees.

Why did the Colombians who migrated to Ecuador leave Colombia?

Table 3.4 presents survey findings on why Colombians —both refugees/asylum seekers and others— left Colombia. Respondents could give more than one reason in the survey. Overall, two thirds of all Colombian migrants said that violence was an important reason for leaving and half also reported fear of violence. The only other important reason given was lack of work, reported as a reason by 36% overall, though this differed sharply, as expected, between refugees/asylum

Table 3.3. Year of arrival in Ecuador of Colombians arriving since 2000, refugees/asylum seekers and others

Year	Refugee. seel	s/asylum kers	Oth	ners	Total							
	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases						
2000	14.7	65	15.7	70	15.2	135						
2001	6.8	30	14.2	63	10.5	93						
2002	14.0	62	9.9	44	11.9	106						
2003	13.8	61	13.5	60	13.6	121						
2004	12.9	57	11.0	49	11.9	106						
2005	31.8	141	28.3	126	30.1	267						
2006	6.1	27	7.4	33	6.8	60						

Table 3.4. Reasons for leaving Colombia, according to status as refugee/asylum seeker or other

	σ	iner		
Reason for leaving	Refugee/asylum seeker	Other	То	tal
	% col.	% col.	% col.	Cases
Violence, guerrillas	88.9	43.8	66.5	580
Fear of violence	61.1	40.0	50.7	442
Natural disasters		0.2	0.1	1
Lack of land	0.7	7.4	4.0	35
Lack of employment	13.0	60.2	36.4	317
Lost business	0.2	2.5	1.4	12
Problems of health	0.2	1.4	0.8	7
Personal problems	7.5	11.3	9.4	82
To get married	0.5	3.5	1.9	17
Total	440	432	872	872

seekers and other migrants, being important for only 13% of the former but 60% of the latter. Violence and fear of violence were the overwhelming reasons given by refugees/asylum seekers, by 89 and 61%, respectively. Still, those were the second and third most common reasons given even by the non-refugee migrants, by 44 and 40%, respectively, indicating that even the decisions of non-refugees were often strongly influenced by the civil strife in Colombia. That violence may therefore be seen as a cause of significant loss of labour and human capital from Colombia and of significant gain for Ecuador (see data in Chapters 5, 6 and 10 below on the educational levels and economic activities of migrants). Finally, it is striking that personal reasons (indicated by the last three rows of the table), which are usually among the most important reasons given for migration by international migrants, were generally *not* important, being mentioned by only 8% of refugees/asylum seekers and 11% of other migrants.

We conclude that the flow of migrants from Colombia to Ecuador, even of economic migrants, is affected overwhelming by the violence in Colombia and only secondarily by economic factors. The next table in this section, *table 3.5*, provides data on a companion question asked of all migrants, "why did you come to Ecuador?" Unfortunately, the attempt to get respondents to provide separate reasons for leaving Colombia and for coming to Ecuador was not very

successful —many respondents did not distinguish the two, as is evident in the most common reason given for coming to Ecuador— "other". When the reasons written in by hand by interviewers on the questionnaire for "other" were

Table 3.5. Reasons for coming to Ecuador, by refugee status and gender

		1016 5.5.	is jor cor	n, by rejugee sidius and gender											
		Refugee/	⁄asylum s	eeker						Other	rs			Tot	al
	<i>M</i>	l ales	Fer	nales	Total			Mo	ales	Females		Total		101111	
	%	% Casas		C	%	C		%	C	%	C	%	C	%	C
	col.	Cases	col.	Cases	col.	Cases		col.	Cases	col.	Cases	col.	Cases	col.	Cases
Had relatives here	15.9	31	20.2	49	18.3	80		21.1	43	27.8	67	24.7	110	21.5	190
To get married			0.8	2	0.5	2		1.5	3	5.0	12	3.4	15	1.9	17
Had land here			0.4	1	0.2	1				1.2	3	0.7	3	0.5	4
Seek assistance from UNHCR	4.6	9	11.9	29	8.7	38		0.5	1	1.2	3	0.9	4	4.8	42
My parents brought me	9.2	18	9.5	23	9.4	41		6.4	13	5.8	14	6.1	27	7.7	68
To study	0.5	1			0.2	1		2.5	5	0.8	2	1.6	7	0.9	8
Had work here	1.5	3			0.7	3		10.8	22	8.3	20	9.4	42	5.1	45
To look for work	25.1	49	21.4	52	23.1	101		56.9	116	52.7	127	54.6	243	39.0	344
To establish a business	0.5	1	0.8	2	0.7	3		2.0	4	2.1	5	2	9	1.4	12
To buy land			0.4	1	0.2	1		4.4	9	1.2	3	2.7	12	1.5	13
Other	64.1	125	61.7	150	62.8	275		32.4	66	34.9	84	33.7	150	48.1	425
Total	100	195	100	243	100	438		100	204	100	241	100	445	100	883

examined, the dominant ones turned out to be to escape from violence and because Ecuador was close and easy to get to. Apart from this "other" category, looking for work was the main reason given for choosing Ecuador by non-refugees, with over half of both males and females giving this reason, in contrast to less than a quarter of refugees and asylum seekers. It is intriguing that the reasons given by women and men are so similar, that is, that "personal" reasons such as having relatives, to get married and to accompany parents, were not much higher for women than men. This suggests that these women have a high level of economic motivation.

Given the large influxes of Colombian migrants to Ecuador in recent years, a key question is, do they intend to remain in Ecuador? And does this differ between refugees/asylum seekers and other immigrants from Colombia? All individual respondents above age 15 at the time of arrival were asked a series of questions about their migration intentions, including whether they intend to return to Colombia and if so, when; and if not, do they intend to migrate within Ecuador or to a foreign country other than Colombia? The results are presented in table 3.6. First, it is evident that the vast majority of Colombian migrants are in Ecuador to stay, but this is far higher for refugees/asylum seekers: Fully 5 of every 6 refugees and asylum seekers have no intention whatsoever of returning to Colombia, where many have suffered great personal and economic loss, while only 1 in 12 expects to return. In addition, most of those one in 12 have only vague, unformed notions of when they might return, with 44% saying they are not sure and another 38% saying it will be some uncertain time after at least a year. Thus, only 6 of 438 persons have specific intentions to return within a year. This information is very important for authorities in the Government of Ecuador and ACNUR to take into account, to recognize that these refugees and asylum seekers are likely to be in Ecuador permanently (certainly as long as the violence continues in Colombia and that has been now for some 4 decades and shows no tendency to abate). It is crucial to recognize this in order to develop meaningful programs to meet the needs of these families, not only in the short run but also for the long run.

Among the refugees and asylum seekers who do *not* intend to move back to Colombia, that is among the 92.2% or 404 out of 438 respondents, some 9% intend to migrate to some other destination within Ecuador, though almost none has a specific, near-term plan. Another 12% or 48 persons of the 404 have notions of migrating to a third country, mostly the United States, but only 10 of

Table 3.6. Percentage distribution of population aged 15+ by refugee status and intention to return to Colombia or to migrate within Ecuador or elsewhere, and timing of move

Intention to move and timing		Refugee	status	
		s/asylum kers	Oth	iers
No intention to move back	83.8		60.3	
Not sure	8.5		15.7	
Intend to move back to Colombia	7.8		24.0	
Within 6 months		11.8		17.8
Between 6-12 months		5.9		3.7
After more than 1 year		38.2		36.4
Not sure/it depends		44.1		42.1
Missing				
Total		100.0		100.0
Intend to move within Ecuador	9.1		10.3	
Within 6 months		5.4		14.3
Between 6-12 months		-		11.4
After more than 1 year		5.4		8.6
Not sure/it depends		89.2		65.7
Total		100.0		100.0
Intend to move to another country	11.7		6.5	
Within 6 months		19.1		13.6
Between 6-12 months		10.6		-
After more than 1 year		10.6		27.3
Not sure/it depends		59.6		59.1
Total		100.0		100.0
Total cases	438		446	

Note: Intentions to move within Ecuador or to another country are subsets of intentions to not return to Colombia, e.g., for refugees to move to another country, they are 11.7% of the 83.8%, meaning 43 cases.

these have a specific intention of doing so within the next year. Adding these 10 to the 6 above who intend to return to Colombia does not alter the conclusion above about the likely permanence of refugees and asylum seekers in Ecuador.

In addition, regarding table 3.6, differences in migration plans between non-refugee migrants and refugees/asylum seekers can be further elucidated. Thus as many as one in four of the category of other migrants "intend to return", suggesting that they are in Ecuador only temporarily, mainly for economic reasons. Once they have established a successful business, or saved a nest egg,

they are probably more likely to return to Colombia. However, of these 24%, only one-fifth have *specific* plans, meaning only about 5% of the total have specific plans to return to Colombia, compared to 1.5% of refugees/asylum seekers. These 5% of other Colombians and 1.5% of refugees are likely to return even if the violence continues in Colombia. But these are very small percentages of the total.

Finally, the percentages intending to migrate within Ecuador or abroad are not appreciably different from those of refugees/asylum seekers, except that slightly more intend to move internally and have specific plans (26% of the 10%, or still less than 3% overall of non-refugees, compared to 5.4% of 9%, or less than one half of one 1% for refugees). Evidently, non-refugees are more inclined to move, both back to Colombia, where they were usually less affected by the violence, and within Ecuador. The lack of mobility plans of refugees and asylum seekers may stem from a desire of some to remain close to sources of assistance (e.g., offices of ACNUR), as well as jobs, schools, etc.

4. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

The first MDG goal is to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, with the main target being to halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one US dollar per day. This indicator allows for comparing progress across countries in reducing the number of people living under extreme poverty and for monitoring trends at the global and regional levels (UN, 2003).

According to the World Bank, Ecuador is a middle-income country, facilitated by the discovery of petroleum in 1967 and its emergence as an oil exporting country, which literally fuelled rapid economic growth up to the early 1980's. This growth was accompanied by major expansion of infrastructure, such as roads and of social services, including education and health, along with rapid urbanization and improvements in the quality of life for much of the population (Section 1.2 above). Nevertheless, poverty has continued to be high: it worsened in the 1980's and has not improved since, despite GDP growth since 2000. Inequality also continues to be very high, with the Gini coefficient being 53.8 in 1999. Ecuador aims to reduce this to 52.3 by 2015 as its first Millennium Development Goal (Ecuador, 2005), which seems a much too modest target. Rural areas continue to have much higher poverty rates than urban areas in Ecuador, as well as much less access to adequate education and health care and decent housing. The numbers of people classified as poor and hungry vary with the criteria used but remain considerable. The World Bank, based on the Survey of Living Conditions (Living Standards Measurement Survey) in 1994, classified 35% of the population as poor, defined in terms of the national poverty line. In 1998, 17.7% of the population was classified as extremely poor by the World Bank, living on less than \$1 per capita per day, with 40.8% poor in the sense of having less than \$2 income per capita per day to live on (World Bank 2005). It should be noted that the 1994 income/poverty estimates were based on a very detailed income-expenditure survey, which is not strictly comparable to the data on approximate household incomes obtained here in the UNHCR-supported survey.

The principal MDG of Ecuador with respect to the major MDG 1 is to reduce the proportion of population living in extreme poverty by half, or from 15.5% living on less than one dollar/day in 1999 (according to the official MDG publication: c.f., Ecuador, 2005, p. 8) to 7.7% by 2015. Ecuador aims to achieve annual growth of "2 or 3% per capita" from 2004 to 2015 to achieve that goal.

However, recent history does not leave one sanguine about Ecuador's prospects to achieve its goals for MDG 1. Since at least 1990, years of structural adjustment, drastic cutbacks in social expenditures, and little economic growth have left poverty very high, though its varied and good growing conditions and soils have kept malnutrition lower than most other countries in Latin America, even those with higher per capita incomes and lower poverty indices.

In the sections that follow, we analyse indicators of income poverty as well as of perceived poverty, and also explore perceived food security to the extent permitted by the data collected in the survey.

4.1. Income poverty

In the context of MDG 1 (eradicate extreme poverty and hunger), the target set by the international community is to halve, between 1990 and 2015, the percentage of people (i.e., poverty headcount ratio) whose income is less than one US dollar per day (in Purchasing Power Parity, or PPP dollars). This indicator allows for monitoring the proportion of the national population considered poor. However, most poverty studies on individual countries are based on national poverty lines, which vary with the mean level of income of the country. Since Ecuador uses the US dollar as its currency (since 1999), the only adjustment would be for inflation and hence in the declining PPP of the US dollar, since the \$1/day criterion was established. Indeed, Ecuador experienced high inflation in the years prior to and immediately following its abandonment of the *sucre* and conversion to the US dollar. That conversion was used an a patent excuse of many sectors and businesses to increase prices right after the conversion, resulting in the prices of many things rapidly rising close to US levels. PPP-converted incomes facilitate comparisons of income levels between countries. In the context of the project for which this report is written, it facilitates comparison between Armenia, Sri Lanka and Ecuador. The World Bank (2005) noted that the value to use for the extreme poverty threshold by 2004 was \$1.08 per day, to take into account an 8% reduction in the purchasing power of the US dollar, since the original \$1/day figure was based on purchasing power at 1993 prices. However, this adjustment is so minor that it is not worth taking into account here, especially given the very rough estimates of incomes available from the survey, as is explained below.

In any case, the results presented below should be interpreted with caution for two main reasons. First, the survey did not collect information on actual incomes of each member of the household. No data were sought on earnings of each household member from work, much less on incomes from other, more complex sources, such as business, farm and rental incomes: it was determined by NIDI at the outset of the project that it would take too much time and effort to collect detailed income data. Thus the only questions asked about income were posed to the household head and were used to establish a category for *total household income per month*, in five income categories. These figures were then used to estimate per capita income per day. Thus, heads of households were asked several questions about total household income in the previous month. The first question was, "On average, is the monthly income of your household, of all members combined, between 100 and 300 dollars, or is it more than that or less than that?" Follow-up questions were then used to establish the income of the household as being in one of five income categories (see Annex III).

The results of this process for the sample population are indicated in *table 4.1*. This comprehensive table allows us to compare income levels of refugee/asylum seeker households with mixed and non-refugee households, to compare income levels of households with different household sizes and to do both at the same time, that is, to compare incomes of refugee-non-refugee households controlling for household size.

The last line in each of the three panels indicates the overall income distribution of the three types of households and shows that refugee/asylum seeker and mixed households are poorer than non-refugee households overall, with the percentages claiming to have monthly household incomes in the lowest income class under US \$100 per month being 65, 56 and 42, respectively. At the other end, those with over \$300 per month are 1.6, 3 and 13.3%, for the three types of households. Indeed, the trapezoidal structure of the table shows the expanding income categories for non-refugee households compared to the other two.

As for whether household incomes vary much according to household size, it appears that they do not in this study population, that is, households of Colombian migrants with more members do not have higher aggregate household incomes than those with fewer members. Accordingly, controlling for household size does not lead to any appreciably different conclusions, viz., at

Table 4.1. Income distribution by category of income, refugees/asylum seekers and others, 2006 (US dollars)

Number			Refi	ugees/as		ekers	/					
of	<	100)-300		-500	T	otal				
members												
of	%	cases	%	cases	%	cases	%	cases				
household	row		row		row		row					
1	52.9	9	47.1	8			100	17				
2	76.2	16	19.0	4	4.8	1	100	21				
3	59.1	13	36.4	8	4.5	1	100	22				
4	65.0	13	3.05	7			100	20				
5	72.7	16	27.3	6			100	22				
6	75.0	6	25.0	2			100	8				
7	25.0	1	75.0	3			100	4				
8 +	66.7	6	33.3	3			100	9				
Total	65	80	33.3	41	1.6	2	100	123				
Number						Mixed						
of	<	100	100	-300	301	-500	501	-1000	To	otal		
members	%		%		%		%		%			
of		cases		cases		cases		cases		Cases		
household	row		row		row		row		row			
1												
2	54.5	6	45.5	5					100	11		
3	52.9	9	47.1	8					100	17		
4	78.3	18	21.7	5					100	23		
5	41.2	7	52.9	9	5.9	1			100	17		
6	30.0	3	60.0	6	10.0	1			100	10		
7	66.7	6	22.2	2			11.1	1	100	9		
8+	50.0	6	50.0	6	2.0		1.0		100	12		
Total	55.6	55	41.4	41	2.0	2	1.0	1	100	99		
Number							Other	•				
of	<	100	100	-300	301	-500	501	-1000	> 1	000	To	otal
members of	%		%		%		%		%		%	
oj household	row	cases	row	cases	row	cases	row	cases	row	Cases	row	cases
1	36.8	14	44.7	17	15.8	6	TOW		2.6	1	100	38
2	37.8	17	40.0	18	4.4	2	11.1	5	6.7	3	100	45
3	48.3	28	41.4	24	1.7	1	5.2	3	3.4	2	100	58
4	58.7	27	30.4	14	6.5	3	5.4	3	4.3	2	100	46
5	23.1	9	61.5	24	5.1	2	2.6	1	7.7	3	100	39
6	53.8	14	42.3	11	3.8	1	۷.0	1	1.1	J	100	26
7	14.3	14	71.4	5	14.3	1					100	20 7
8+	27.8	5	66.7	12	5.6	1					100	18
o +	41.0	J	00.7	14	5.0	1					100	10

Total

41.5

115

45.1

125

6.1

17

3.2

4.0

11

100

277

virtually all household sizes, refugee and asylum seeker households have lower per capita incomes than non-refugee households and usually also lower incomes than mixed households. For example, for households of size 3, 59% of refugee households have monthly incomes under \$100 compared to 53% among mixed households and 48% for other households. The corresponding figures for households of size 5 are 73, 41 and 23 per cent, respectively.

To convert the data from table 4.1 into estimates of per capita income per day, the following procedure was used. First, for each closed income category (e.g., 100 to 300 dollars per month), the middle value of the income class was assigned as the best estimate of mean household income for all households in that income category, except that 700 was used for the category 500 to 999, reflecting the likely greater concentration at the lower end of that category. For the lowest open-ended class, the income level of all households was set at 80% of the upper class boundary for that category, or \$80, while for the highest open-ended class it was set at 160% of the lower class limit, or \$1600. Second, for each household, this estimated mean household income was divided by 30 to obtain household income per day and then by the number of persons living in the households at the time of the survey, to estimate income per capita per day in US dollars.

The results are presented in *table 4.2*. It is evident that refugee and mixed households are poorer than the other households comprising only non-refugees. The percentages living in *extreme poverty*, with less than \$1 per person per day, are 50 and 58 for refugee households and mixed households, compared to 36% for non-refugee households. All these figures are far higher than the estimate provided in the statement of Ecuador's MDGs, which was 15.5% for 1999. Furthermore, another quarter of all the households in each of the three categories of households declared their household incomes to be the equivalent of one to two dollars per day, resulting in the overall poverty percentages of 75, 84 and 61 percent, respectively, for refugee, mixed and non-refugee households. Only 11 households had incomes over \$4 per day per person, according to the survey.

The income per capita data were also tabulated for urban and rural areas (not shown here) to determine the extent of poverty and extreme poverty by area and whether the refugee-non-refugee differentials persist in both areas. The data show that, overall for Colombian immigrants, extreme poverty is 51% in rural

Table 4.2. Income level and poverty status of refugees/asylum seeker, mixed and non-refugee households

rejugee nousenous											
Income per person per day in US dollars	Refugees/asylum seekers		Mixed		Non-r	efugees	Total				
	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases			
Less than \$1	49.6	61	57.6	57	36.5	101	43.9	219			
\$ 1-1.99	25.2	31	26.3	26	24.5	68	25.1	125			
\$ 2-3.99	17.1	21	15.2	15	22.4	62	19.6	98			
\$4 or more	8.1	10	1.0	1	16.6	46	11.4	57			
Total cases	100	123	100	99	100	277	100	499			

areas compared to 34% in urban areas, while overall poverty (under \$2 per capita per day) is 74% and 61%, respectively. The differences in the levels of poverty of refugees and others observed above are also found in both urban and rural areas. Within urban areas, extreme poverty is 38% among refugee households, 51% among the larger mixed households and only 28% among non-refugee households. Among rural households of Colombian immigrants, extreme poverty is 58% overall, being 61% in refugee and mixed households and 43% for other households. Thus, we conclude that poverty levels are consistently higher for refugee/asylum seeker households than non-refugee households in both urban and rural areas.

The results of the survey indicate that, on the whole, refugees have lower household incomes and higher levels of income poverty than non-refugees. This overall finding regarding poverty differences will also be seen to be generally consistent with other quality of life indicators presented in later chapters of this monograph, providing mutual support for the findings. Although the income data cannot be considered accurate, they do suggest a far higher incidence of poverty among Colombian migrants than to Ecuadorian citizens.⁵

More detailed data were collected in the survey on household expenditures, by type or category, but the results are not presented here due to lack of resources for the analysis.

4.2. Perceived poverty

One adult person in the household, in principle, the economic head, was also asked in the household questionnaire several questions regarding perceptions of the financial situation of the household (see *Cuestionario del Hogar*, in Annex III). *Table 4.3* shows that at least four out of five heads of refugee/asylum seeker and mixed households perceive the financial situation of the household as not adequate in the sense of meeting the household's basic needs. (The total number of cases of the three types of households is at the bottom of the three tables.) This contrasts with only about half of non-refugee Colombian households, representing a powerful indicator of the difference in perceived or subjective views of living standards of refugee and non-refugee households.

Table 4.4 shows, nevertheless, a similar sense of optimism among all three groups regarding expectations for improving their lives in the coming two years. Thus for both refugee/asylum seeker and other households, the percentages expecting things to get better are 35-37% while those expecting things to get worse are 14-15%. Not surprisingly, there is also considerable uncertainty, as about a third of all respondents are not sure enough to give an opinion. Still, given the difficult situation so many of the refugees find themselves in, such positive expectations may reflect a kind of Latin American optimism about the future, or at least an optimism among many refugees that things get better as they strive, being highly motivated as so many migrants are around the world, to find ways to improve their lives.

Table 4.5 provides further economic data on the perceived situation of the household, on its sense of 'relative deprivation', that is, on how the financial situation of the households compares with that of its neighbours. The data here are fully consistent with those in table 4.3 above, with half of the heads of refugee/asylum seeker and mixed households saying they are worse off than their neighbours, in contrast to less than a third of non-refugee household heads. Similarly, only 8% of the same two refugee groups feel they are better off than their neighbours, compared to 13% of other households. But this sense of relative deprivation contrasts with the sense of optimism and hope for the future, noted above.

Table 4.3. Adequacy of current economic situation of household of refugees/asylum seekers, mixed and others

Adequacy	Refugees/asylum seekers	Mixed Other		Total		
• •	% col.	% col.	% col.	% col.	Cases	
More than adequate	0.8	0.0	4.0	2.4	12	
Adequate	18.7	19.2	40.4	30.9	154	
Less than adequate	80.5	80.8	55.6	66.7	333	

Table 4.4. Expectations for economic situation of household in two years compared to

Expectation	Refugees/asylum seekers	Mixed	Other	Other Total	
	% col.	% col.	% col.	% col.	Cases
Better	37.4	34.3	34.7	35.3	176
Same	10.6	19.2	20.2	17.6	88
Worse	14.6	20.2	14.4	15.6	78
Not sure	37.4	26.3	30.7	31.5	157

Table 4.5. Comparison of economic situation of household with that of neighbors

Comparison	Refugees/asylum seekers	Mixed	Other	Total		
	% col.	% col.	% col.	% col.	Cases	
Much better	1.6	0.0	2.5	1.8	9	
Somewhat better	6.6	8.1	10.1	8.9	44	
Same	41.0	45.5	55.1	49.7	247	
Somewhat worse	36.9	35.4	26.8	31.0	154	
Much worse	13.9	11.1	5.4	8.7	43	
Total	123	99	277	499	499	

This provides encouragement for developing policies in Ecuador that increase the capacity of refugees and asylum seekers, if not of other Colombian migrants who are in Ecuador for the long-term to seek out and implement ways to improve their lives. The vast majority do not need nor seek to remain classified as refugees.

4.3. Food security

There is more than ample food available in Ecuador for the population, based on domestic production plus imports minus exports of food, but many people are too poor to buy sufficient food to meet their needs. This is especially true in rural areas where poverty is so high. Food security in rural areas is primarily determined by the ownership of adequate (quantity and quality of) land, the distribution of which we have noted is highly inegalitarian in Ecuador, with many rural families having little or no land. In urban areas, food security depends on having sufficient income to purchase the needed food, whether income from work, business, savings, or remittances. Work income in turn depends to a large degree on a person's occupation and sector of employment, which in turn are partly a function of education.

According to the World Bank and the UN Food and Agricultural Organisation, the numbers of poor and food insecure vary with the criteria used, but nevertheless remain considerable in the developing world, with global estimates of 800 million to 1 billion. Many households in Ecuador and elsewhere are exposed to seasonal fluctuations in food availability (especially in rural areas), occurrences of ill health, accidents or robberies and interruptions in income from informal sector activities or losing a formal-sector job, any of which can seriously increase their vulnerability to transient poverty. This can in turn have dramatic effects on pushing them permanently below the poverty line. Since many households have no recourse to sufficient assistance from external sources, they have to sell off what assets they have, such as their cow or pigs, their small plot of land, or their modest business capital. At minimum, households in such temporary crisis situations need supplementary food assistance to maintain an adequate level of nutrition.

The survey in Ecuador does not have any *direct* data measuring the nutritional status of the Colombian immigrant population, not even of children, as, for example, was collected in ENDEMAIN in 2004. Thus resources were not sufficient to collect the weight, height and or upper arm skin-fold to assess nutritional status. As a consequence, the most relevant data obtained in the survey are on food consumption. *Table 4.6* and *table 4.7* provide the available data, which can be used to infer the extent of hunger of the population of refugees/asylum seekers and other Colombian migrants in Ecuador. Table 4.6 shows some slightly greater vulnerability of refugee households compared to

Table 4.6. Meals consumed per day by refugee/asylum seeker, mixed and other households

Number of meals	Refugees/asylum seekers	Mixed	Other	Total	
	% col.	% col.	% col.	% col.	Cases
One	8.1	4.0	6.2	6.2	12
Two	26.0	26.3	23.2	24.5	154
Three or more	65.9	69.7	70.7	69.3	333

Table 4.7. Ability of the household to obtain sufficient food for household members: refugee/asylum seeker, mixed and other households

Sufficiency	Refugees/asylum seekers	Mixed	Other	Total	
	% col.	% col.	% col.	% col.	Cases
Normally sufficient	19.5	23.2	36.8	29.8	176
Sometimes insufficient	40.7	39.4	40.4	40.3	88
Many times insufficient	28.5	28.3	15.2	21.0	78
Never sufficient	11.4	9.1	7.6	8.8	157
Total	123	99	277	499	499

non-refugee households, with the percentages of the former having only one or at most two meals per day in the day before the interview being 8 and 34, respectively, in contrast to 6 and 29 for non-refugees. Asking about the number of meals consumed "yesterday" apparently reflects normal conditions adequately, since the results were similar when respondents were asked about the *usual* number of meals consumed per day.

Table 4.7 on the perceived adequacy of food availability reveals much greater differences between refugee/asylum seeker, mixed and other Colombian households. The data indicate that only in about one of five refugee or mixed households is there usually enough food available for its members, in contrast to 37% for other households — the latter being twice the figure of refugee households. Similarly, among both refugee and mixed households 2 in 5 often or always do not have enough food, compared to half that in non-refugee households. These are powerful differences, indicating serious food security problems of refugees/asylum seeker and mixed households, in contravention to the MDG goal 1.

To summarize this key chapter pertaining to the overriding Millennium Development Goal 1 relating to reducing poverty and hunger, first, 44% of all survey households of Colombian migrants report living on less than one US dollar per person per day and 69% on less than \$2 per day. The percentages are higher for refugees/asylum seeker and mixed households, with exactly half of all refugee households living in extreme poverty and three-quarters in poverty. Subjective poverty data are similar, with 80% of refugees describing their economic situation as less than adequate; and half of both refugee/asylum seeker and mixed households perceive themselves as poorer than their neighbours, while only 8% see themselves as better off. Thus subjective poverty, which can be the most painful, is also high for many of those households and higher than for non-refugee households. Finally, data on the perceived adequacy of food supplies in the household indicate considerably more hunger in refugee households. Nevertheless, despite all their problems, it is striking that far more heads of refugee, mixed, and other households expect their economic situation to improve than worsen in the future.

5. Improve education

Several MDG indicators aim at monitoring progress towards the goal of achieving universal primary education in all countries. Ecuador has adapted this goal to include 10 years of "basic education", with kindergarten counting as the first year (Ecuador, 2005, Meta 3, with basic education guaranteed by Article 67 of the Constitution). After many years of great progress in building schools and increasing enrolment ratios in education literacy is high and access to basic education is virtually universal, for both boys and girls. Ecuador invested heavily in education during the 1970's and 1980's, especially in building primary schools and junior high schools (basic education, or "el ciclo básico") using its petroleum revenues, and indeed has higher enrolment rates of its primary school-age population than many other countries in Latin America which have higher per capita incomes and superior university education: thus, even the smallest community of a few families in the Andes or the Amazon is likely to have a primary school, albeit of poor quality. The quantitative expansion of educational facilities continues to this day, despite the substantial decline in fertility and therefore in the school-age population, which resulted in declines in both student-teacher and student-classroom ratios from about 27 and 30 in 1994 to 23 and 24 in 2000 (*ibid.*). Unfortunately, studies in many countries have found the quality of the teacher a far more important determinant of the quality of education and current expenditures on education and therefore teacher salaries have lagged behind, likely resulting in a decline in the quality of teaching. Cuts in social expenditures by the public sector, including on education and health, have been a significant consequence of the neoliberal economic policies and shrinkage in the public sector that occurred in the past 15-20 years. Public per capita expenditures on education declined from US \$60 in the early 1980s to US \$25 in the late 1990's and rose only slightly since then (Ecuador, 2005). As a result, Ecuador has been slipping in recent years in terms of achieving its educational goals.

Ecuador's MDGs pertaining to education are to (1) achieve 100% net matriculation in primary school by 2015, which compares to 89% in both 1995 and 2003 (no improvement); (2) achieve 100% net matriculation in basic education by 2015, compared to 77% in 1995; and (3) achieve 100% enrolment of those who begin primary school surviving to the fifth grade (compared to 76% in 1995 and 74% in 2002).

Despite concerns about the quality of basic education, the vast majority of children in Ecuador do attend school, although almost a quarter still do not finish basic education. Nearly as high matriculation rates are also characteristic of Colombia, from whence the migrants come, so people are very accustomed to have their children attend school in both countries. School enrolment ratios have been high in both countries for both boys and girls for several decades. Therefore, any shortfall in school attendance of refugee children would be cause for concern.

Table 5.1 presents the data on school attendance for both refugee/asylum seeker children and other Colombian migrants. The data allow comparing reported school attendance of primary-school age children by single years of age and sex. We first examine the overall data in the right columns, noticing that 6- and 7year old refugee children are significantly less likely to be attending school than their non-refugee counterparts. However, this difference disappears for children aged 8-11. For boys, there is a difference in favour of refugees, as 80% of the refugee boys were attending school compared to 71% of the non-refugee boys. On the other hand, for girls the difference was in the opposite direction and larger, with overall attendance only 72% for refugee girls compared to 86% for other girls. Thus overall there is not much difference, though the proportion attending is slightly lower for refugee children. Why the differences by gender exist is not obvious, though one possibility is that girls are more likely to have to help with housework or care of younger siblings in refugee/asylum seeker households in lieu of attending school. Note this is the case in spite of refugee children having parents with slightly higher levels of education (as we shall observe below), who are likely to be more concerned than non-refugee parents about having their children in school.

Data for the two samples of Colombian migrant adults may be compared with those for Ecuadorian adults. Overall, from *table 5.2*, 31% of refugees and 41% of non-refugees aged 15+ have less than a complete primary level of education, while 58% and 68%, respectively, have no more than a primary education. The latter figures compare with a figure of 57% for Ecuador as a whole, according to computations based on data from the most recent census of population in 2001 (INEC, n.d.). However, the latter figure is for the population aged 5+, which should be corrected for purposes of comparison. This can be done as follows. First, about 20% of the population aged 5+ is children aged 5-14, most of which will have at most primary education. Thus if it is assumed that 80% of

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Table 5.1. School attendance of refugees/asylum seekers and other children, ages 6-11, by sex

	Refugees/asylum seeker children												
		Boys			Girls	Total refugee children							
Age	% attending	Cases	Total boys	% attending	Cases	Total girls	% attending	Cases					
6	58.3	7	12	64.3	9	14	61.5	26					
7	73.3	11	15	63.6	7	11	69.2	26					
8	88.9	16	18	100.0	5	5	91.3	23					
9	85.7	6	7	77.8	7	9	81.3	16					
10	84.6	11	13	61.5	8	13	73.1	26					
11	86.4	19	22	87.5	7	8	86.7	30					

	Other children												
		Boys			Girls	Total other children							
Age	% attending	Cases	Total boys	% attending	Cases Total girls		% attending	Cases					
6	60.0	3	5	85.7	12	14	78.9	19					
7	70.0	7	10	86.7	13	15	80.0	25					
8	100.0	4	4	87.5	7	8	91.7	12					
9	83.3	10	12	80.0	4	5	82.4	17					
10	45.5	5	11	88.9	8	9	65.0	20					
11	77.8	7	9	83.3	5	6	80.0	15					

this population has at most a primary education (meaning has not started secondary education), then taking them out from the national census data would lead to a national estimate of about 51% for the percent of the Ecuadorian population aged 15+ with a primary education or less. This is considerably *lower* than the figures for Colombians above, indicating that Colombian migrants, both refugees and others, have a somewhat *lower* level of completed education than Ecuadorians, though this disadvantage is greater for non-refugees.

From the survey data, it is unfortunately not possible to compute the proportion of pupils starting grade one who reach grade five (indicator 3 of MDG 3), nor is it possible to derive results from the survey that can be compared with the other

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			Table 5.	2. Level oj	f education	by refuge	e/asylum si	tatus, sex	and age				
	Refugees/asylum seekers												
Sex/age group	Incomplete primary		Complete primary		second	Incomplete secondary/ vocational		Complete secondary		rior	Total		
	Row %	Cases	Row %	Cases	Row %	Cases	Row %	Cases	Row %	Cases	Sum row %	Cases	
Men	28.2	50	28.8	51	19.2	34	19.2	34	4.5	8	100	177	
Women	32.7	72	25.9	57	18.6	41	20.5	45	2.3	5	100	220	
15-24	18.8	24	29.7	38	17.2	22	32	41	2.3	3	100	128	
25-29	26.8	15	21.4	12	32.1	18	14.3	8	5.4	3	100	56	
30-34	41.1	23	26.8	15	14.3	8	14.3	8	3.6	2	100	56	
35-39	29.3	17	32.8	19	15.5	9	19	11	3.4	2	100	58	
40-44	31.4	11	28.6	10	22.9	8	14.3	5	2.9	1	100	35	
45-49	42.3	11	26.9	7	15.4	4	11.5	3	3.8	1	100	26	
50-54	66.7	8	8.3	1	16.7	2	8.3	1			100	12	
55-59	46.7	7	20	3	20	3	6.7	1	6.7	1	100	15	
60-64	20	1	40	2	20	1	20	1			100	5	
65+	83.3	5	16.7	1							100	6	
15-24	18.8	24	29.7	38	17.2	22	32	41	2.3	3	100	128	
25+	36.4	98	26	70	19.7	53	14.1	38	3.7	10	100	269	
15+	30.7	122	27.2	108	18.9	75	19.9	79	3.3	13	100	397	

Table 5.2. (end)

		Others												
Sex/age group	Incomplete	e primary	Complete	primary	secono	mplete Complete ndary/ secondary ational		-		Superior				
	Row %	Cases	Row %	Cases	Row %	Cases	Row %	Cases	Row %	Cases	Sum row %	Cases		
Men	39.8	76	29.8	57	9.9	19	11.5	22	8.9	17	100	191		
Women	41.2	94	24.6	56	11.0	25	18.9	43	4.4	10	100	228		
15-24	31.2	48	37.0	57	11.0	17	18.8	29	1.9	3	100	154		
25-29	40.0	34	24.7	21	7.1	6	18.8	16	9.4	8	100	85		
30-34	42.3	22	17.3	9	19.2	10	11.5	6	9.6	5	100	52		
35-39	48.8	21	20.9	9	11.6	5	11.6	5	7.0	3	100	43		
40-44	45.5	15	21.2	7	12.1	4	12.1	4	9.1	3	100	33		
45-49	52.0	13	36.0	9			4.0	1	8.0	2	100	25		
50-54	45.5	5			9.1	1	27.3	3	18.2	2	100	11		
55-59	75.0	6					12.5	1	12.5	1	100	8		
60-64	66.7	2			33.3	1					100	3		
65+	80.0	4	20.0	1							100	5		
15-24	31.2	48	37.0	57	11.0	17	18.8	29	1.9	3	100	154		
25+	46	122	21.1	56	10.2	27	13.6	36	9.1	24	100	265		
15+	40.6	170	27	113	10.5	44	15.5	65	6.4	27	100	419		

two MDG indicators. However, table 5.2 provides detailed data on education levels attained by the survey population that are also available for the population of Ecuador from censuses and other surveys. Complete data are available from the survey on the school enrolment and educational attainment of all persons *under* age 15 in the household, data which are provided by the main care giver of the child. Such data are more reliable that the usual data obtained in household surveys or the census, which ares provided by the household head or other adult available in the household at the time of the interview. However, the survey here did not obtain educational attainment for *all* persons above age 15, but rather only for the respondents to the individual survey (Colombians aged 15 or more at the time of migrating to Ecuador since 2000). Still, the data for these persons should be of better quality than would be the case if they were taken from a household roster, since they are based on responses by the person herself/himself.

The data in table 5.2 facilitate comparisons of the patterns of educational attainment of refugees/asylum seekers and others over age 15 by age and gender. Since gender differences are the focus of the next chapter, the focus here is on differences between refugees and others. First, for men, the percentage with *low* education (primary completed or less) is higher for other migrants than refugees (70% vs. 57%), though the percentage with higher education (secondary completed or more) is also higher for non-refugees. For women, the same difference exists, with refugees having a smaller percentage with low education, though the difference is much less (59% vs. 66%) than for males.

Data on the different age groups indicate, of course, similar patterns overall, with refugees having slightly more education than non-refugees. But a closer look shows that this is mostly true for the younger cohorts and that differences in the 25+ age group are very small. For those 15-24, refugees have a much higher education distribution, with smaller percentages with incomplete primary (19% vs. 32%) or no more than primary (49% vs. 68%) and higher percentages with higher levels of education (34% vs. 21% with secondary completed or more). In fact, virtually all the overall difference in education levels between refugees and others is due to this large difference among those under age 25. Examination of other age group comparisons confirms this.

Overall, the MDG goal of achieving universal primary education is evidently far from being attained for refugees and non-refugees, and this is also the case for the country as a whole.

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Since virtually everyone in Ecuador and Colombia has basic literacy, and given the awkwardness of administering literacy tests to respondents in the field, literacy was not obtained directly in the Ecuador survey. However, it can be assumed that most people who do not finish at least three years of primary school are functionally illiterate. At the national level, according to the 2001 census of population, the percentage of the population aged 5+ that was not literate was 8.5 (INEC, n.d.), which is, however, not strictly comparable with data from the survey. But the census also has published data on school achievement by age and gender. Those data show that the percentage of males aged 15-24 who did not complete more than three years of primary education was 13.0, while the figure for females was 12.6. These figures are compared with data from the survey below.

Thus a special tabulation was prepared for the survey population, with the results presented in table 5.3. This shows the percentage of males and females who did not attain more than 3 years of primary education, who can generally be presumed functionally illiterate. This is a stricter criterion than that used usually in surveys and censuses to assess literacy, in which the respondent is simply asked whether he/she is literate, though a more accurate representation is obtained by asking the respondent to read something brought by the interviewer. For comparison of the survey populations with the Ecuadorian population as a whole, the survey data show that the overall proportions of male and female adults with low education is 31-32%, or higher than the 8.5% reported in the census, though the latter includes children aged 5-14 who are almost all literate. Evidently it is much better to therefore compare the results for the age group 15-24. Table 5.3 shows that 20.7% of the Colombian males aged 15-24 have not completed more than three years of primary education, while 16.6% of the survey females of that age also have not completed 4 or more years of school. These figures are higher than those for Ecuadorians, which are 13.0 and 12.6, based on the census data reported above. However, this should not in itself lead to the conclusion that these Colombians, including refugees, are disadvantaged in terms of access to education in Ecuador compared to Ecuadorians, since they all arrived at age 15 or higher and thus had virtually all completed their education (or not) in Colombia before coming to Ecuador. It should be recalled that the coverage of primary school education is not as comprehensive in Colombia as in Ecuador.

Table 5.3. Literacy status of refugees/asylum seekers and others, by sex, age

		7 7 0			, 0
Sex, age	Refugees/asylum seekers		Others		Total
	% illiterate	Cases	% illiterate	Cases	Cases
Males 15 +	29.5	200	33.1	205	405
Age 15-24	15.7	51	24.3	70	121
Age 25 +	34.2	149	37.8	135	284
Females 15 +	31.1	244	32.5	243	487
Age 15-24	12.7	79	20.0	90	169
Age 25 +	40.0	165	39.9	153	318
Total	30.4	444	32.8	448	892

Note: For definition of literacy/illiteracy used here, see text.

For purposes of comparing refugees and non-refugees, it is evident that the percentage with low education (and probably not functionally literate) is slightly *lower* overall for refugees/asylum seekers than for the other Colombians interviewed, with the advantage a bit more for males (29 vs. 33%) than females (31 vs. 32%). The overall difference for both sexes combined is 30.4 vs. 32.8%. For the age group 15-24, the differences are far greater for both sexes, with 15.7% of the male refugee/asylum seekers vs. 24.3% of other migrants having completed at most three years of primary education, while the corresponding figures for females are 12.7 and 20.0. On the other hand, there are no differences in this measure of education between refugees and non-refugees among the population aged 25 or more.

6. Promote gender equality and empower women

As we have seen, basic education is fairly complete in Ecuador and Colombia, so this is likely to be the case too for Colombian refugees and other migrants. Girls have been attending school as much as boys for some years, though differences exist at the university level, especially in the fields studied, as young men are still more likely to pursue practical and remunerative careers than young women. Table 5.1 above shows differences in school attendance of refugee vs. other boys and girls aged 6 to 11 from Colombia in early 2006. Among refugees, the attendance rate of girls was only 72% compared to 80.5% for boys, whereas the opposite difference holds for non-refugees, among whom 86% of the girls were attending school compared to 71% of the boys. Given the slightly greater overall attendance rates of girls than boys at primary school in Ecuador and the figures here for Colombian non-refugees, the data here suggest that refugee girls are disadvantaged in attending school due to their refugee status. Possible reasons for this are proffered above, including needing to care for younger siblings or to help with housework, but precise reasons for this cannot be determined from a quantitative survey. Qualitative data would be more helpful, such as in-depth interviews with parents and even with the children themselves.

Data from the survey on reasons for non-attendance at school indicate that the overwhelming reason in refugee households is lack of money, mentioned as the main reason by 52 of the 74 cases (70%) of non-attendance of children aged 5-14: This was by far the main reason given for non-attendance of both girls and boys. In non-refugee households, lack of money was also the most common reason, but not nearly so overwhelmingly — only for 21 of 53 cases (40%). The lack of legal papers or documents was also mentioned as a reason for non-attendance of children by refugees, both in survey responses and also in discussions interviewers had with respondents and other Colombians in survey communities. The results regarding lack of money suggest that assistance to refugee/asylum seeker households in the form of money, food, etc., could have significant additional benefits on facilitating refugee children to attend school more, especially girls.

Table 5.2 above provides other useful indicators of the levels of education by gender, of young persons 15-19 and 15-24 as well as of adults. Overall, female refugees have about the same levels of educational attainment as male refugees.

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Thus the percentages that have completed primary education are 67 and 72 for refugee women and men, respectively, while the percentages completing secondary education are 22.8 and 23.7. For non-refugees, the corresponding figures for women and men for primary education are 59 and 60, while they are 23.3 and 20.4 for secondary education. For the country as a whole, the percentages of females and males completing no more than primary education were 75.4 and 74.55 as reported in the census for 2001, for a male-female ratio of 0.99. Gender differences in education are thus minimal.

Other data in table 5.2 may also be compared with national level data for Ecuadorian women. The most comparable data are those for women of childbearing age from the latest 2004 national demographic and health survey (CEPAR, 2005). In that survey, 15% of women 15-49 had no education and 40% had completed primary or less. For refugee women, the percentage with no more than a primary school education is 59, while it is 56 for non-refugee women from Colombia. These figures indicate that migrant women from Colombia have less education than Ecuadorians. We have seen from the data discussed earlier that there are no significant overall differences in education by sex of refugee and non-refugee women compared to their male counterparts.

A final gender indicator mentioned in the international MDGs and in Ecuador's MDGs is the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. Data from chapter 10 below on employment show that among refugees, 239 women responded to the individual questionnaire, with 99 working (41.4%), of which all but one were working in non-agricultural activities. This means that 91% of women who worked and 37.7% of all refugee women were engaged in non-agricultural activities. For refugee men, 139 were working (71.6%), 85 or only 61.5% of those in non-agricultural activities, for an overall share of 43.8% in non-agricultural work. The ratio of women to men working in non-agricultural activities is thus 37.7/43.8 or 0.86. The female share of non agricultural work is actually slightly over half (51.4%) but this is partly due to the larger number of refugee women than men in the sample. The ratio 0.86 is thus more meaningful and implies a share of 43% of women in non-agricultural employment for refugee/asylum seeker women.

The corresponding figures for non-refugees women are 45.6% working, 60% of them in non-agricultural work, for an overall ratio of only 27.4% engaged in non-agricultural activities. Similarly, the figures for non-refugee Colombian males are 86% working, of those only 39% are in non-agricultural work, for an

overall share of 33.5% in non-agricultural activities. The female-male ratio of non-agricultural workers is this 27.4/33.5 or 0.82, implying a 41% share in non-agricultural work. In the country as a whole, women make up 39% of the total employment in non-agricultural activities, for an overall ratio of 0.64.

Thus the share of women in non-agricultural activities is slightly higher for refugees and other migrants from Colombia than the national average for Ecuador. This may be due to problems refugees have in getting work, since they usually have minimal connections and friendships in Ecuador. Thus the percentage of refugee men working is only 71.6 while it is 86 for the other Colombian migrants, the latter comparing favourably with the average for Ecuadorian males. The greater share of women in non-agricultural work among refugees may result from refugee men having more difficulties than refugee women in obtaining work, when compared to their non-refugee counterparts. Economic activities of the refugee and non-refugee populations are discussed in more detail in Chapter 10 where the focus is on refugee-non-refugee differences rather than on gender, as herein.

7. Improve maternal health and reduce child mortality

7.1. Maternal health

Measuring maternal mortality is difficult in the absence of comprehensive registration of both deaths and deaths and good data on causes of death. Such data exist for very few developing countries. Estimates for Ecuador indicate that maternal mortality has declined, but is still moderately high, with the MDG goal in Ecuador of reducing it to 29 in 2015 (Ecuador, 2005, p. 8). Thus, maternal mortality in Ecuador fell sharply from 117 per 100,000 live births in 1990-95, but has remained essentially constant in the range of 60 to 80 deaths per 100,000 births since then, and was 78 in 2003 (Ecuador, 2005). (However, the estimate from the 2004 ENDEMAIN survey was 107: See CEPAR, 2005). Unfortunately, the sample size of the survey here is far too small to provide meaningful data on maternal mortality.

The other MDG indicator for monitoring maternal health relates to the degree to which women receive the assistance of skilled health personnel during childbirth. Maternal and child health care in Ecuador exists through public sector hospitals and clinics (including Health Centers and Sub-centers), primarily of the Ministerio de Salud Pública and also from private sector hospitals and clinics and midwives. At the national level, 74% of women giving birth have the assistance of skilled health personnel at delivery (CEPAR, 2005).

In the case of Colombian migrants in Ecuador, the figures are presented in *table* 7.1. The percentages of births attended by different personnel are indicated, with the survey allowing for multiple responses. Thus a doctor usually attends a birth with a nurse and perhaps an obstetrics specialist, or a birth may take place in the woman's home attended by a midwife and a family member. Midwives are commonly used, especially in rural areas, and receive some training and are therefore considered to be trained. If a midwife attends a birth with a family member or other person, it is considered a birth with professional attendance at birth. However, if only a family member or other person or if no one attends the birth, it is a birth without professional attendance. Unfortunately, the surveys allowing for multiple responses results in the data of table 7.1, which can not be compared directly with other data, such as the CEPAR data cited above. The data in the table can only be interpreted to imply that a minimum of 83% and a

Table 7.1. Attendance at birth of refugee/asylum seekers and other women

Type of attendant	Refugees	•	Otl	her	Total		
	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	
Doctor	82.8	77	87.4	90	85.2	167	
Nurse	6.5	6	3.9	4	5.1	10	
Obstetrician	7.5	7	5.8	6	6.6	13	
Midwife	36.6	34	22.3	23	29.1	57	
Family member	9.7	9	14.6	15	12.2	24	
No one	0.0	0	6.8	7	3.6	7	
Other person	2.2	2	1.0 1		1.5	3	
Total	100	93	100	103	100	196	

Note: More than one type of attendant is possible.

maximum of 100% of refugee women received professional care at birth, with only the row "no one" being definitely a situation of no professional care. The true figure is likely to be close to 100%. This appears likely to be superior to the situation of non-refugee women, for whom professional attendance at birth was a minimum of 87% and a maximum of 93%. In both cases, it appears that Colombian women, both refugees and others, have managed to obtain adequate birth care in Ecuador, despite their undocumented status, and indeed, get better care than some Ecuadorian women. It is possible that ACNUR programs have helped make this possible, although the survey data do not provide data that would shed light on this.

7.2. Child health

This section presents findings on vaccination coverage, such as measles vaccination. These indicators contribute to the monitoring of MDG goal 5, which calls for a reduction in under-five mortality by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015. Ecuador is actually well on the way to achieving this goal, as under 5 mortality in 1990 was 66 (per 1000) which implies a goal to achieve 22 by 2015, whereas the level was 29 in 2000 (Ecuador, 2005). However, the size of the sample in our survey does not permit a reliable estimate of the levels of infant or child mortality of refugees or other Colombian immigrant children, or of the survivorship of births that occurred to refugee/asylum seeker and other Colombian migrant women subsequent to their arrival in Ecuador since January 1, 2000.

According to the schedule of vaccinations recommended by the Ministry of Public Health and following WHO recommendations, a child should have received a BCG vaccination to protect against tuberculosis right after birth; three doses of DPT to protect against Diphtheria, Pertussis and Tetanus before 6 months of age; three doses of polio vaccine starting at 3 months and completed by 12 months of age; and a measles vaccination at 12 months (see CEPAR, 2005, pp. 272-3). The latter is not consistent with the MDG indicator measuring measles vaccination as it focuses on a different age group: The MDG indicator is the proportion of children between birth and the first anniversary immunized against measles, i.e., the percentage of children under one year of age who have received at least one dose of measles vaccine. To cope with the above discrepancy, we report results for two age groups. Results must be interpreted with caution because of the small number of cases (N) involved.

Table 7.2 shows levels of immunization of children in refugee/asylum seeker and other households, for the four types of vaccinations. It is evident that there is very little difference in the vaccination coverage of refugee/asylum seeker children and other Colombian immigrant children, with 90 to 98% covered for each of the four vaccinations for both groups. Still, for each of the vaccinations, vaccination coverage of refugee children is slightly lower. The extent of coverage may be compared with that for Ecuador as a whole in 2004 as reported in the ENDEMAIN survey of CEPAR, which was 66, 97, 72 and 75. respectively, for measles, BCG, polio and DPT. However, the data are not entirely comparable since the ENDEMAIN data refer to children 12 to 23 months of age, whereas the age of children in our survey, since they refer to the last-born child if born in Ecuador, varies from a day up to six years (if the last birth of the woman occurred right after she came to Ecuador in January 2000). In any case, it does not appear that immigrant children are disadvantaged in comparison to Ecuadorian children with respect to vaccinations and indeed, are more likely to receive these important vaccinations.

Regarding the particular MDG indicator on *measles vaccination* coverage, among the last-born children (born since arrival in Ecuador and averaging 2-3 years of age at the time of the survey in early 2006), 90% of refugee children and 95% of other children had received a measles vaccination, compared to a national average of 66% (CEPAR, 2005).

Table 7.2. Immunization of last birth born in the period since arriving in Ecuador after January 1, 2000, refugee and other women (percentage vaccinated)

	Refugee/asylum	nen (per centage va	
Type of vaccination	seeker	Other	Total
Measles	90	95	92
BCG	93	98	95
Polio	93	95	94
DPT	91	93	92
Total children	57	41	98

Responses of 'not sure' (a maximum of 2 cases per vaccination) are taken as negative responses.

However, refugee children are slightly less likely to be vaccinated than non-refugee children.

7.3. Perceived health status

Certain data were collected relating to health status in the survey, but by no means comprehensive data, nor were blood nor urine samples taken, nor even anthropometric measurements, as noted above. Data presented earlier in this chapter only cover very limited measures of maternal and child health, albeit easily quantifiable and linked to explicit Millennium Development Goals. Further information relating to health is found in Chapter 8 below on knowledge of HIV/AIDS and on the incidence of fever and malaria and medication used in treatment. But since those data also provide indicators that are very narrow in topic coverage, it is useful to include here a more comprehensive measure, although subjective, of the health status of refugees/asylum seekers and other recent Colombian migrants in Ecuador.

Table 7.3 provides this data, on the perceived health status as reported by all male and female respondents to the individual questionnaire, pertaining to their own current health status at the time of interview in early 2006. The first question asks them to describe their current health in terms of excellent, good, average, poor and very bad. Data are presented here for urban and rural areas separately and for both together. We begin, as usual in this monograph, with the overall comparison of refugees and non-refugees and note that there is little overall difference, with 45% of refugees describing their health as good or excellent and 8% describing it as poor or very bad, in comparison with 43% and

				fugees/as	sylum seek	ers				Ot	Others				
			Ar	ea		T	m 1		Area				- 4 1	Total	
Question on hea	lth status	Ui	rban	Ri	ural	1	Total		rban	Rural		Total			
		% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases
	Excellent	12.2	9	8.2	10	9.7	19	13.3	10	8.9	10	10.7	20	10.2	39
How do you	Good	39.2	29	33.6	41	35.7	70	38.7	29	27.7	31	32.1	60	33.9	130
describe your	Average	41.9	31	49.2	60	46.4	91	38.7	29	55.4	62	48.7	91	47.5	182
current	Poor	4.1	3	7.4	9	6.1	12	8	6	8	9	8	15	7.0	27
health?	Very bad	2.7	2	1.6	2	2.0	4							1.0	4
	Don't know							1.3	1			0.5	1	0.3	1
Total		100	74	100	122	100	196	100	75	100	112	100	187	100	383
How does	Better	33.8	25	23.0	28	27.0	53	30.7	23	23.2	26	26.2	49	26.6	102
your health	Same	41.9	31	50.0	61	46.9	92	52.0	39	59.8	67	56.7	106	51.7	198
compare with that of others	Worse	16.2	12	15.6	19	15.8	31	12.0	9	11.6	13	11.8	22	13.8	53
of your age and sex?	Don't know	8.1	6	11.5	14	10.2	20	5.3	4	5.4	6	5.3	10	7.8	30
Total		100	74	100	122	100	196	100	75	100	112	100	187	100	383

8%, respectively, for non-refugees. While the only four cases describing their health as very bad are all refugees, this number is evidently too small to infer any meaningful difference.

In urban areas there is no identifiable difference either, but in rural areas 42% of refugees and 36.6% of non-refugees describe their health as good or excellent, while 9% and 8% describe it as poor or bad, respectively. This would indicate a slight differential in favour of refugees, but the difference is again minimal. Among both refugees and others, people living in urban areas see their health as being better than residents of rural areas. For refugees, the percentages seeing their health as good or excellent are 51 in urban areas compared to 42 in rural areas, while for non-refugees the percentages are 52 and 37, respectively.

Overall, there is no meaningful difference in perceived health status of refugees/asylum seekers and other Colombian migrants to Ecuador.

8. Combat HIV/AIDS and other diseases

This chapter presents findings relating to MDG 6 on detaining the spread of HIV/AIDS, reducing the incidence of malaria and other major diseases and increasing contraceptive prevalence including the use of condoms. However, the incidence of these illnesses is not measured well in Ecuador, so it has not quantified Millennium Development goals of its own. Still, each of these topics is discussed in the official Government publication on its MDGs (Ecuador, 2005), and widely in the media.

8.1. Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS

The percentage of people in Latin America infected with HIV has now surpassed 1% in some countries, led by Haiti but also including Guyana, Honduras and Guatemala. However, the incidence in Ecuador is still thought to be low, estimated officially at 25 per 100,000 (Ecuador, 2005), or 0.3% (UN, DESA [Department of Economic and Social Affairs], 2006 website, for 2003). These estimates are still much higher than the cases reported to the Ministry of Public Health, which nonetheless show a sharp increase, a tripling, of reported HIV/AIDS cases over the decade 1992-2002 from 2 to 6 per 100,000 population. UNAIDS reports on its 2006 website that the data for Ecuador are extremely unreliable and may be as low as 10 or as high as 3000 per 100,000 (unaids.org). Cases are likely to be underreported due to the strong social stigma in Ecuadorian society against HIV/AIDS and, indeed against homosexuality as well, which is widely considered linked to HIV/AIDS.

In fact, most reported cases in Ecuador are through sexual transmission, but data are not readily available on what proportions are associated with heterosexual or homosexual activity. In addition, 53% of infected persons are under age 30, according to Ecuador's MDG report (Ecuador, 2005).⁶ The MDG goal of Ecuador is to reduce the spread of HIV/AIDS, but no specific quantitative targets have been set.

Since over 53% of the population is under age 30, this would mean that HIV prevalence is actually greater among those over age 30. Studies on health and medical illnesses often misuse or misinterpret demographic data.

As HIV transmission in Ecuador is reportedly primarily through sexual activity, sound knowledge about HIV/AIDS is essential for the adoption of behaviours that reduce the risk of HIV transmission. It is thus of interest to determine the level of *comprehensive* knowledge and awareness of HIV/AIDS in a population, including regarding misconceptions about how it is transmitted. Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS is currently being assessed in most countries based on whether people interviewed give the correct responses to three basic survey questions about HIV/AIDS, plus whether they do not have the two most common misconceptions in the particular country. The three questions that are being used world-wide refer to the importance of limiting sex partners, using condoms and recognizing that healthy-looking people may still have HIV/AIDS. In the case of the Colombian migrants in Ecuador, the two most common misconceptions about how HIV/AIDS is spread are that it can be transmitted by mosquitoes and by kissing someone with HIV/AIDS. Thus in our survey population, comprehensive knowledge requires that a person knows that:

- 1. Reducing the number of sex partners, preferably to one faithful person, prevents transmission.
- 2. Consistent use of condoms helps to prevent transmission.
- 3. Even healthy looking persons may be infected with the HIV/AIDS virus.
- 4. Mosquito bites cannot transmit HIV.
- 5. Kissing someone with HIV/AIDS does not lead to infection.

The first three questions are being used in all countries worldwide, while the latter two are specific to our population of migrants from Colombia, and reflect two commonly held misconceptions in Ecuador about the transmission of HIV/AIDS. The rate of comprehensive knowledge is the proportion of respondents that correctly answered all five questions. The questions about misconceptions are important because correct knowledge about how HIV is not transmitted is as important as correct knowledge about true modes of transmission. Beliefs that HIV is transmitted by mosquitoes or kissing can weaken motivations to adopt safe sexual behaviours, and the stigma about kissing in particular reinforces the social stigma faced by people living with AIDS. The 'comprehensive knowledge' rate is a particularly useful indicator in countries where knowledge about HIV/AIDS is weak, as in the case of Ecuador, because it can be measured over time to facilitate easy measurement of changes, hopefully improvements in knowledge. In Ecuador, there is widespread knowledge that HIV exists but many perceptions about HIV among the public are incorrect and based on ignorance or fear.

The percentages of *men* aged 15 to 54 giving the correct answers for each of the five questions above among refugees and non-refugees from Colombia, respectively, are as follows: (1) 84, 72; (2) 70, 67; (3) 87, 79; (4) 49, 39; and (5) 48, 42. In general, knowledge is highest with respect to question (3), knowing that someone who appears healthy may still have HIV/AIDS (also, though not shown, that blood transfusions can spread HIV/AIDS), followed by the fact that being faithful and using condoms helps avoid HIV/AIDS, but there are widespread myths that kissing and mosquito bites may spread it. It is notable that for every single question, refugees have more accurate knowledge than non-refugees, often substantially so.

For women, the results are different, with the percentages providing correct answers being virtually identical for refugee and other migrant women, as follows: (1) 73, 73; (2) 70, 69; (3) 80, 78; (4) 52, 48; and (5) 46, 45. Why there should be no difference among women versus a big difference between refugees and non-refugee men is not clear, though the overall levels of knowledge of men are slightly higher than those of women, especially of refugee men. Perhaps it is because the latter have had the most opportunity to attend classes and discussions that enhance the awareness of HIV/AIDS, more than women refugees or non-refugees (e.g., in programmes ongoing in Lago Agrio).

While the knowledge levels indicated by responses to individual questions are sometimes high, as with the first three questions being used worldwide to compare knowledge levels, when we estimate levels of *comprehensive* knowledge based on the requirement that the respondent provide correct answers to *all five* questions, we find knowledge levels are low. Thus *table 8.1* shows how refugees/asylum seekers compare to other migrants from Colombia in their comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS, by age group and sex.

For the migrant population as a whole, only 15% have comprehensive correct knowledge, this percent being only slightly higher for refugees (16% vs. 14% for other migrants). Gender differences are evident, with refugee men being the group with the highest level of overall knowledge but still at only 17%, compared to 14% for refugee women, 12% for non-refugee men and 16% for non-refugee women. Though the differences are small, it is curious that refugee men have greater comprehensive knowledge than other migrant men, while the reverse is true for women. Could this be because refugee women are the least

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Table 8.1. Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS by refugee status, sex and age group											
		Refug	ees/asylum s	eekers				Others			
4	Ма	les	Fem	ales	. T-4-1	Males		Females		T-4-1	Total
Age group	%	Cases	%	Cases	Total refugees	%	Cases	%	Cases	Total others	cases
	knowing	Cases	knowing	Cuses	rejugees	knowing	Cuses	knowing	Cases	omers	
15-19	16.7	24	13.5	37	61	4.3	23	17.6	34	57	118
20-34	20.0	50	16.0	94	144	13.3	98	14.6	109	207	351
35-54	15.2	66	12.9	70	136	12.8	47	17.9	56	103	239
15-24	15.4	39	13.0	69	108	8.3	60	16.0	75	135	243
25 +	17.8	101	15.2	132	233	13.9	108	16.1	124	232	465
Total	17.1	140	14.4	201	341	11.9	168	16.1	199	367	708

likely of the four groups to get out of the house, to get around, to get information? We do know from chapter 10 below that they are less likely to be employed and from Chapter 5 that young refugee girls are least likely to be attending school.

However, of particular interest in the context of the monitoring of MDG indicators (at the global level, as Ecuador has no explicit country goals, as noted above) are the results for the youthful age group 15-24. Unfortunately, their levels of correct comprehensive knowledge are lower than those of people aged 25+, the differences being greater among males than females. That is, among non-refugees, young women and women 25+ have the same levels of comprehensive knowledge (16%), in contrast to the situation among males, where young adults especially lag behind, with only 8% having comprehensive knowledge vs. 14% of men 25+. Among refugees, young males as well as young females trail their older counterparts by 2.2 to 2.4 percentage points in having comprehensive understanding. Other data not shown reveal that not only is 'kissing a person infected with AIDS' perceived as risky but that even sharing food with an AIDS-infected person is often considered dangerous. Such misperceptions are widespread, irrespective of age, sex and refugee status and not only indicate incorrect knowledge about HIV/AIDS but also lead to the stigmatization and social isolation of persons thought to be infected in Ecuador.

The results in the table provide information which should be of practical use to policy makers regarding HIV/AIDS information, education and communication programme needs, and show that the development of such programmes, or improving existing programmes, is needed in Ecuador, including for Colombian migrants. In this context, it is important to strengthen the existing joint program of the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), ACNUR and the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) in Sucumbios, where the incidence of HIV/AIDS may the be highest among the study provinces. This may be the case especially among refugees, given the extensive commercial sex trade in which young Colombian women are prominent in Lago Agrio and the wide-open, frontier nature of the society there.

8.2. Contraceptive prevalence and condom use

Contraceptive prevalence in Ecuador is fairly high and has been rising steadily over time as Ecuador continues to experience the demographic transition sweeping most of Latin America since the 1970's. According to the most recent

national demographic and health survey in Ecuador, almost three of every four women in union (of child-bearing age, 15 to 49) were using some method of fertility regulation in 2004 (CEPAR, 2005). Ecuador has had a series of high quality national demographic surveys, which document a steady increase in contraceptive prevalence from 34% in 1979 to 44% in 1987, 52% in 1989, 57% in 1994, 66% in 1999 and 72% in 2004. In all of these surveys, about four-fifths of the methods used have been modern methods (mainly, in decreasing order or prevalence, female sterilization, contraceptive pills, IUDs, injections and condoms). The main unreliable methods used are withdrawal and rhythm. There is very little use of male sterilization, female condoms, or abstinence in Ecuador.

Table 8.2 shows that just over half of the refugee and other Colombian migrant women of child-bearing age were current users at the time of the survey in 2006, with contraceptive prevalence rates of 56 and 52, respectively. The difference in contraceptive prevalence is small and this remains so if only modern methods are considered (49% and 47%, respectively). However, there are differences in particular methods used, with more use of sterilization among refugee women and more use of the pill and injections among non-refugees. Use of condoms relative to other methods is minimal, with only 3 of 70 or 4.3% of refugee women reporting it, compared to 4 of 77 or 5.2% of other women. In ENDEMAIN, condom usage was found to be 5.9% of method use at a national level, that is, about 6% of all women in union in Ecuador were using condoms in 2004. However, this is a case where condom use in the five study provinces is significantly different from the national average: The unweighted mean from ENDEMAIN for the five study provinces is 8.2%, which could result from residents in the five study provinces being more knowledgeable about the importance of using condoms either because HIV/AIDS is a greater concern in these provinces (e.g., Esmeraldas and Sucumbios) or because people are better educated and informed (e.g., Pichincha). In any case, the low use of condoms in

Where adequate data were readily available at the province level (viz., from the 2004 ENDEMAIN national demographic and health survey of CEPAR), we examined the extent to which data at the 5-province level differed from those for the country as a whole. These differences were examined for mostly housing conditions, including fuel used for cooking, type of water sources and sanitary facility, house ownership (secure tenure), whether house has computer and telephone, contraceptive prevalence and condom use, access to modern health personnel at birth and access to sufficient food. The *only two* indicators where the values differed for the five study provinces from the levels for the country as a whole by more than a trivial amount were (a) condom use and (b) fuel for cooking, examined in the next chapter.

Table 8.2. Current use of contraception of women 15-49 in union by method and refugee status

Method used ^a	Refugees	Others	Total using
Pill	8	12	20
IUD	16	17	33
Female sterilization	26	18	44
Injections	8	18	26
Condom (male)	3	4	7
Rhythm	9	6	15
Other method	0	2	2
Total using any method	70	77	147
Contraceptive prevalence	56.0	52.0	53.6
Total using modern method	61	69	130
Total non-users who know of some method	44	60	104
Total who know of no method	11	11	22
Total women in category	125	148	273

^a Several women reported using more than one method simultaneously. The most effective method is shown in the table, with the other methods not shown to avoid over counting use.

Ecuador is partly attributable to its association with men patronizing prostitutes (so couples in union rarely use them), to the widespread availability of other effective methods, and to the low level of HIV/AIDS. However, the rapid pace of increase in AIDS cases recently makes the use of condoms an issue of growing importance.

An important finding of the data presented in this section is the relatively low levels of use of contraceptives on the part of Colombian migrants in Ecuador, both refugees and others. Thus only slightly over half the women of child-bearing age in union currently use any method compared to nearly three-quarters of Ecuadorian women in union. This implies a clear need for women (and their partners) to have (1) greater access to information about how to regulate their fertility (almost 1 in 10 stated she does not know of *any* way to control pregnancies), as well as (2) access to methods to achieve fertility control. Such access is particularly limited in Sucumbios, which has only one family planning clinic (the only one in the whole Ecuadorian Amazon), a CEMOPLAF clinic in Lago Agrio. However, a more definitive statement requires examining fertility levels and differences among refugees and non-refugee Colombian migrant women in Ecuador along with their desires to have more children or not, which is beyond the scope of this monograph.

8.3. Fever and malaria

An important issue in many developing countries is the prevalence of malaria and other illnesses involving high fever and the extent to which people with those illnesses receive adequate treatment. The adequacy of treatment is measured by whether they receive modern medicine, which is taken to be acetaminophen, aspirin, quinine, chloroquine and fansidar. The first two are useful for treating fever and the rest for treating malaria. The source of data is a series of questions posed to each individual respondent aged 15+ about whether he/she had been ill with fever or malaria in the previous 15 days, whether any medicine was taken and whether it was modern medicine. If the respondent was the main care giver for a child, he/she was asked the same questions for every dependent aged 0 to 14 living in the household.

While the data tabulated here do not permit checking if the treatment corresponded to the generic illnesses causing fever or to malaria, they do permit developing an overall impression of the extent to which those suffering from fever or malaria are treated with modern medicine versus home remedies, such as teas made from herbs, which are common especially in rural Ecuador, or no treatment at all. In fact, the latter is common among rural Ecuadorian populations where malaria is endemic: people are so accustomed to occasional bouts of malaria that they ride it out, without any malaria medication. In the case of Ecuador, malaria is endemic throughout the Amazon and also in coastal areas, notably the province of Esmeraldas, included in this project. Thus in the present survey, malaria would be expected to be a common health problem among about half of the survey population—those living in Sucumbios, Esmeraldas and the Pacific coastal lowlands portion of Pichincha, around Santo Domingo de los Colorados. The tabulations here do not distinguish malaria and fever cases by province since that is beyond the scope of the project, but the data do allow gauging the significance and incidence of these types of symptoms/illnesses, to the extent retrospective reports from surveys can provide accurate information. Fevers are themselves such commonly reported illnesses and ill-specified, so it is not possible to assess their significance precisely. On the other hand, the short time reference of only 15 days should lead to fewer memory errors and permit computing better the degrees of prevalence of fever/malaria in the population compared to what would be possible with a longer time reference.

Table 8.3 presents the survey results for the population 15+ as reported by the respondent herself/himself. The overall incidence of fever/malaria is fairly high among the adult population, at 14.8%. However, of the 131 cases reported, only 7 were said to be malaria, or less than one percent. Nonetheless, that is almost certainly an underestimate since some cases go untreated, as noted above. Also, there was not a single case of malaria reported among the elderly, the (small) population aged 65 + and five of the seven cases of fever were among adult women, with only two among men. Only two cases of the seven were among refugees. While the elderly do not report having malaria, seven out of the total of 22 persons reporting having non-malarial fever were elderly, which is an incidence far greater than that of the population 15-64. The fact that the elderly may have more illnesses associated with fever is, of course, not surprising. Some of these may well have been malaria, something these surviving elderly may have been living with much of their lives, since malaria has a high incidence of recurrence.

The more pertinent issue for this report is whether refugees and asylum seekers suffer more from fever and malaria than non-refugees and whether refugees who are ill are as likely to receive modern medicines as non-refugees. In table 8.3, the overall incidence of malaria and fever among refugees aged 15 + is slightly higher at 15.6% than the incidence of 13.9% for non-refugees, though this difference is evidently not statistically significant. In fact, among males, non-refugees have a very slightly higher incidence, at 14.7%, compared to 13.2% for refugees. Among adult females, on the other hand, the incidence among refugees is higher, being 17.6% compared to 13.2% for non-refugees. Examining the data by gender within refugees and non-refugees reveals that among the former the incidence of illness is greater for women, while there is no gender difference among non-refugees.

Table 8.3 also shows the extent to which people who reported having fever or malaria obtained proper medication (bearing in mind the caveats above regarding the medication). The columns indicate the percentages of those who were ill that received such treatment, which is almost 70% for those reporting illnesses overall. Refugees, both men and women, were *more likely* to receive adequate treatment than non-refugees—75% vs. 61%. We do not know if this is

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Table	8.3. Incidence of	`malaria/fev	er and tre	eatment amo	ong adults, by ref	ugee status, ge	nder and	age group	
	Refugees/o	ısylum seeke	rs	T . 1			T . 1		
Sex, age	% with fever/malaria	% treated	Cases	Total refugees	% with fever/malaria	% treated	Cases	Total others	Total
Males 15 +	13.2	80.8	26	197	14.7	63.3	30	204	401
Age 15-64	12.5	79.2	24	191	14.1	64.3	28	199	390
Age 65 +	33.3	100	2	6	40.0	50.0	2	5	11
Females 15 +	17.6	72.1	43	244	14.3	59.4	32	243	487
Age 15-64	17.1	73.2	41	239	14.3	61.3	31	237	476
Age 65 +	40.0	50.0	2	5	6.7	0.0	1	6	11
Total	15.6	75.4	69	441	13.9	61.3	62	447	888

due to any assistance or consultation they received from ACNUR or other. For both refugees and non-refugees, women were slightly less likely to obtain treatment than men.

Although the numbers of observations are too small for drawing firm conclusions, there does appear some indication that illnesses involving fever are slightly more common among the elderly and among women refugees—perhaps the two most vulnerable groups—compared to male refugees and male and female non-refugees. However, refugees are also more likely to obtain adequate medication, so it is hard to conclude that they are overall disadvantaged with respect to fever and treatment received.

The data discussed above are for adults, for whom fever and malaria are not common. Among children aged 0-14, however, the situation is different, with overall incidence higher and nearly half of the cases of fever reported to be malaria. Thus among refugees, 45 of 217 boys or 20.7% were reported to have fever or malaria, compared to 31 of 191 cases or only 16.2% of the girls. Among non-refugees, the parallel figures were 31 of 160 or 19.4% for boys and 34 of 162 or 21.0% for girls. These levels of illness are quantitatively significant but indicate no consistent overall difference between refugees and others nor between boys and girls.

National-level data for comparison are not available, though the overall incidence of malaria in the country for adults and children together is stated to be 7.3 per 1000 in the write-up of the MDGs of Ecuador (Ecuador, 2005). The level of malaria in the other provinces of Ecuador not covered by the survey is doubtless *lower* than in the five survey provinces, where nearly 40% of the sample is from Sucumbios, where malaria is endemic. This renders comparison of survey results with national level data of dubious value.

9. Ensure environmental sustainability

The survey collected information that allows the estimation of a number of indicators for targets 9 to 11 of MDG 7, Ensure Environmental Sustainability. More specifically, (1) the percentage of the population using solid fuels, is included to monitor the goal of reversing the worldwide loss of environmental resources (indicator 29, target 9); (2) the proportion of the population in urban and rural areas with access to an improved water source and an adequate sanitation facility monitors progress in reducing the number of people without access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation (indicators 30 and 31, target 10); and (3) the proportion of households with access to secure tenure is sought to monitor the success of efforts to improve the lives of urban slum dwellers (indicator 32, target 11). The relevance of indicators (1) and (2) is self-evident. In the context of the present survey, we expand indicator (3) to refer to the *total* survey population. This can be a particularly useful indicator in the case of refugees and asylum seekers, who, in the present context, have fled from the violence in Colombia to Ecuador and have as one of their most fundamental needs access to shelter. We begin with this indicator of secure tenure below, and also examine one of the other indicators of housing quality in the survey, which may reveal important differences in refugee and non-refugee dwellings.

9.1. Access to secure tenure

Secure tenure refers to households that own or are purchasing their homes (such as via a mortgage with a bank), are renting privately, or are in public housing or sub-tenancy. Households without secure tenure include squatters (whether or not they pay rent), homeless persons and households with no formal rental agreement. The indicator is intended to provide an overview of the share of population that may be living in conditions of poverty which can be reflected in insecure housing tenancy. However, the survey only asked a single question, about whether the dwelling unit in which the household lives is *owned*. Other information about the security of tenancy, such as rental circumstances, was not covered. In any case, there is no specific MDG goal or target pertaining to tenancy security, though indicator 32 does refer to secure tenancy for urban slum dwellers. Ecuador also does not have an explicit goal regarding tenancy. At a national level, comparable data are not available from the 2001 census or the 2004 demographic survey, ENDEMAIN. According to the census, 67% of the national population owns its dwelling and another 23% rents, but it is not clear

what part of the renters may have precarious tenure nor what the situation is of the remaining 10% of the population (INEC, n.d.). CEPAR (2005) reports only that 17% rent.

Regarding the situation of the survey population of recent migrants from Colombia, overall only about 10% of the urban households and 25% of the rural households (see *table 9.1*, top panel) own their dwelling, indicating great tenure insecurity compared to the Ecuadorian population. However, this is to be expected since they have arrived only recently in Ecuador. Moreover, data on rental arrangements was not obtained: renting is common in urban areas. More important for the present study is the fact that there are vast differences in the percentages with secure tenancy among the three groups of households. In urban areas, only 2% of refugees/asylum seekers own their dwelling, compared to 4% of mixed households and 18% of non-refugee households. In rural areas, the differences are equally striking, with the three figures being 12%, 26% and 28%. Thus, secure tenancy depends powerfully on both whether one lives in rural or urban areas and whether one lives in a refugee household or not. This is not surprising as one would expect refugees to live in less secure housing conditions than non-refugees.

9.2. Material of floor

The quality of housing is reflected in a number of indicators, including the material of the roof, floor and walls; whether it has electricity; type of cooking facility and its location (whether outside or inside the house), type of fuel used; source and quality of water; and type of sanitary facility for dealing with human waste. These are generally among the easiest types of data to collect in household surveys and accordingly the survey did collect information about most of them. However, only a few of them are incorporated in the Millennium Development Goals, or in the MDGs of Ecuador, as noted below. Other factors affecting housing quality include locational factors relating to the quality and safety of the neighbourhood, access to transportation, access to schools and health facilities, noise and air pollution, risk of flooding, etc., but these are not specifically covered by the survey.

The quality of the structure is perhaps best indicated by the material of the floor, with dirt floors being not only dirty but facilitate all manner of creatures to invade the dwelling and interact directly with the inhabitants. We view treated

Table 9.1. Housing and living conditions of refugee/asylum seeker and mixed households, in urban and rural areas

		Refugee seel	/asylum	Mi	xed	Oti	her	Takal
Question asked and re	sponse categories	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Total
			%	%	%	%	%	cases
		col.	col.	col.	col.	col.	col.	
Is this dwelling the	Yes	2	12.3	4.2	26.1	18.2	27.8	82
property of someone in the household?	No	98	87.7	95.8	73.9	81.8	72.2	417
	Dirt	6	1.4	4.2				21
	Wood, untreated	16	43.8	20.8	41.3	18.2	44.4	170
What is the material	Wood, treated	14	6.8	12.5	8.7			50
of the floor?	Tile	14	6.8	25	8.7	18.2		45
	Cement	42	31.5	37.5	34.8	63.6	50	186
	Other	8	11.5		4.3		5.6	27
	Flush toilet connected to pipe	82	41.1	79.2	32.6	54.5	16.7	264
What type of	Flush toilet connected to well	12	24.7	8.3	32.6	9.1	44.4	101
sanitary facility does this household have?	Flush toilet connected to river	2	8.2	4.2	4.3	27.3		30
	Latrine		8.2		8.7		5.6	31
	No facility	4	17.8	8.3	21.7	9.1	33.3	73
Does the household	Yes	56.3	50	45.5	36.1	60	33.3	183
share the sanitary facility with others?	No	43.8	50	54.5	63.9	40	66.7	243
	Electricity	2			2.2	9.1		8
What kind of fuel	Gas	90	83.6	91.7	84.8	81.8	88.9	409
What kind of fuel does the family use	Fuelwood	2	12.3	4.2	10.9	9.1	11.1	53
for cooking?	Charcoal							2
joi coomig:	Other			4.2				1
	Does not cook	6	4.1		2.2			26
Total cases		50	73	35	64	125	152	499

wood, tile and cement floors as indicating good quality flooring. The data in the second panel of table 9.1 then indicate that 70, 75 and 82%, respectively, of refugee, mixed and other households have good quality floors in urban areas, while 46, 52 and 50%, respectively, have good floors in rural areas. There is thus a consistent and distinct ranking, with refugee households more likely to be living in low quality structures, in both urban and rural areas, compared to non-refugees.

9.3. Use of solid fuels

The use of solid fuels for heating and cooking in homes usually results in incomplete combustion of solid fuels and hence in the emission of hundreds of compounds, some of which may induce cancer and other health problems as well as being greenhouse gases that contribute to global climate change. The nature of the exposure to indoor air pollution and its consequences for health depends on the interactions between the source of pollution (fuel and stove type), its dispersion (housing structure and ventilation) and when household members are in the home. The type of fuel used in cooking has consistently been the most important predictor of this exposure. The proportion of the population using solid fuels refers to the population that relies on biomass (wood, charcoal, crop residues and dung) or coal as the primary source of energy for cooking and heating in the home. In Ecuador, dung, crop residues, charcoal and coal are hardly ever used, but fuel wood is still used in rural areas and small towns. Even so, many rural households use propane gas from small tanks to cook, but when the money/gas runs out, they resort to fuel wood and hence use both.

Table 9.1 (bottom panel) shows that, overall, 88% of the dwellings in which recent migrants from Colombia live cook with safe fuels, that is, gas and electricity, which is virtually the same as that for the country as a whole (89%), found by CEPAR in its ENDEMAIN survey in 2004. However, when the CEPAR data are tabulated for only the five study provinces, use of safe fuels by Ecuadorians does differ slightly from the national average, being 86%. Thus in the five study provinces 14% of Ecuadorians vs. 11% of Colombian migrants used environmentally risky fuels.

CEPAR also found the figures to be quite different in urban and rural dwellings, being 98% in the former and 76% in the latter. For households in the survey, the percentages cooking with safe fuels in urban and rural areas are 91% and 88%, which is slightly lower than the national average for urban dwellings but much

higher than the average for rural houses. Regarding the difference in urban areas, this may reflect partly the distribution of the sample of Colombian migrants in the survey (and perhaps of Colombians in Ecuador in general, though this survey cannot address that), since the survey here was probably implemented in urban neighbourhoods that are of lower socio-economic status than the national mean.

Comparing the data across the three types of households, we see that there is no difference at all for urban households and only trivial differences among rural dwellings, with the proportion using fuelwood or charcoal relative to that using electricity or gas only slightly higher for refugee/asylum seeker households. In any case, we can conclude that the use of environmentally risky fuels is quite low among Colombian immigrant households, does not differ appreciably between refugee and other households and is about the same for survey households as for Ecuadorian households.

9.4. Access to improved sanitation

The percentage of the urban and rural population with access to improved sanitation refers to the population with access to facilities that hygienically separate human excreta from human, animal and insect contact. According to the World Health Organization and the United Nations Children's Fund's Global Water Supply and Sanitation Assessment 2000 Report, facilities such as toilets with piped water disposal connections to public treatment plants or septic tanks, flush latrines or ventilated improved pit latrines (but not latrines requiring human removal of excreta) are considered adequate, provided they are used only by household members and not by the general public. While good sanitation is important for both urban and rural populations, the consequences of poor sanitation are greater in urban areas, where it is more difficult to avoid contact with waste when it is not properly disposed of. In Ecuador, the proportion of the population with adequate sanitary facilities in their households was 0.37 in 1990 and 0.45 in 2001, with the goal, according to target 10, to reach 0.69 by 2015 (Ecuador, 2005) This is evidently a very ambitious goal, which will be difficult to achieve and will not be achieved under present trends.

In the case of the survey population, in table 9.1, we consider flush toilets connected to pipes and wells (or septic tanks) as being adequate and assume that all latrines are not, since they cannot be distinguished in quality, even though some may be adequate. This means that, for urban areas, 94% of refugee

households, 88% of mixed households, but only 64% of other households have adequate sanitary facilities. For rural households, the same three percentages are 66, 65 and 61. Thus in both cases, the dwelling units in which refugees live have *better* sanitary facilities than those of the non-refugee Colombian population. Overall, 73% of the population has adequate sanitary facilities, which is much better than the situation for Ecuador as a whole (45%). It is not clear why this indicator, however, should provide results so different from those of the other measures on housing quality in this chapter.

9.5. Access to improved drinking water

This indicator monitors the access of people to improved water based on the assumption that improved sources are more likely to provide safe water. The drinking or other use of unsafe, unboiled water is a major direct cause of many illnesses and diseases in developing countries. The MDG goal of improving access to safe water refers to the percentage of the population with reasonable access to an adequate supply of safe water in their dwelling or within a convenient distance of their dwelling. Ecuador has an explicit MDG goal for increasing the provision of piped water from 61% of the population in 1990 to 80% by 2015 (Ecuador, 2005). Since Ecuador already attained a level of coverage of 77% at the time of the census of population and housing in 2001, this MD goal seems eminently achievable. In fact, according to the data from the ENDEMAIN survey, 88% already had access to reasonably safe water in 2004 (CEPAR, 2005), so the goal is already surpassed.

The population with sustainable access to an improved water source in urban and rural areas refers to those who have any of the following as the main sources of water for the household: indoor plumbing, with piped water to the building; piped water from a public tap outside the dwelling; and water from a pump or protected well, public or private. These sources by no means always provide safe water, but this is the international standard used. On the other hand, safe water is also sometimes available from springs, streams or rain water, but that is the exception, so those sources are routinely considered unsafe in these analyses. Finally, improved water sources here does *not* include vendor-provided water, bottled water, or water from tanker trucks, since those sources cannot be the "principal" sources of water for the dwelling. The questions used in the Ecuador survey do not allow unambiguously distinguishing safe and unsafe sources of water, but are sufficient based on the criteria discussed here and are essentially

the same as those used in the other NIDI study countries involved in this project as well as in other global studies and comparisons.

Table 9.2 presents the data from the survey, revealing that differences are quite small. In urban areas, virtually all refugee/asylum seeker, mixed and other households have access to improved water sources. However, this is not the case in rural areas, where one in five to one in four do not have access to good water, with little difference between the three categories of households, although a slightly higher percentage of refugee dwellings uses perhaps the lowest quality source of all, rivers and streams. Overall, there is no significant difference between refugee and other Colombian immigrant households in access to adequate water and no difference between their access and that of Ecuadorians. That is, the CEPAR survey in 2004 found 88% having adequate access to water at a national level, compared to about 99% urban, 77% rural and 88% overall in the Colombia study population.

Table 9.2. Principal source of water of household, by refugee status and urban-rural residence

	Refugees/asylum seekers		Mixed		Other		
Source	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%	Cases
	col.	col.	col.	col.	col.	col.	
Plumbing in the building	45.1	19.2	58.3	21.7	27.3	5.6	147
Pipes but outside building	52.9	37.0	37.5	28.3	54.5	27.8	211
Public well						5.6	6
Private well		21.9	4.2	23.9	18.2	38.9	63
River, stream, spring		13.7		10.9		11.1	43
Rainwater	2.0	8.2		15.2		11.1	28
Other							1
Total cases	50	73	35	64	125	152	499

10. Develop a global partnership for development

10.1. Employment and unemployment

The economic situation in Ecuador has not been favourable since the early 1980's, as noted in Section 1.2 above: economic growth has barely kept up with population growth, so per capita income has hardly changed in 20 years. One consequence is that unemployment continues to be moderately high at over 10% in the country as a whole during most of the past 25 years and poverty has increased. In relation to MDG number 8, indicator 16, Ecuador has a broad goal to improve employment conditions for its youth, aged 15-24, although it has not specified any quantitative goals or targets. In its statement of its MDGs, Ecuador notes the recent (2004) levels of youth unemployment as being 16.2% overall, including 12.9% for males but much higher for females, at 21.4% (Ecuador, 2004). At the same time, the national levels were (ILO, 2005) 8.6% overall (aged 10+), 6.6% for males and 11.4% for females. These figures were much better than the rates in 2003, which were 11.5% overall, 9.1% for males and 15.0% for females. It will also be instructive to compare labour force participation rates (LFPRs) of the survey population with those of the Ecuadorian population as a whole. The LFPRs were (in 2004) 81% for males 10+ and 54% for females 10+ (ILO, 2005). These figures are biased downward slightly in comparison with the results from the survey, which refer to the population 15+, since the ILO figures include persons aged 10-14 as well as 65+, both of which have lower LFPRs than those aged 15-64.

Comprehensive data on employment and unemployment are presented in Table 10.1 for refugees/asylum seekers and others. We begin with a comparison of unemployment rates, which are 23% for refugees and asylum seekers combined but less than half that, 11%, for other Colombian migrants. The unemployed are defined, based on the procedure recommended by economists, as those who report themselves as *both* (a) not working⁸ in the week before the survey and (b) looking for work. Strictly speaking, they should be actively doing something to look for work, though the survey did not make further inquiries to confirm that. The unemployed do not include those voluntarily not working, which includes

The project used a cut-off of working at least 4 hours in the previous week for someone to be considered working. Thus people working 3 hours were taken to be not working, while those working four or five hours were considered to be working.

those taking care of children or the house, studying and not also working, disabled or retired and those simply not interested in working. The overall unemployment rates by gender were 26 and 20% for female and male refugees, respectively, compared to 17 and 6% for the non-refugee female and male migrants from Colombia. Evidently, unemployment is thus *much higher* for refugees than for other migrants from Colombia (or for Ecuadorians, based on the figures presented above), and higher for females than males within each refugee-other category. It is interesting that the unemployment rate for male refugees is even higher than that for female non-refugees.

The data thus imply that refugee status is an even greater barrier to employment than being female. In the economics literature, it is often hypothesized but less commonly found that those receiving assistance in the form of money (such as from migrant remittances, money from government anti-poverty or other transfer programs, which have cropped up in most Latin American countries, including Ecuador in its *bonos de desarrollo humano*), food, etc., have less incentive to work and therefore drop out of the labour force, or, if working, work less. In the situation here, most refugees have received some form of assistance since arriving in Ecuador, in contrast to non-refugees, but as we shall see in Chapter 11 below, this assistance has been both small and temporary. It is therefore extremely unlikely to have led refugees to drop out of the labour force or to be unemployed more than non-refugees.

Before proceeding further, it is crucial here to recall for the discussion in this subsection of the monograph that the category refugees includes about half actual refugees, with most of the rest being asylum seekers (see Section 1.2 above, footnote 2). The former are legally allowed to work, though asylum seekers are not, yet must. So the figures for refugees on both LFPRs and unemployment rates, throughout this section, reflect the *combined* experience of refugees and asylum seekers. It is possible that the former have lower LFPRs because of the aid they received (making work less necessary) or higher LFPRs because they can legally work. Further analysis is necessary to clarify this. As elsewhere in this monograph, the category of "non-refugees" or "other Colombians" refers to those migrants who do not declare themselves as refugees, asylum seekers or rejected asylum seekers.

Next, we compare the aggregate employment figures in *table 10.1* for both sexes combined, across the two categories. The share of the total adult population aged 15 to 64 that is employed, or working, among refugees is only 57%, compared to 66% for non-refugees, indicating that refugees/asylum seekers are significantly less likely to be currently working and earning income. These figures appear much lower than the available national figures for Ecuador ("activity rates" or labour force participation rates, from the ILO source cited above), but labour force participation also includes those involuntarily not working, that is, the unemployed, discussed above. When the unemployed are included, the labour force participation rates (LFPRs) for refugees and others aged 15+ become 74% and 75% overall, which is probably slightly higher than the figures for Ecuador as a whole in 2004. In fact, it is safe to say that the LFPRs for the survey population are slightly higher than those of Ecuadorians, since they are biased downward by the sex-distribution of the survey population (the LFPRs of women are lower than those of men, discussed below), which is 55% female.

Higher LFPRs for migrants is in fact what is expected based on many studies of both internal and international migration, throughout the world, to have higher LFPRs than non-migrants. This has been attributed to their higher levels of motivation, though their greater *need* for income is also likely a factor in many situations, since they have to earn income to cover the costs of the move and settling in a new residence and community, at the same time as they usually have less access to local sources of support from the State or family members or friends, in contrast to citizens.

But it is also important to disaggregate these LFPR data by gender. When this is done, the LFPRs of refugee men and women are found to be very different —90% and 71%, respectively— as is also true for other Colombians interviewed, for whom they are 92% and 60%. These data suggest slightly higher levels of LFPRs for both populations of migrants compared to Ecuadorians, as expected, and a notably higher level for refugee women compared to either non-refugee women in the survey or Ecuadorian women. That is partly due to the high unemployment rates of refugee women, which indicates unsatisfied employment aspirations and hence an important opportunity to improve incomes of refugee households, to the extent refugees, especially women, could be assisted to find paid work.

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Sex and			I. Employment and unemployment of refugees/asylum seekers and others, by sex and age group Refugees/asylum seekers Others										
age group	Employed	Not employed	% employed	Unemployed	% unemployed	Total cases	Employed	Not employed	% employed	Unemployed	% unemployed	Total cases	Total
Males													
15-64	139	55	71.6	35	20.1	194	172	28	86.0	12	6.5	200	394
15-24	33	18	64.7	11	25.0	51	51	19	72.9	8	13.6	70	121
25 +	106	37	74.1	24	18.5	143	121	9	93.1	4	3.2	130	273
Females													
15-64	108	131	45.2	39	26.5	239	118	119	49.8	24	16.9	237	476
15-24	26	53	32.9	13	33.3	79	37	53	41.1	11	22.9	90	169
25 +	82	78	51.3	26	24.1	160	81	66	55.1	13	13.8	147	307
Total	247	186	57.0	74	23.1	433	290	147	66.4	36	11.0	437	870

Finally, table 10.1 lends itself to examining additional gender as well as age category differences in employment, within each category of refugees/asylum seekers and non-refugees. Overall, among the first combined grouping of refugees and asylum seekers, 72% of the men and 45% of the women were employed, while the figures for non-refugees are 86% and 50%. These gender differences between men and women are not atypical of Ecuador or Latin America in general. Looking at age differences, for both refugees and others, unemployment rates of young adults (age 15-24) are much higher than those of older adults and again are far higher for refugees: the rates are 25% and 33%, respectively, for young male and female refugees, in contrast to 14% and 23% for the other Colombians. These rates are also well above the levels for Ecuadorian youths, as spelled out in the document on MDGs, cited at the beginning of this chapter (Ecuador, 2005). It is noteworthy that unemployment rates of *male youths* are about the same as those of adult women over age 25 among both refugees and non-refugees.

Table 10.2 and table 10.3 provide further data on characteristics of the employed population of recent Colombians migrants in Ecuador. *Table 10.2* shows broad occupational groupings, with the higher status and better paid occupations in the top two, the categories of other employees, commerce (though this also includes some low status activities, such as street hawking) and factory work/artisans in the middle, and agricultural work and other untrained work at the bottom. Compared to non-refugees, refugees/asylum seekers who are employed are less involved in both high status (6% compared to 11%) and low status (51% vs. 65%) occupations, so no overall distinction is clear. This is observed for each sex.

Comparing male and female refugees, females are more likely to be in higher status occupations than males (9% vs. 3%) and slightly less likely to be in the two lower status occupational categories. However, there is a vast difference in the composition of employment *within* the latter, as most males are in agriculture and most females are "other untrained workers", which is mostly services, including working in restaurants and bars. Among the other Colombians, similar differences exist, though gender differences are generally smaller, viz., employment in agriculture is the most common for women as well as men.

Shapter 10

Table 10.2. Occupational distribution of refugees/asylum seekers and others, by sex, population aged 15 to 64

Type of work	Refug	ees/asylum s	eekers		Others		Total			
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total				
	% col.	% col.	% col.	% col.	% col.	% col.	% col.			
Managers, professionals	0.0	0.9	0.4	3.5	3.4	3.4	11			
Technical, office workers	2.9	8.3	5.3	5.8	8.5	6.9	34			
Other employees	5.0	20.4	11.7	5.2	12.7	8.3	53			
Commerce	11.5	13.9	12.6	7.0	4.2	5.9	49			
Agricultural worker	38.8	8.3	25.5	61.0	36.4	51.0	213			
Factory work, artisans	27.3	7.4	18.6	14.5	5.1	10.7	78			
Other untrained workers	14.4	40.7	25.9	2.9	29.7	13.8	106			
Total cases	139	105	244	172	118	290	534			

Table 10.3. Employment situation by refugee status, population aged 15 to 64

Economic sector / category of work	3 0	Refugee/asylum seeker		Other		Total	
category of work	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	
Economic sector							
Agriculture	21.5	53	52.1	151	38.0	204	
Industry	13.0	32	7.2	21	9.9	53	
Construction	8.9	22	4.5	13	6.5	35	
Commerce	24.7	61	11.0	32	17.3	93	
Services	32.0	79	25.2	73	28.3	152	
Category of work							
Employer	1.2	3	3.4	10	2.4	13	
Employee	36.0	89	50.7	147	43.6	237	
Casual worker without contract	35.2	87	34.1	99	34.7	189	
Family worker	15.4	38	8.6	25	11.9	65	
Street hawker	12.1	30	3.1	9	7.4	40	
Total	100	244	100	290	100	534	

For both categories of migrants from Colombia, there are substantial differences in the types of occupations of men and women, with other untrained workers, other employees and commerce (including selling in stores and markets and street-hawking) being the three most common occupational categories for women and agriculture and factory work the most common for men. Substantial differences also exist between refugees and other migrants, the largest being the substantial employment in agriculture of non-refugee women as well as men, in contrast to refugees. These data may indicate a greater access of non-refugees to agricultural jobs, perhaps because these agricultural employers pay substandard

wages and provide no benefits to Colombian workers (undocumented migrants face this all over the world) and fear they may not be able to get away with that with refugees: Thus they may feel, rightly or wrongly, that refugees have contact with the authorities (such as UHHCR or the State) and might report them. An alternative explanation could be that rural refugees that receive food or other aid have less incentive to work and eschew agricultural work. But based on the discussion above, this seems far-fetched. The data in the survey could permit further analysis of this issue, but that is beyond the scope of this monograph.

Further data on the employment situation of migrants from Colombia is found in table 10.3. Overall, by economic sector of employment, 38% are in agriculture, 28% in services and 17% in commerce. Consistent with the data in Table 10.2, non-refugees are employed far more in agriculture and less in all the non-agricultural categories. When this is considered together with the results above showing higher *rates* of employment and lower unemployment rates among non-refugees than refugees, the difference noted here may be considered attributable mainly to differentials in access to agricultural work. It is interesting that this cannot be attributed to differences in urban-rural residence, as the proportion of refugees living in urban areas (Table 2.4) is 41%, which differs little from the 45% figure for other migrants.

The second panel in table 10.3 indicates the *category of work*, showing very clear differences between refugees and others. Thus non-refugees work far more as employers and employees (54% in the two categories together vs. 37% for refugees), which is predominantly in the formal sector, characterized by generally higher wages and access to fringe benefits, while refugees work mainly in the three lower status categories, which involve more informal sector work, have low costs of entry or skill requirements and involve little capital. But employment in the informal sector tends to yield low net incomes and provides no fringe benefits, such as health insurance.

The differences in category of work in table 10.3 are striking and suggest that differences in the *quality* of employment are much greater than is evident from the data on economic sector or broad occupational category. They thus complement the data presented earlier in this section showing significantly higher levels of unemployment among refugees and asylum seekers, to paint a picture of economic activity showing significant differences between refugees/asylum seekers and other Colombian migrants, to the detriment of the economic welfare of refugees.

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10.2. Access to modern information and communication technologies

The survey collected information on indicators that monitor progress on the spread and use of new technologies in the society, with particular reference to information and communication technologies, notably: (1) access to telephones, both fixed and cellular (MDG 8, Target 18, indicator 47); and (2) access to and use of personal computers and internet (indicator 48).

These indicators are important because effective communication in the modern world is intimately tied to the current information age and globalization. Socioeconomic development depends on access to and use of this technology and therefore the infrastructure to support it and human capital training to apply it. Telephones and personal computers allow people to exchange experiences and learn from each other, as well as get access to information, enabling higher returns on investments in both human and physical capital. Information and communications technologies can also contribute to make governments more efficient as well as transparent, reducing corruption and leading to better governance. In addition, these technologies can help people even in remote rural areas find out about market conditions, weather, prices and transportation options so, that they can, for example, make it possible to choose more profitable agricultural commodities to produce and sell their products at fairer prices. Computers and the internet also overcome traditional barriers to access to information and even lack of access to books, journals and many other documents for education and acquisition of skills and technology online, opening the door wide to e-learning.

10.2.1. Access to telephones

For many years, people in Ecuador have had trouble obtaining telephones for their homes and offices, due to the inefficient government telephone monopoly and were put on long waiting lists for years. Some made special payments to move ahead of the queue. Therefore —as in many other developing countries—the arrival of cellular phones, even if excessively expensive to use per minute, has represented a major advance in people's ability to communicate quickly, so cell phones have swept the country. This has all occurred very recently. Access to cell phones was not even asked about in the last census of population in 2001 and Ecuador has no goals for cell phone coverage in its discussion of Goal 8, Target 18, indicator 47, where only fixed phones are mentioned. Thus it is noted that conventional, fixed telephone coverage of households was only 20% in

1995. No data were provided for a more recent year, nor was a goal set for 2015 (Ecuador, 2005).

In terms of cellular telephones, CEPAR found that already in 2004, 31% of all households in Ecuador had cell phones (40% in urban areas and even as high as 18% in rural areas). This was already virtually identical to the coverage of fixed telephones, which in 2004 was 32% nationally, being 45% in urban areas and 12% in rural areas (CEPAR, 2005). There is no doubt that by 2006 cell phone coverage has now significantly surpassed fixed telephone coverage.

The published data of CEPAR do not permit determining what percentage of households has *either* conventional or cellular telephones, just the percentages having each one. In the case of the present survey, *Table 10.4* shows that the coverage of conventional, fixed telephones of Colombian immigrant households is very low, with only 8.2% having one in the house overall. Telephone coverage is even lower for refugee and mixed households, at 4% and 3%, respectively, compared to 12% for other Colombian migrant households. And the latter is still well below the 32% figure for 2004 found in ENDEMAIN.

The data on access to cell phones are much more interesting and are presented for the survey population at the household level in table 10.4. The first thing to note is that the overall coverage of cell phones is 38%, or higher than the 31% figure found by CEPAR for Ecuadorians in 2004. Nonetheless, this does not mean that Colombian immigrants, including refugees, have greater access to cell phones than Ecuadorians, given the two year difference in data collection and the ongoing increase in cell phone usage. Rather it is likely that the two are quite similar. More germane to the focus of the present report is that the data in Table 10.4 show that for refugee/asylum seeker households, the prevalence of cell phone usage is actually slightly higher than it is for mixed or non-refugee households, being 41% for refugee households versus about 37% for the other two. When we look at the data for urban and rural areas, however, we see that this difference is entirely due to a significant differential in urban but not rural areas. Thus over half of the refugee households in urban areas have cell phones (56%), compared to 37% and 47% for mixed and non-refugee households, respectively. Perhaps these urban refugee households feel they need to be able to communicate quickly with each other and with others, due to feelings of insecurity and their own past exposure to violence. Thus those in refugee households who can afford it tend to get cell phones in urban areas. Phones are also useful, of course, in looking for work.

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Total UrbanRural Type of technology Refugees/asylum Refugees/asylum Refugees/asylum Mixed Other Total Mixed Other Total Mixed Other Total seekers seekers seekers Fixed telephone 4.1 11.9 8.2 3.1 Cell phone 56.0 37.1 47.2 47.6 30.1 37.5 28.3 30,8 40.7 37.4 36.8 37.9

1.4

8.5

0.0

0.7

4.4

0.7

6.6

0.8

11.8

2.9

n.a.

6.5

12.4

4.2 12.1

Table 10.4. Access to technology of households by refugee status and urban-rural residence (% that have)

5.7

13.6

24.0

9.0

20.6

0.0

17.3

Computer

Uses internet^a

^a Data are collected from individuals and hence are not available (n.a.) for Mixed.

It is interesting that refugees have somewhat higher overall levels of education and use of cell phones than the other migrants from Colombia and at the same time are much more likely to be unemployed or, if employed, to be in low-status occupations, resulting in lower household incomes. This may be associated with a higher level of unfulfilled aspirations and hence frustration among those in refugee households, which could be alleviated by facilitating their ability to get work. This is a matter to be returned to in considering the policy implications of this report, and is accordingly mentioned in the Executive Summary.

10.2.2. Access to personal computers and internet

Again, Ecuador does not have any explicit goals for either computers or internet usage by 2015 in its MDG report, but it does mention internet usage, noting the rapidly growing increase from being used by 0.3 persons per 1000 in 1998 to 14.5 per 1000, or about 1.5%, in 2004. Computers are a luxury that most low-income households can ill afford, least of all those who have had to flee, leaving their homes and most possessions behind. But in the modern world, computers are increasingly not just a luxury but a necessity, a necessity in the education of children and adults, in seeking work and in many kinds of work, as well as in communicating via the internet with family, friends and others in Ecuador, Colombia and globally. In the study of CEPAR, 11% of the households in Ecuador reported having a computer in 2004, 16% urban, 4% rural (and as high as 27% in Quito).

In the survey here on Colombian migrants, on the other hand, almost no refugee or mixed households reported having a computer, although 6.5% of non-refugee households had one. The overall coverage is 4%, or well below the 11% level for Ecuadorian households. It is not surprising that virtually all these computers are in urban households, with 6% of mixed and 14% of non-refugee households (the latter probably being about the same as the national average for Ecuador by 2006) having them. Overall, less than 1% of refugee households, 2% of mixed households and 6.5% of other households have computers.

The lack of access to computers is an area where refugee households are handicapped in terms of their ability to function and compete in modern society. Given the rapid pace of technological advance in computers and the ongoing replacement of computers with newer ones, it is an open question what happens to the older computers. Might it be possible for government agencies, NGOs and/or ACNUR to develop programmes to collect and recycle older computers

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being replaced by donating them to poorer households in Ecuador, including refugee households?

Of course, it is not necessary to actually have a computer in the home to have access to internet. Some people have access from their place of work and indeed most of Ecuador, not just in Quito, is blanketed with internet cafes, more than most countries of Latin America. And the cost of using a computer is generally \$1 per hour or less in the internet cafes. The last row in table 10.4 shows use of the internet, which was collected in the survey at the individual level, that is, from the individual questionnaire rather than the household questionnaire administered to the household head or proxy, and hence includes usage by the person at home or away from home. The data collected show that, overall, internet usage is about the same for the two types of persons, being 11.8% and 12.4%, respectively, for refugees/asylum seekers and other migrants. Usage is slightly higher for refugees than non-refugees in rural areas and lower in urban areas. Overall, usage is much higher in urban areas, at 20.6% vs. 6.6%, as is to be expected. The main conclusion from these data is that the lack of a computer in the home does not lead to any significant disadvantage in the use of the internet on the part of refugees/asylum seekers.

11. Vulnerability and coping behaviour

In Chapter 2, we described the main demographic characteristics of the survey population, comprising Colombian migrants coming to Ecuador since 2000, and noted that the vast majority are families with children with both parents present, though there are also many female headed households, especially among refugees. In the case of mixed households, migrants from Colombia may live with an Ecuadorian, with either the Colombian man or woman the de facto (economic) household head and the spouse being from the other country. In other cases, the Ecuadorian man or woman may be the head. Most Colombians continue to have some continuing contact with relatives staying behind in Colombia, but that contact is usually tenuous and only occasional. Survey results (not tabulated here) indicate that very few have ever received or are currently receiving assistance from family members or friends back in Colombia, nor are they sending any aid back home. The migration data (Chapter 3) indicate quite clearly that Ecuador is for all intents and purposes not only the current home of the vast majority of Colombian migrants but also their anticipated permanent home. It is therefore crucial to take into account the findings documented in the intervening chapters up to this present one, which show that refugee and mixed households are generally poor and live in substandard conditions (as do Ecuadorians) and appear to lack full access to the labour market and hence the possibility of supporting themselves and their families. In general, their living circumstances are inferior to those of nonrefugee migrants from Colombia.

This raises questions about what are their major problems, how do they attempt to cope with and address these problems, what assistance have they received and what assistance are they in need of. This final chapter uses results of the survey to address these key issues, which evidently have potentially major implications for policy.

11.1. Vulnerability

In the survey, all individuals aged 15+ responding to the individual-level interview were asked about what problems they were facing in their lives. Respondents were asked whether they had difficulties with any of the issues listed in *table 11.1*, that is, with respect to access to health care, education, security, work, voting in Ecuador, obtaining legal documents, etc. The question

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Table 11.1. Problems reported by respondents aged 15+ according to refugee/asylum status, by sex (percent reporting)										
Problem mentioned	Refi	ugee/asylum	seeker	Other				Total		
	Men	Women	Both	Men	Women	Both	Men	Women	Both	
A 1 1/1	21.1	07.2	sexes	22.7	24.0	sexes	267	26	sexes	
Access to health care	31.1	27.3	28.9	22.7	24.8	23.8	26.7	26	126	
Access to education	31.6	26.4	28.7	26.1	22.7	24.3	28.8	24.6	119	
Lack of security	17.4	16.1	16.7	16.7	10.7	13.5	17	13.4	65	
Access to work	59.5	63.2	61.6	36.9	39.7	38.4	47.8	51.4	249	
Lack of voting rights	57.1	47.1	51.5	57.1	54.1	55.5	57.1	50.6	245	
Obtaining legal documents	53.2	47.5	50	64.9	67.8	66.4	59.2	57.6	279	
Access to church	2.6	2.5	2.5	3.4	1.7	2.5	3.1	2.1	10	
Right to travel freely	33.7	34.3	34	56.7	52.9	54.6	45.5	43.6	211	
Lack of privacy in the home	21.6	23.1	22.5	17.7	16.9	17.3	19.6	20	97	
Total cases	190	242	432	203	242	445	393	484	877	

posed was not an open-ended question, in which the respondent would indicate his/her main problems *without* prompting, including which problem was most important. Instead, to simplify data processing, they were asked if they had problems with each item listed, one by one. This has the unfortunate disadvantage of making it too easy for respondents to indicate they have problems with everything even when it is not a particularly *important* problem for them. The advantage is that it ensures that each respondent is asked specifically about the same potential problems the household may face. Otherwise, the interviewee may neglect to mention some problem if it is not perceived as the most important one.

As in the previous chapter, it is important in this chapter as well to recognize that the category "refugees" as used in this monograph includes officially recognized refugees and asylum seekers who have applied for refugee status or say that they intend to apply, and those who have applied but have been rejected. The latter groups account for half the "refugee" category. Recognized refugees have received documents confirming their refugee status and can legally work in Ecuador, while neither is true for the other two groups.

The results are shown in *table 11.2*. If we look at the data in the right columns for Colombian migrants as a whole, we observe that four problems are mentioned most often and are *not* the ones that one would expect to be mentioned most in a survey, *especially* by refugees, such as food, shelter, health care, education, or even security. The four main concerns are *access to work*, *legal documents*, *voting rights and the right to travel* freely within Ecuador. It is interesting that each of these *except* access to work is mentioned even more by non-refugees than by refugees/asylum seekers. The responses indicate the commonality of these problems for *all* Colombian migrants living in Ecuador, most of whom do not have documents (except refugees) that permit them to legally live in Ecuador, nor do they have Ecuadorian citizenship (only 11 cases of 904 report being Ecuadorian citizens, perhaps via marriage to an Ecuadorian). The four problems cited thus pertain not only to refugees and asylum seekers but to all migrants from Colombia.

In fact, it is useful to compare the percentages reporting problems by refugee status, since one may consider the difference or *excess* in the degree to which the problem is mentioned by refugees compared to non-refugees (which implicitly treats the latter as the control group) as an indicator of the extent to which that problem is more important for refugees. Using this method, it is clear that the

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Table 11.2. Feelings of vulnerability living in Ecuador according to refugee status, by sex (percent responding as indicated)										
Question and response		Refugees/asylum seekers			Others			Totals		
		Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Do you feel safe living here?	No	10.6	10.4	10.5	7.9	8.8	8.4	9.2	9.6	9.4
Have you ever felt threatened?	Yes	12.2	12.4	12.3	4.9	5.0	5.0	8.4	8.7	8.6
Total cases		189	241	430	203	243	442	405	480	872

problem mentioned differentially by the largest percentage of refugees is access to work. Thus 62% of refugees mention this as a major problem, compared to 38% of non-refugees — a difference of 24%. There is nothing else close to this in the table.

At first glance, this appears surprising, given that recognized refugees have the legal right to work in Ecuador while the others do not. However, the others usually come to Ecuador to *work*, and came voluntarily; many likely had jobs waiting for them when they came.

The other problems mentioned more by refugees than non-refugees and the percentage point differences are as follows: lack of privacy, access to health care and access to education, all with an excess for refugees of about 5%; and lack of security, an excess of 4%. All of these are modest differences, and suggest that while refugees/asylum seekers may have greater perceived unmet needs and concerns with respect to each and could benefit from further assistance, they see their major problem as limited access to work (presumably this is mostly asylum seekers). If they could obtain such work, they could better address themselves the other needs mentioned, such as health care, education, privacy (getting a larger and better place to live in) and security. Increased security could come from living in a better neighbourhood, having legal papers, or moving further away from the border region, where FARC guerrillas often cross over into Ecuador). One reason many cannot get work, or better work, which also applies to non-refugees, is the lack of any document that entitles them to work (the pasado judicial, discussed in 1.2, costs \$60, which is beyond the means of many immigrants to buy). Thus their undocumented alien status appears to limit the ability of many Colombian migrants to find work and the jobs they do get they tend to be paid less than Ecuadorians.

Looking further at the problems mentioned by refugees and asylum seekers, they may be grouped in several clusters in order of the frequency of mention: first, access to work; second, lack of legal documents and voting rights; third, a restricted right to travel freely and limited access to health and education; and fourth, a lack of privacy or security. The only potential problem in the list that was not noted as a problem by significant percentages of the respondents is access to church. In fact, most people are involved in some church, attending at least once a month and many have received aid from a local church. When we look at gender differences in problems noted by refugees, we see that in general, men mention problems more than women, viz., access to health and education,

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legal documents and voting rights, security, etc. But it is interesting that it is women who mention more often the lack of good access to work, along with privacy in the dwelling. These data suggest that refugee women are not interested in just receiving handouts for themselves or their children but rather want to work to meet family needs.

Among non-refugees, gender differences are generally similar, again with more women than men mentioning access to work as a problem they face. But the overwhelming problem mentioned by non-refugees is the lack of access to legal documents that would permit them to live normally and travel freely in Ecuador. This is evidently an issue for the Government authorities of Ecuador (and Colombia), but not directly for UNHCR/ACNUR.

The next table, table 11.2, inquires about feelings of vulnerability or insecurity of Colombian migrants living in Ecuador. First, respondents were asked if they feel safe living in Ecuador. Fortunately, overall, nine of 10 respondents said they feel safe, though slightly more refugees/asylum seekers feel unsafe, 10.5% compared to 8.4% among non-refugees. It does seem extremely likely that these 10.5% are mostly asylum seekers, not refugees. Gender differences in feelings of vulnerability are inconsequential judging from the results in the table. The second question asked is whether the respondent ever felt threatened living in Ecuador. Here the differences are much greater between refugees and others, with over 12% of refugees and only 5% of the others reporting feeling threatened. If the 5% is taken to be a normal feeling relating to the threat of theft or assault, then it may be that the difference relates to the additional concern of refugees and asylum seekers about being pursued by either Ecuadorian authorities (refugees are known to the authorities, while the others are usually not) or by FARC. While we do not have direct information on the reasons, some further light is shed by the results in the next table.

Table 11.3 provides further details on the specific fears of Colombian men and women migrants. Again, the question was formulated in a way which unfortunately facilitates respondents mentioning problems more than may be accurate, since they were simply asked, "Do you have any fear of?" It is too easy, especially in Latin America where people aim to please as part of the culture, for people to respond positively, even if it is not a significant concern. No attempt was made to determine which of the fears was *particularly* important. For example, the fear of being raped is mentioned by three quarters

Table 11.3. Fears or worries of refugees/asylum seekers and othesr, by gender (per cent reporting fear)

Type of fear	Refug	Refugees/asylum seekers			Other			Total		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	
Of being detained	54	55.6	54.9	56.7	61.6	59.3	55.4	58.6	57.2	
Of being beaten	60.1	66.3	63.6	55.7	63.5	59.9	57.8	64.9	61.7	
Of being robbed	69.7	77.2	73.9	62.1	72.3	67.6	65.7	74.7	70.7	
Of being raped	48.4	78	65.1	44.3	71.5	59.1	46.3	74.7	62	
Of being denounced	44.1	50.2	47.6	59.1	63.2	61.3	51.9	56.7	54.6	
Of being deported	56.4	54.8	55.5	70.4	74.4	72.6	63.7	64.6	64.2	
Of being pursued by armed groups	81.4	80.8	81.1	53.2	57.9	55.7	66.8	69.3	68.2	
Other	7.1	5.1	6	3.6	3	3.3	5.3	4.1	4.6	
Total	200	244	444	205	243	448	406	487	892	

Note: Number of cases is usually very slightly less than indicated in the column totals due to missing observations.

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of the women, but also by half the men, yet only 3% of the woman reported having been exposed to *any* form of unwanted sexual advances (including verbal ones) in the past 30 days, in a separate question in the survey.

Thus, every fear asked about was reported to be a concern by 55 to 71% of the survey population, with every one mentioned more by women than men but not by much more (except rape, where the difference was large). The fears expressed most are of being robbed or being pursued by armed groups (presumably from Colombia), with fears of being denounced (to the Ecuadorian authorities, presumably), detained or even deported lower but still mentioned by over half of the respondents.

Looking at the fears mentioned specifically by refugees/asylum seekers, the dominant one is being pursued by armed groups, followed by being robbed, beaten or raped. Women and men are equally concerned about being pursued by armed groups, as well as being deported or detained, but women are more concerned about being beaten or robbed and of course far more concerned about being raped. Non-refugees are also very concerned about all of the same matters, but are much less concerned about being pursued by armed groups (56% vs. 81%) and slightly less concerned about being robbed, beaten or raped. However, they are even more afraid of being denounced, detained and especially deported (73 vs. 56% have the latter fear). The latter is fully expected and reflects their concern about being discovered to be in Ecuador illegally, without papers, whereas refugees know they are already known to the Ecuadorian government authorities since they have to be approved by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to be officially recognized as refugees. Nevertheless, over half the refugee category also express a fear of being found and deported, most likely being asylum seekers.

Data from the last three tables indicate considerable fear and insecurity, with little difference by gender. It is notable that despite the fact that half of those in the "refugee" category are refugees, receiving both protection and assistance, the category as a whole has more precarious lives and lives with more fears than non-refugees. This is partly due to the category including half asylum seekers, but is also undoubtedly due to the different circumstances they encountered in Colombia prior to leaving, compared to those in the non-refugee category, *viz.*, the violence and often personal tragedies as well, that forced them to flee Colombia *involuntarily*, whereas the other migrants from Colombia migrated to Ecuador *voluntarily*. Some of the differences between the two categories of

Colombian migrants are smaller than expected, but related to the fact that the non-refugee Colombians living in Ecuador are doing so without documents and hence live with major concerns of being discovered and deported, just as the asylum seekers in the "refugee" category.

Overall, there are significant differences reported in problems faced by the two groups in their daily lives, with refugees/asylum seekers having greater concerns and unmet needs, regarding housing, health care, education and protection and security. Yet perhaps the largest difference between the two categories is the difference in access to work expressed by refugees and asylum seekers, in table 11.1.

11.2. Coping behaviour: Assistance from institutions

The survey included a number of questions, some specifically added for Ecuador, on the extent to which families felt they needed assistance of any type, whether they then actually sought aid and finally whether they received it. The reference period of some questions was the entire period since arrival in Ecuador, which could be days or up to 6 years prior to the date of interview in 2006, while other questions specifically asked about the 12 month period prior to the survey. The latter was the case, for instance, on whether the survey households had received assistance in the form of money or goods from relatives or others in either Ecuador or Colombia. While many did report receiving initial assistance upon arrival from persons, mostly in Ecuador and mostly other relatives or friends already there, this aid is apparently modest and only at the time of arrival. Thus few households report receiving any money or other assistance in the 12 months prior to the survey; and in the few cases mentioned, it was small and usually from siblings, not parents or children or friends.

At the same time, even fewer households sent any money or goods back to Colombia, even though some of the non-refugee households are doing fairly well in Ecuador and could perhaps afford to do so. This situation differs dramatically from the widespread custom of *other international migrants* from Colombia (and Ecuador) to send substantial remittances back to their home families, but these are migrants to *developed* countries where income levels are far higher than in Ecuador or Colombia, such as the United States, Spain and Canada. In the case of the Colombian migrants to Ecuador, the vast majority are whole families, whether refugees or not, so the children and parents are already

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together in Ecuador. Thus, there is often no one in close consanguinity left in Colombia to receive aid from nor to send money to, apart from aging grandparents or grown siblings who have their own families.

The discussion here thus focuses on assistance received by households from *institutions* in Ecuador since their arrival, whether days or up to six years prior to the interview. The lack of a specific time reference is unfortunate, as many households, mainly those with refugees, do report having received assistance since arrival, but we do not know *when* this assistance was received. Although not part of the survey, refugees mentioned in casual conversation that they had received help soon after arrival and sometimes throughout the first year after arrival, but that aid rarely continued beyond that time. Thus it seems likely that the vast majority of households in the survey, even those declaring themselves as refugees, were not receiving any assistance at the time of the survey.

In any case, the data on assistance received from institutions are found in *table 11.4* and *table 11.5*. The data in these tables are from the *household* interview, administered to the head of the household, or, when not available despite several attempts, to his/her proxy respondent. We know from the *individual* interviews, however, that those who had not received aid include families which have applied for asylum and report the application is in process, others that say they intend to apply, and still others who have applied and been turned down. Some of the latter intend to reapply. Those not receiving aid also include people who do not know it is possible to obtain help and others who feel it is too much trouble to apply or believe the aid received is not sufficient to justify the effort. Of course, many others know they do not qualify, but they are in the non-refugee category.

We first consider the results in table 11.4, for the refugee category of households. The table shows that three out of every four households in which all members are refugees or asylum seekers received assistance from some institution after arrival in Ecuador. Since only half of these are refugees, that means that some of those declaring themselves as asylum seekers and applying for refugee status also have received some assistance. Almost all of these households that received assistance, 92.5%, received it from UNHCR (known locally as ACNUR, from the Spanish translation of UNHCR). That is, of the total of 499 households with complete data from the survey, in 123 all members are refugees (or asylum seekers or rejected asylum seekers), while in the mixed

Table 11.4. Whether received assistance since arrival in Ecuador and source, by refugee status

Received aid from	Refugees/asylum seekers		Mixed ho	Mixed households		No refugees/asylum seekers		Total Households	
	Percent	Cases	Percent	Cases	Percent	Cases	Percent	Cases	
UNHCR(ACNUR)	92.3	84	96.6	56	61.5	8	91.4	148	
Church	19.8	18	12.1	7	15.4	2	16.7	27	
NGO	9.9	9	10.3	6	30.8	4	11.7	19	
Other	6.6	6	3.4	2	15.4	2	6.2	10	
Total receiving aid	74.0	91	58.6	58	4.7	13	32.5	162	
Received no aid	26.0	32	41.4	41	95.3	264	67.5	337	
Total	100	123	100	99	100	277	100	499	

Note: Can receive assistance from more than one type of institution

Table 11.5. Type of aid received by refugee status of household

Type of aid	Refugees/asylum seekers		Mixed		Other		Total	
received	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases	% col.	Cases
Housing	6.6	6	10.3	6	15.4	2	8.6	14
Food	90.1	82	87.9	51	84.6	11	88.9	144
Money	18.7	17	5.2	3	7.7	1	13.0	21
Education	18.7	17	17.2	10	38.5	5	19.8	32
Health	20.9	19	27.6	16	15.4	2	22.8	37
Clothing	5.5	5	6.9	4	7.7	1	6.2	10
Other	28.6	26	31.0	18	15.4	2	28.4	46
Total	74.0	91	58.6	58	4.7	13	32.5	162
No aid received	26.0	32	41.4	41	95.3	264	67.5	337
Total	100.0	123	100.0	99	100.0	277	100.0	499

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category comprising another 99 households, three-fifths are refugees/asylum seekers—see Chapter 2). Of the 123, 91 households or 74% received some help from one or more institutions, 84 from ACNUR, 18 from a church and nine from the Red Cross or other non-governmental organization. It should be noted that 32 of the 123 households classified here as refugee/asylum seeker households report receiving no assistance. These are likely households containing only asylum seekers or those whose application for asylum has been rejected.

The data for *mixed* households in table 11.4 are quite different, with only 59% having received any assistance, amounting to 58 families, of which 56 received help from ACNUR. Thus 41 mixed households report receiving no assistance. Some of these are situations in which someone came from Colombia, qualified as a refugee and then formed a union with an Ecuadorian. Should they continue to receive assistance in that case? Given the limited resources of ACNUR relative to needs, the answer would appear to be no. Others are refugees who gave birth to a child after arriving in Ecuador. It would seem that this should not disqualify them from assistance. Thus further analysis of the characteristics of these 41 could clarify the situation and needs of these households. Finally, others in the mixed category are asylum seekers, not (at least yet) recognized as refugees.

Indeed, a household-by-household analysis could be carried out — examining things such as household size, numbers of dependents, income per person per day, school attendance, health problems and lack of health care, unemployment and type of work if employed and housing conditions to determine who really needs assistance and who does not, and match the results with the data on who actually receives assistance, but that is beyond the scope of this report. In any case, the households are observed in early 2006, but most received assistance at some earlier time, when their situations were likely characterized by even more deprivation than that observed, sometimes after receiving assistance, at the time of interview.

One result that is particularly impressive in table 11.4 is how efficiently ACNUR has distributed its assistance among the three groups of households, as only 8 of the total of 148 households receiving assistance from ACNUR classify themselves as fully non-refugee households and hence presumably not needing

support.⁹ There is always some slippage in programs that provide assistance to people in any country, since some people provide false information, even with great passion and tears, to try to deceive and take advantage of the system. Unfortunately, it is beyond the scope of this report to determine the degree to which Colombian migrant households that truly need assistance actually received it, nor the extent to which those that do not need aid did not receive it. That would require further in-depth analysis. Nevertheless, the data here do provide a *prima facie* case to indicate a generally efficient and cost-effective allocation of resources to those most needing help, though there appear many more that need assistance as well.

Finally, the last table, table 11.5, shows the *kind of aid received* by all 162 households who report they received assistance from any kind of institution. By far the most common type of aid provided was food: The survey team had the opportunity to observe such a distribution first-hand in Quito at a church location where large food parcels were handed to people as part of the monthly distribution by ACNUR. Thus in the table, 144 of the 162 households who report receiving assistance from institutions received food (the data do not permit identifying the source, but it is mainly ACNUR). The next most common forms of aid were for health care and education. Among the refugee households category, 82 of 91 households receiving aid got food, followed by assistance with health care, education and cash. Among the mixed households, again most of those that received assistance received it in the form of food —51 of 58—followed by health care.

As a final item for reflection, of the 904 total individual respondents—Colombians who came to Ecuador at age 15 or over since 2000—11 report already being Ecuadorian citizens, 517 say they will seek citizenship, another 197 are not sure and only 120 say they will not. We saw in Chapter 3 that 143 persons intend to return to Colombia, but that the vast majority, about 70% of the total and 80% of the refugees and asylum seekers, intend to remain in Ecuador. Assuming there is no organized official effort to expel them, which would be unprecedented and expensive, then the vast majority of these migrants

Actually this could include cases in which the household head or proxy respondent misclassified someone living in the household as a non-refugee, though such errors in data/classification could have occasionally occurred in refugee and mixed households. Perhaps more likely is that the household head accurately declares all members to be non-refugees at the time of interview but the household had received some assistance at some earlier time after arrival, as refugees or not.

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from Colombia are in Ecuador to stay. This should be considered in developing policies for dealing with this growing population, in developing both (1) policies of assistance to those in need *in the short run*, which could extend beyond that provided by ACNUR currently, which is usually limited to those in need of protection and emergency assistance only for a short time after arrival; and (2) *long-run* policies to facilitate settlement and employment and hence normalization of their lives, for the vast majority who intend to remain in Ecuador, so they can better contribute to the development of the nation.

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Annex I

Design and implementation of sample survey

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Introduction and background

As is usually the case with international migrants, there was no adequate and upto-date sample frame available for selecting a nationally representative sample of recent migrants, in the present case, of Colombians who had come recently to live in Ecuador. UNHCR (ACNUR) has data on those who have registered for assistance, but this is a small minority of the total. The only potentially useful source of data for selecting a representative sample is therefore that of the most recent census of population, carried out on November 25, 2001. We therefore used this as the basis for creating a sample frame, the original plan being to select areas where it is thought recent migrants from Colombia would be concentrated at the time of the proposed survey, in early 2006, based on where recent migrants were living at the time of the 2001 census.

Thus the challenge of the sample design was to locate for interview Colombians who had recently come to live in Ecuador, both asylum seekers and others, who would be "rare elements" in the Ecuadorian population and therefore hard to locate. This required, from the outset, sampling methods appropriate for rare element, as described in sampling textbooks such as Kish (1965) and Kalton (1983) and elaborated and applied to collecting data on migrants in Bilsborrow et al (1984) for internal migration and Bilsborrow et al. (1997) for international migration. This involved two steps, first, those for selecting areas in which recent Colombian migrants were concentrated; and second, procedures for identifying and then successfully interviewing them. In the first step, sample areas would be stratified by the proportion of recent Colombian migrants in the population at the time (or of households containing such migrants, ideally) and then proportionate sampling would be applied to over sample areas with high proportions of Colombians. In the second step, two phase sampling would be used to first, list all households in sample areas according to their status as containing a recent Colombian migrant or not and then in the second phase, to interview a large proportion of the households containing Colombian migrants and a smaller proportion of those without such migrants.¹⁰

For the first step, census data were used to calculate the prevalence of Colombians who had arrived in the 5 year period prior to the 2001 census, which essentially refers to the period of calendar 1996 through 2001. Since the

This was done in the NIDI-supervised surveys of international migration in seven countries (see Schoorl et al., 1997; Groenewold and Bilsborrow, 2005).

major increase in the flux of Colombians coming to Ecuador resulting from the recent increase in violence began in 1999, our implicit and necessary, assumption, is that the flows of Colombians to Ecuador in the period 1996-2001 and their destinations within Ecuador, were similar to those that have occurred more recently, that is, in the six year period prior to the survey planned for early 2006 (which used the six year reference period of January 1, 2000 up to the date of the survey (we chose January 1, 2000, as the reference date since it should be as easy date to recall). Note that only two years, 2000 and 2001, are common for the reference periods of the census and the 2006 survey, so our approach assumed that the destinations of those arriving in 2002-2006 were similar to those chosen by those who arrived in 1996-1999.

Regarding the first step, the original sample design proposed was for a survey covering all the main areas of concentration of Colombians as determined from the 2001 census. This would have involved, first, selecting provinces based on the proportion of households with Colombians who had arrived since 1996 (that is, selecting them in accordance with that proportion, or over sampling provinces with high proportions of households containing recent migrants from Colombia). In subsequent sampling stages, cantons would be selected in the same fashion from provinces already sampled and finally parroquias, the smallest political-administrative jurisdictions in Ecuador would be selected. The goal was to interview both households with Colombians and a matched sample of non-Colombians in the same ultimate sample areas. Unfortunately, with recent inflation in the 1990's and following the conversion to the U.S. dollar in 1999, conducting surveys in Ecuador has become expensive, so the cost of such an undertaking was found to be too high. That led to the present proposal for a survey covering only the five main provinces of recent immigration, with no matched or control sample of Ecuadorians.

Given the low prevalence of recent Colombian migrants in Ecuador, according to the most recent census (less than one-fifth of one percent of the population), it was decided that the data collection based on interviewing recent Colombian migrants in selected sample areas would be followed by a supplementary *network* (*snowball or multiplicity sample* to increase the numbers of Colombian households and persons interviewed. Sirken defined multiplicity surveys as those in which "sample households report information about their own residents as well as about other persons who live elsewhere, such as relatives, friends or neighbours, as specified by a multiplicity rule adopted in the survey (Sirken, 1972, p. 257). That is, each person or household can report on other

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persons/households linked to it, referred to as its networks (Lohr, 1999, p. 402). People thus have more than one chance of being identified and included in the sample and indeed do not have equal chances of being identified. A common, desirable approach is to base the multiplicity rule on well-defined, close relatives, such as siblings, so that the chance of anyone being included depends on, e.g., the number of siblings the person has. That would allow computing the weights to use for the multiplicity-referenced persons and therefore preserve the quality of the sample as a probability sample.

Unfortunately, in the present case, it would also have led to high data clustering, since the experiences of siblings who came to Ecuador in the six year period prior to the survey in 2006 were doubtless closely linked, reducing the value of the data. It would also greatly reduce the number of additional Colombian immigrants found. Therefore, we chose to not use an explicit relationship rule, but instead allowed interviewees to report on any recent immigrant from Colombia they knew who lived nearby (see details below). The result is that the additional persons referenced constitute a snowball sample, whose probability of selection is not known, since it was not known how many of the other Colombians in the study areas knew them and therefore could have named them. Further discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of different kinds of network sampling, including multiplicity and snowball sampling, is evidently beyond the scope of this Annex and found in references cited at the end of this Annex, including Goodman (1961), Sirken (1970, 1972, 1988), Rothbart et al. (1982), Sudman (1985), Kalton and Anderson (1986), Kalton and Anderson (1986) and Kalsbeek (2003).

The fieldwork was carried out by the Centro de Estudios sobre Población y Desarrollo Social (CEPAR), the premier survey research organization in Ecuador. The sample and questionnaire were designed in November 2005 and interviewers and supervisors were recruited, trained and vaccinated in January, 2006. Then, following a pre-test of the questionnaire and household listing procedures (see below), fieldwork began in late January, 2006 and was completed in April, 2006. The rest of this Annex describes the sampling procedures used to select the sample in the five provinces, problems that arose and solutions adopted and the final sample. We also briefly describe the fieldwork.

Selection of initial sample

As noted above, for budgetary reasons it was not possible to undertake a survey representative of all 21 provinces of Ecuador but rather for only five provinces. However, choosing the five provinces with the highest *proportion* of recent migrants from Colombia based on the 2001 census data also resulted in our covering 86% of those migrants. Thus overall, the proportion of Colombians in Ecuador according to the census was only .00175, or less than one fifth of one percent. It is certain that this figure is a gross understatement, but there were no other data available for the whole country. The five provinces with the highest prevalence of Colombians were the two border provinces of Sucumbios (1.9% of its population being recent migrants from Colombia) and Carchi (1.2%) —the only two with over 1%— followed by Pichincha (0.363%), Imbabura (0.357%) and Esmeraldas (0.350%). The next two provinces were Orellana with 0.33% and Guayas with 0.09%, which were not included in the sample frame.

Fortunately, for the first time in Ecuador census data on the location of population on current, usual place of residence data were coded at a level below that of parroquias, at the level of the *census sector*. This made it possible to increase the chance of locating Colombian migrants by obtaining data on their prevalence at that lower level. INEC kindly provided CEPAR with data (by sex) from the 2001 census for each census sector in the five provinces on total population size, number of Colombians living there who had not lived there in 1996 and the percent of Colombians. To enhance our chances of encountering Colombian migrants, we excluded *a priori* all sectors with less than 3% recent Colombians from the sample frame. Examining the resulting frame made it clear that there were similar numbers of recent Colombian migrants in the urban and rural census sectors in the five provinces overall, with the urban dominated by Quito, the capital of the province of Pichincha and of the country and the only large city (over 300,000 people, having about 1.5 million in the census).

To further indicate the difficulty of locating the rare elements —that is, recent migrants from a single country, Colombia— it is useful to reflect upon the numbers of census sectors in each province compared to the numbers with over 3% recent Colombian migrants. In Pichincha, there were 5541 census sectors in the 2001 census, but only 82 or 1.5% had over 3% recent Colombians. At the other end was Sucumbios, with 58 of 368 sectors having over 3%, or 15.8%. Also having a large percentage of census sectors with over 3% was Carchi, with 56 of 437 or 12.8%. The other two provinces were similar to Pichincha in

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having very few sectors with over 3%: Imbabura had 13 of 880 or 1.5% and Esmeraldas had only 10 of 925, or 1.1%. Thus, the first problem in establishing a sample frame for recent migrants from Colombia was identifying where they were, that is, determining the census sectors where they were most prevalent, since they were so few. After that, the problem will be to identify and then interview them.

With the advantage of data available at the level of the census sector, it was possible to select a sample in only one stage, that is, the sample is a one-stage sample, with census sectors as the primary sampling units (PSUs). We created five strata, based on the prevalence (percentage) of the population being recent migrants from Colombia, according to the November 2001 census.¹¹ Thus the relative frequency or prevalence of recent migrants from Colombia according to the 2001 census is c(i)=C(i)/P(i), where C=number of recent Colombians, P=total census population and i is the geographic area, or census sector.

To select the sample, five strata were created, as follows: (1) all sectors with under 3% recent Colombian immigrants (the great majority of sectors); (2) sectors with 3% to 4.9%; (3) sectors with 5 to 9.9%; (4) sectors with 10% to 14.9%; and (5) sectors with more than 15% (2 cases, the highest being 18.3%, in Sucumbios). All sectors with less than 3%, that is, all sectors in stratum (1) were assigned a 0 probability of selection and were thereby *excluded* from the sample. The manner of selecting sectors from the remaining four strata required first listing all sectors with over 3% Colombians and assigning a number of digits according to the percentage in order to select PSUs in proportion to the percentage of recent Colombian migrants they had. Thus those in stratum (2) were each assigned one digit, those in (3) two digits, in (4) three digits and the two cases in stratum (5), four digits. The mean percentages of Colombians in the strata (2) to (5) are, respectively, close to 3.7, 7.4, 12.1, y 15.8%. Thus, apart from the exclusion of all sectors with less than 3% *a priori*, the sample is a self-weighting sample.¹²

However, there are several additional ways in modest weighting adjustments could be undertaken including that the proportion of the sectors with over 3% selected in Imbabura and Esmeraldas is higher than in the other three provinces and there should be adjustments for non-response ideally, which was particularly high in Quito (see below). But these are not major issues and are in any case beyond the scope of this report.

However, there are several additional ways in which modest weighting adjustments could be undertaken, including that the proportion of the sectors with over 3% selected in Imbabura and Esmeraldas is higher than in the other three provinces and there should be adjustments for non-response ideally, which was particularly high in Quito (see

Based on computations of field costs and the budget available, it was decided to draw a sample of 70 sectors, half urban and half rural, to ensure representativity of migrants from Colombia living in both urban and rural areas of Ecuador, as the census indicated about equal numbers in urban and rural areas (see table A.I.1). Once the digits were assigned and numbered in order separately for urban and rural census sectors, 13 systematic sampling with a random start was used to select an urban random sample of sectors and a rural random sample in each of the three sample provinces with large numbers of census sectors with over 3% Colombians (Sucumbios, Carchi and Pinchincha). In the other two smaller provinces, with small numbers of census sectors with over 3% Colombians according to the 2001 census, Esmeraldas and Imbabura, controlled selection (Goodman and Kish, 1950) was used to select a small number of sectors so as to ensure reasonable representation of large and small urban (U) areas and of rural (R) sectors in different areas of the province. The total number of census sectors with over 3% recent migrants from Colombia in 2001 is indicated in the left below, with the sample shown under Stage I (the Supplement is discussed later):

Table A.I.1. Sample distribution

	Census	Stage 1	Supplement
Sucumbios	19 U, 39 R	6 U, 13 R	3 U, 6 R
Carchi	13 U, 43 R	5 U, 13 R	2 U, 7 R
Pichincha	72 U, 10 R	19 U, 4 R	10 U, 1 R + 2
			R
Imbabura	10 U, 3 R	3 U, 2 R	2 U
Esmeraldas	4 U, 6 R	2 U, 3 R	1 U, 1 R
Total	118 U, 101 R	35 Y, 35 R	18 U, 17 R

below). But these are not major issues and are in any case beyond the scope of this report.

However, nine census sectors in Sucumbios were excluded *a priori* due to their being thought to be dangerous or being far from the provincial capital and centre of operations in Lago Agrio.

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Field operations in Stage I and revisions to sample

The original prototype questionnaire developed in English for the project was originally translated in Europe, then edited and modified at CEPAR for use in Ecuador (with a few additional questions). Comments were also provided by the local UNHCR office in Quito. A full field test of the questionnaire was carried out in one rural and one urban census sector, leading to some further corrections and modifications. The resulting version was used in training supervisors and interviewers, which took place in January, 2006, over 6 days. Following vaccinations and equipping interviewers with backpacks and necessary materials for field work (boots, notebooks, flashlights, etc.), fieldwork began on January 17. There were four field teams, each comprising four interviewers, a supervisor and a driver with car. In the first round of fieldwork, each team was also accompanied by a coordinator from CEPAR or by the International Consultant (in Sucumbios, then Carchi), to deal with unexpected issues or problems.

Two questionnaires were used. The household questionnaire was to be implemented with the (economic) head of the household and only if he/she would not be available that day or the next would a proxy respondent be interviewed, usually the spouse. The individual questionnaire was to be implemented separately to each Colombian who came to Ecuador since January 1, 2000 and was at least age 15 at the time of coming. They were to be interviewed in person whenever possible, with a time scheduled for an appointment later made when the person was not present. If it was not possible to interview a person directly after two return visits, a proxy respondent was usually accepted as a respondent — the person most knowledgeable about the absent person (not necessarily the head or spouse of the head). But there were some cases when there was no appropriate respondent (including when the head was not a parent or spouse of the absent person; indeed, the head or spouse could be Ecuadorian).

Following the procedures outlined above for conducting surveys of "rare elements", in the first phase or *phase I*, a screening survey was carried out in all 70 census sectors (Primary Sampling Units or PSUs) selected in the initial sample, listing and mapping with sketch maps every household and recording the number of members and whether it contained any Colombian who arrived since January 1, 2000 and was at least age 15 at the time of arrival. All households in the sector containing one or more appropriate Colombians were then interviewed in *phase 2*, unless there were more than 10 such households. If

there were, which was the case in about 10% of the sample sectors (mainly urban), then a systematic random sample of 10 was selected from the list of households containing Colombians. Knowing the proportion selected for interview in such cases (since the 10 would, through this sub sampling procedure, represent a larger number of households in each of these PSUs) and in all census sectors knowing the number of those successfully interviewed would ideally be necessary to take into account in computing inflation factors (weights) in the analysis.

To determine the size of the sample *a priori* and to plan the fieldwork, various computations had to be made. In the 2001 census, an average census sector in urban areas had about 120 households, while one in rural areas had on average about 80 households. Based on previous experience, CEPAR estimated that an interviewer could list 60 households in a day in a urban area and 20 per day in a rural census sector. Based on these parameters, four teams of four interviewers each could cover all 70 PSUs in 13 days, that is, complete the listing operation, or *phase I*. It was then further assumed that, once the listing (including mapping) operation was completed, interviewers would complete 2.5 interviews on average per day. Assuming that census sectors in the sample would have on average 6% of the households containing recent Colombian migrants, the interviewing would be completed in 10 days more. Further adjustments were made to allow for travel to/from survey provinces, rest days and 10% refusals on the part of respondents at the household (household head or proxy) or individual levels.

Most of these computations proved reasonably reliable, although there were small disruptions and delays due to strikes of indigenous populations blocking all vehicular traffic various days and making field mobilization impossible. In Sucumbios, two census sectors ultimately had to be replaced by adjacent ones due to being on the border with Colombia and unsafe (according to the Ecuadorian military) and soldiers had to accompany interviewers in several other additional sectors to ensure their protection in areas with high numbers of Colombians, including possibly members of FARC resting on the Ecuadorian side of the border. Some houses were also difficult to get to, requiring renting a boat in Esmeraldas, long hikes on muddy mountain trails and roads in Carchi and long hot hikes through the rain and tropical forest in Sucumbios. But these were not unanticipated trials and tribulations of fieldwork. Overall, refusals to be interviewed were not much different from expectations, except being 24% in Quito.

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However, two serious problems were encountered that were not anticipated. First, except in Sucumbios, the percentage of households containing recent Colombians was much less than the 6% expected, being in fact little higher than half that expected.¹⁴ This meant that the listing and interview operations in Stage I together accordingly took less time than expected, since there were fewer households and individuals to interview in phase 2. The second and more serious problem is that the snowballing procedure did not work as well as anticipated. It was anticipated that each person would provide on average references to 1.5 additional households with recent Colombians living in nearby census sectors and that once logistic difficulties of locating those persons and refusals were taken into account, we would still interview a number of snowballreferenced households and individuals fully equal to those in Stage I, thus doubling the total sample size. Instead, on average, each individual interviewed in Stage I provided a usable reference to less than one third of an additional person. 15 This would imply a considerably shorter time to complete the planned Stage II interviews later.

The bottom line was that the final sample after Stages I and II would be much smaller than expected. The good news was that it would accordingly take less time than planned to conduct the survey as originally planned. This made it both possible and desirable to select a supplementary sample. We therefore selected additional PSUs (census sectors) in the five provinces using the same identical

This was a major problem resulting from the use of the 2001 census data, though there was no alternative. There are two possible explanations: (1) The main destinations of Colombian migrants to Ecuador changed from 1996-98 to 2002-2005, so that the census sectors with the highest prevalence of recent Colombians at the time of the census in 2001 were not the same as those with the highest prevalence in 2006; and/or (2) the high internal mobility within Ecuador of the Colombian migrants who arrived since the reference data of 1/1/00 means that new immigrants are quickly far more dispersed across the Ecuadorian landscape by 2006 than in 2001. This could be further examined via follow-up interviews in the future with the sample here.

Early in the fieldwork, interviewers reported that it was particularly difficult to get respondents to provide names and addresses of Colombian friends nearby at the end of the long interviews. Thenceforth, interviewers were instructed to seek such data after the first or second modules of the individual interview, rather than after completing all eight modules. This helped but still the number of households/individuals obtained through the snowball procedure remained low. Note that the number of individual interview per household was almost two on average, so that the approximately 380 households in Stage I contained about 750 individual interviews, which provided references to less than one third that number of individuals and their households for Stage II.

systematic selection procedures as had been used in Stage I, as described above, including sampling from the same list but without replacement. The result was the supplementary sample of 35 additional census sectors, shown at the right in table A.I.1.

The final result was a sample comprising 28 census sectors (PSUs) in Sucumbios, 27 in Carchi, 36 in Pichincha and seven each in Imbabura and Esmeraldas — a total of 105 census sectors or PSUs, including 53 urban census sectors and 52 rural ones.

All individuals interviewed in the additional 35 PSUs were again asked if they knew of nearby Colombians who had come in the past six years. This information was pooled from that of the persons interviewed before in the 70 original PSUs to plan the fieldwork for the snowball sample interviews. The conduct of the interviews with households/ interviews referenced through the snowball process was identical to that of Stage I.

The final result was completed interviews with 539 households, of which 348 were in Stage I (from the probability sample of 105 census sectors) and 191 from the snowball operation in Stage II. Complete data were obtained for 499 households, 331 from Stage I (about two-thirds) and 168 from Stage II. The total number of usable complete individual interviews from the 499 households was 904. These are the numbers used in the text, though missing data for certain variables meant that the sizes in the cross-tabulations based on the individual-level interviews was usually slightly lower.

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Further details on the planned and actual sample, on the interviewing process and problems encountered and on the listing operation with all census sectors indicated by INEC code number, total households containing only Ecuadorians with numbers of members and households containing one or more recent Colombian migrants, etc., are found in a longer Spanish description of the sample (Bilsborrow, 2006).

Annex II

Project personnel

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Drivers

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Annex III

MDG survey questionnaire (Ecuador version)

Encuesta sobre Condiciones de Vida de Refugiados, Solicitantes de Asilo y Otros Inmigrantes Recientes de Colombia

Disenada y llevada a cabo por el Centro de Estudios de Población y Desarrollo Social (CEPAR), Ecuador Instituto Interdisciplinario Demográfico Holandés, NIDI UNHCR (ACNUR)								
	CUESTIONARIO DEL HOGAR (DIRIGIDO AL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR)							
PROVINCIA:		NTÓN:ZONA CENS		UIA: SECTOR CENSAL:				
DIRECCIÓN (calle, edificio	o, número de piso)		-					
CÓDIGO: NÚMERO DEL HOGAR								
NOMBRE DEL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR NOMBRE: ESCRIBA EL CÓDIGO DE LA PERSONA QUE PROVEE LA INFORMACIÓN DEL HOGAR (Véase A01), siguiente página								
	1	2	3	VISITA FINAL				
DÍA HORA DE INICIO				DÍA MES				
HORA FINAL ENTREVISTADOR(A)				CÓDIGO ENTR.				
RESULTADO (*)				RESULTADO (*) FINAL				
PRÓXIMA VISITA: DÍA HORA				NÚMERO TOTAL DE VISITAS				
(*) CÓDIGO DE RESULTA 1 COMPLETA 2 PARCIALMENTE COM			H2 NÚM. TOTAL SOLIC. DE ASILO Y DE REFUGIADOS EN EL HOGAR (Véase A12)					
3 NO HABÍA MIEMBRO	APROPIADO PARA RES ES POR LARGO PERÍOD RGADA NDER, RECHAZO		DE 15 AÑOS Y N	L DE PERSONAS MÁS COLOMBIANOS N DESDE 01/01/2000				
	ALIZADA POR RAZONES	H4 NÚMERO TOTAI MENORES DE 1 (Véase A14)	L DE PERSONAS 5 AÑOS					
LOS DATOS H1 NÚMEI	: UNA VEZ QUE HAYA CO DEL MÓDULO A, REGIS RO TOTAL DE PERSONA HOGAR (Véase A01)	TRE:	H5 TIPOLOGÍA DEL Código (A, B, C o (Véase A17)					
			s	UPERVISOR (A) DIGITADOR (A)				

	MODULO A: FICHA DEL HOGAR (Dirigido al (la) jefe(a) del hogar)													
	ENTRE	VISTADOR(A)), DIGA	: Ahora me	gustaría contar con la inf	ormación b	ásica de las	personas (que habitua	Imente con	nen y duerme	n en este ho	gar	
Nº LÍNE	RESIDENTES HABITUALES EN EL HOGAR	RELACIÓN CON JEFE DEL HOGAR	SEXO	EDAD	FECHA DE NACIMIENTO	GRUPO ÉTNICO		VIVENCIA MADRE	PAÍS DE NACIMIENTO	INGRESO AL ECUADOR	STATUS		ISTRUCCIONES PA LA) ENTREVISTADO	
	Por favor, déme los nombres de las personas que normalmente comen y duermen en este hogar; comience diciendo el nombre del jefé(a) del hogar ENTREVISTADOR(A), incluya: 1. Niños que hayan sido internados en instituciones en el último año (ejemplo: escuelas, hospitales) 2. Empleados domésticos, que habitualmente duermen aquí 3. Miembros del hogar ausentes que normalmente duermen aquí 4. Miembros que se encuentran trabajando temporalmente fuera del hogar	Cuál es el parentesco de «NOMBRE» con el jefe(a) del hogar?	н м	Qué edad tiene? <nombre>? REGISTRE LA EDAD EN AÑOS CUMPLIDOS (Véase aclaración más abajo)</nombre>	En qué mes y año nació <nombre>? Mes Año</nombre>	<nombre> es: 1= Indigena? 2= Mestizo? 3= Blanco? 4= Negro? 5= Otro?</nombre>	Vive la madre biológica de <nombre>?</nombre>	SI VIVE EN ESTE HOGAR REGISTRE EL NÚMERO DE LINEA DE LA MADRE	Dónde nació «NOMBRE»? 1= Ecuador 2= Colombia 3= Otro país SI MARCA CÓDIGO 1 PASE A OTRO MIEMBRO	En qué año Ingresó «NOMBRE» al Ecuador por última vez para resi- dir?	¿Es <nombre> solicitante de asilo o tiene el status de refugiado actualmente? SI "SÍ", SEÑALE CON UN CÍRCULO EL NÚMERO DE LÍNEA</nombre>	SEÑALE CON UN CÍRCULO EL CÓDIGO DE PERSONAS DE 15 AÑOS Y MÁS QUE HAYAN NACIDO EN COLOMBIA (Ver A05 y A10) Y QUE INGRESARON AL PAÍS A PARTIR DE ENERO 2000 (Ver A11)	SEÑALE CON UN CIRCULO EL CÓDIGO DE PERSONAS MENORES DE 15 AÑOS DE EDAD (ver A05)	SI EN A14 SE MARCÓ, Y SI NO SE MARCÓ EN A09, SEÑALE EL Nº DEL CUIDADOR PRINCIP. DEL NIÑO EN ESTE HOGAR
(A01)	(A02)	(A03)	(A04)	(A05)	(A06) (A06A)	(A07)	(A08)	(A09)	(A10)	(A11)	(A12)	(A13)	(A14)	(A15)
01		0 1	1 2				1 2 3				01	01	01	
02			1 2				1 2 3				02	02	02	
03			1 2				1 2 3				03	03	03	
04			1 2				1 2 3				04	04	04	
05			1 2				1 2 3				05	05	05	
06			1 2				1 2 3				06	06	06	
07			1 2				1 2 3				07	07	07	
08			1 2				1 2 3				08	08	08	
CODIGOS PARA A3 01 = JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR 02 = CÓNYUGE 03 = HIQUILINO / HUESPED 04 = PADRE / MADRE 05 = HERMANO(A) 06 = OTRO PARIENTE 06 = OTRO PARIENTE 07 = 97 años o más 98 = No sabe														

06= OTRO PARIENTE 07= EMPLEADO(A) DOMESTICO(A)

	FICHA DEL HOGAR (CONT.)													
Nº LÍNEA	RESIDENTES HABITUALES EN EL HOGAR	RELACIÓN CON JEFE DEL HOGAR	SEXO	EDAD	FECHA DE NACIMIENTO	GRUPO ÉTNICO		VIVENCIA MADRE	PAÍS DE NACIMIENTO	INGRESO AL ECUADOR	STATUS		NSTRUCCIONES PA (A) ENTREVISTADO	
	Por favor, deme los nombres de las personas que normalmente comen y duermen en este hogar; comience diciendo el nombre del jefe(a) del hogar ENTREVISTADORIAL incluva: 1. Niños que hayan sido internados en instituciones en el último año (ejemplo: escuelas, hospitales) 2. Empleados domésticos, que habitualmente duermen aquí 3. Miembros del hogar ausentes que normalmente duermen aquí 4. Miembros que se encuentran traba- jando temporalmente fuer ad le hogar	Cuál es el parentesco de <nombre> con el jefe(a) del hogar?</nombre>	н м	Qué edad tiene? <nombre>? REGISTRE LA EDAD EN AÑOS CUMPLIDOS (Véase aclaración más abajo) Años</nombre>	En qué mes y año nació <nombre>? Mes Año</nombre>	<nombre> es: 1= Indigena? 2= Mestizo? 3= Blanco? 4= Negro? 5= Otro?</nombre>	Vive la madre biológica de «NOMBRE» en este hogar?	REGISTRE EL NÚMERO DE LINEA DE LA MADRE	Dónde nació <nombre>? 1= Ecuador 2= Colombia 3= Otro país SI MARCA CÓDIGO 1 PASE A A13</nombre>	En qué año ingresó «NOMBRE» al Ecuador por última vez para residir?	¿Es <nombre> solicitante de asilio o tiene el status de refugiado actualmente? SI "SI", SENALE CON UN CIRCULO EL NUMERO DE LINEA</nombre>	SEÑALE CON UN CÍRCULO EL CÓDIGO DE PERSONAS DE 15 AÑOS Y MÁS QUE HAYAM NACIDO EN COLOMBIA (Ver A05 y A10) Y QUE INGRESARON AL PAIS A PARTIR DE ENERO 2000 (Ver A11)	SEÑALE CON UN CIRCULO EL CÓDIGO DE PERSONAS MENORES DE 15 AÑOS DE EDAD (ver A05)	SI EN A14 SE MARCÓ Y SI NO SE MARCÓ EN A09, SEÑALE EL Nº DEL CUIDADOR PRINCIPAL DEL NINO EN ESTE HOGAR (Ver A05 y A10)
(A01)	(A02)	(A03)	(A04)	(A05)	(A06) (A06A)	(A07)	(A08)	(A09)	(A10)	(A11)	(A12)	(A13)	(A14)	(A15)
09			1 2				1 2				09	09	09	
10		Ш	1 2				1 2				10	10	10	
11			1 2				1 2				11	11	11	
12			1 2				1 2				12	12	12	
13		Ш	1 2				1 2				13	13	13	
14		Ш	1 2				1 2				14	14	14	
15		Ш	1 2				1 2				15	15	15	
16			1 2				1 2				16	16	16	
17			1 2				1 2				17	17	17	
18			1 2				1 2				18	18	18	

PARA LOS CÓDIGOS, VER LA PRIMERA PÁGINA DE LA FICHA DEL HOGAR

ENTREVISTADOR(A): SI EL HOGAR TIENE MAS DE 18 MIEMBROS, COMPLETE LA LISTA CON OTRA HOJA

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A16 a. TOTAL DE PERSONAS EN EL HOGAR (Véase A01) b. TOTAL DE SOLICITANTES DE ASILO Y REFUGIADOS (Véase A12) c. TOTAL DE PERSONAS COLOMBIANAS DE 15 AÑOS Y MÁS (Véase A13) d. TOTAL DE PERSONAS MENORES DE 15 AÑOS DE EDAD (Véase A14) DETERMINE EL TIPO DE HOGAR, SEÑALE CON UN CÍRCULO EL CÓDIGO CORRESPONDIENTE Y REGISTRE ESTE CÓDIGO EN LA PRIMERA PÁGINA a. TODOS LOS MIEMBROS DEL HOGAR SON SOLICITANTES DE ASILO O REFUGIADOS b. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR ES SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS NO SON— c. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR NO ES UN SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS SÍ SON—	
b. TOTAL DE SOLICITANTES DE ASILO Y REFUGIADOS (Véase A12) c. TOTAL DE PERSONAS COLOMBIANAS DE 15 AÑOS Y MÁS (Véase A13) d. TOTAL DE PERSONAS MENORES DE 15 AÑOS DE EDAD (Véase A14) DETERMINE EL TIPO DE HOGAR, SEÑALE CON UN CÍRCULO EL CÓDIGO CORRESPONDIENTE Y REGISTRE ESTE CÓDIGO EN LA PRIMERA PÁGINA A17 a. TODOS LOS MIEMBROS DEL HOGAR SON SOLICITANTES DE ASILO O REFUGIADOS b. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR ES SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS NO SON— c. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR NO ES UN SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS SÍ SON—	B C
c. TOTAL DE PERSONAS COLOMBIANAS DE 15 AÑOS Y MÁS (Véase A13) d. TOTAL DE PERSONAS MENORES DE 15 AÑOS DE EDAD (Véase A14) DETERMINE EL TIPO DE HOGAR, SEÑALE CON UN CÍRCULO EL CÓDIGO CORRESPONDIENTE Y REGISTRE ESTE CÓDIGO EN LA PRIMERA PÁGINA a. TODOS LOS MIEMBROS DEL HOGAR SON SOLICITANTES DE ASILO O REFUGIADOS b. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR ES SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS NO SON— c. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR NO ES UN SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS SÍ SON—	B C
d. TOTAL DE PERSONAS MENORES DE 15 AÑOS DE EDAD (Véase A14) DETERMINE EL TIPO DE HOGAR, SEÑALE CON UN CÍRCULO EL CÓDIGO CORRESPONDIENTE Y REGISTRE ESTE CÓDIGO EN LA PRIMERA PÁGINA a. TODOS LOS MIEMBROS DEL HOGAR SON SOLICITANTES DE ASILO O REFUGIADOS b. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR ES SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS NO SON— c. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR NO ES UN SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS SÍ SON—	B C
DETERMINE EL TIPO DE HOGAR, SEÑALE CON UN CÍRCULO EL CÓDIGO CORRESPONDIENTE Y REGISTRE ESTE CÓDIGO EN LA PRIMERA PÁGINA a. TODOS LOS MIEMBROS DEL HOGAR SON SOLICITANTES DE ASILO O REFUGIADOS b. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR ES SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS NO SON c. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR NO ES UN SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS SÍ SON—	B C
A17 a. TODOS LOS MIEMBROS DEL HOGAR SON SOLICITANTES DE ASILO O REFUGIADOS b. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR ES SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS NO SON c. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR NO ES UN SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS SÍ SON	B C
A17 a. TODOS LOS MIEMBROS DEL HOGAR SON SOLICITANTES DE ASILO O REFUGIADOS b. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR ES SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS NO SON c. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR NO ES UN SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS SÍ SON	B C
b. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR ES SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS NO SON c. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR NO ES UN SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS SÍ SON —	B C
c. EL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR NO ES UN SOLICITANTE DE ASILO O REFUGIADO(A) Y UNO O MÁS MIEMBROS SÍ SON -	C
L NO LINY COLLOITANTES DE AGUA EN EL LIGOAR	D
d. NO HAY SOLICITANTES DE ASILO EN EL HOGAR	
MÓDULO B: CARACTERÍSTICAS DE LA VIVIENDA Y SITUACIÓN ECONÓMICA DEL HOGAR	
PREGUNTAS AL (LA) JEFE(A) DEL HOGAR	
Características de la vivienda	
B01 ¿Esta vivienda es de propiedad de algún miembro del hogar? SÍ	1
NO 2 —	→ B03
B02 ¿Quién es el principal propietario de la vivienda? REGISTRE № DEL PROPIETARIO (Véase ficha del hogar)	
B03 ¿Qué tipo de vivienda es? Casa o villa 1	
Departamento	
Rancho o covacha 4	
Otro, especifique: 5	
B04 ¿De cuántos cuartos dispone este hogar? (excluya cocina, baños, pasillos, garajes, patios, etc.) Nº DE CUARTOS	
B05 ¿Cuántas habitaciones son usadas exclusivamente para dormir? Nº DE DORMITORIOS	
B06 ¿Dónde cocinan? Dentro de la vivienda, en una habitación	
habilitada para cocina	
de otro uso o para dormir 2	
Fuera de la vivienda 3	
No cocinan 4	—
B07 ¿De qué tipo de material es el piso de esta vivienda? TIERRA/BARRO 1 MADERA SIN TRATAR 2	
ENTREVISTADOR(A): VERIFIQUE ESTA RESPUESTA MADERA TRATADA	
PERSONALMENTE EN CASO DE DUDAS VINYL	
BALDOSA 5 CEMENTO	
PIEDRA 7	
OTROS 96	<u> </u>
B08 ¿Cuál es el principal material del techo de esta vivienda? ZINC	
CEMENTO	
ENTREVISTADOR(A): VERIFIQUE ESTA RESPUESTA ETERNIT	
PERSONALMENTE EN CASO DE DUDAS PAJA / HOJAS	
B09 ¿De dónde obtiene el agua principalmente este hogar? AGUA POR TUBERÍA DENTRO DE VIVIENDA 1	\vdash
AGUA POR TUBERÍA FUERA DE VIVIENDA,	
PERO DENTRO DEL TERRENO	
POZO POBLICO 3 POZO PRIVADO 4	
TANQUERO	
RÍO, ACEQUIA, MANANTIAL 6 AGUA DE LLUVIA 7	
AGUA EMBOTELLADA	→ B11

B10	¿Hierven el agua que toman?	SI, SIEMPRE 1 SI, A VECES 2
		NO 3
B11	¿Con qué tipo de servicio higiénico cuentan en este hogar:	EXCUSADO CONECTADO 1 A ALCANTARILLADO? 1 EXCUSADO CONECTADO A POZO? 2 EXCUSADO QUE DA A RÍO O QUEBRADA? 3 LETRINA? 4 NO TIENE SERVICIO HIGIÉNICO 5
B12	¿Dónde está ubicado el servicio higiénico:	DENTRO DE LA VIVIENDA?
B13	¿Comparte el servicio higiénico con otras personas que no viven en este hogar?	SI 1 NO 2
B14	¿Con qué se cocina usualmente en este hogar?	ELECTRICIDAD 1 GAS 2 LEÑA 3 CARBÓN 4 OTROS, Especifique: 5 NO COCINAN 6
	Condiciones económic	as generales
B15	¿En este hogar tienen:	SI NO
B16	¿Actualmente algún miembro del hogar tiene tierras en Colombia?	SI
B17	¿Qué cantidad de tierra poseen actualmente en Colombia? (SUMAR DE TODOS LOS QUE TIENEN EN COLOMBIA)	a. TAMAÑO: , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
B18	¿Algún miembro del hogar tiene tierras en el Ecuador?	SI 1 NO 2 → B21
B19	¿Qué cantidad de tierra poseen actualmente los miembros del hogar en el Ecuador?	a. TAMAÑO: , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
B20	(SUMAR SI ES NECESARIO) ¿Obtienen algún ingreso de las tierras que poseen, en Colombia, como vesta do producto a gráculas pariendo, etc. 2	Sí 1
B21	como venta de productos agrícolas, arriendo, etc.? ¿Actualmente la situación económica del hogar en Ecuador es: más que suficiente, suficiente o insuficiente, para cubrir las necesidades básicas?	NO 2 MÁS QUE SUFICIENTE 1 SUFICIENTE 2 INSUFICIENTE 3

B22	De aquí a dos años, ¿cómo cree que será la situación económica de su hogar: será mejor, igual o peor?	MEJOR
B23	¿Cúal es la razón principal por la que cree que la situación será diferente en el futuro?	RAZÓN:
B24	¿En qué promedio al mes, se sitúa el ingreso del hogar (de todos los miembros): entre 100 Y 300 DÓLARES; es mayor o quizá menor? ENTREVISTADOR(A): VERIFIQUE CON EL ENTREVISTADO SI SE INCLUYEN OTROS INGRESOS A PARTE DE SALARIOS	EN ESE RANGO 1 B27 MÁS 2 B25 MENOS 3 B27
B25	¿Está en el rango de 301 y 500 DÓLARES?	EN ESE RANGO
B26	¿Está en el rango de 501 y 1.000 DÓLARES?	EN ESE RANGO
B27	¿Cómo califica la situación económica de su hogar, en comparación con sus vecinos:	(MUCHO) MEJOR? 1 ALGO MEJOR? 2 IGUAL? 3 ALGO PEOR? 4 (MUCHO) PEOR1 5
B28	¿Ha podido el hogar ahorrar en los últimos 12 meses?	SÍ 1 NO 2
B29	¿En la semana pasada, cuánto dinero se gastó en la adquisición de los siguientes alimentos? ENTREVISTADOR(A): REGISTRE 999,98 SI NO SABE a. PRODUCTOS BÁSICOS (ARROZ, HARINA, PAN, CEREALES PLÁTANO, YUCA) b. VERDURAS/FRUTAS c. CARNE/PESCADO d. PRODUCTOS LÁCTEOS e. ACEITE/MANTECA PARA COCINAR f. BEBIDAS (jugos, cerveza, etc.) g. AZÚCAR / PANELA h. COMIDA FUERA DE CASA i. OTROS	DÓLARES , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
B30	Entonces, ¿cuánto dinero se gastó en total en comida y bebidas consumidas por el hogar durante la semana pasada? ENTREVISTADOR(A): REGISTRE 999,98 SI NO SABE	DÓLARES , L
B31	¿Además de lo que gastaron para comida, en la semana pasada, ustedes han consumido otras cosas de su tierra, huerto, negocio o les han regalado comida?	SI
B32	¿Cuántas comidas al día comieron ayer los miembros del hogar?	NÚMERO DE COMIDAS
B33	¿Cuántas comidas normalmente tienen al día los miembros del hogar?	COMIDAS AL DÍA
B34	Actualmente, ¿qué diría usted sobre la facilidad de obtener suficiente comida para todos los miembros del hogar:	NORMALMENTE SUFICIENTE? 1 ALGUNAS VECES INSUFICIENTE? 2 MUCHAS VECES INSUFICIENTE? 3 NUNCA SUFICIENTE? 4

B35	El mes pasado, ¿cuánto dinero se gastó en el hogar	
200	en los siguientes productos no alimenticios?	
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): REGISTRE 999,98 SI NO SABE	DÓLARES
	a. VIVIENDA (ALQUILER, MANTENIMIENTO)	, ,
	b. ELECTRICIDAD, AGUA, GAS	, ,
	c. GASTOS MÉDICOS (CONSULTAS, MEDICINAS, ETC.)	
	d. ROPA	, ,
	e. PRODUCTOS DEL HOGAR (ASEO)	, , ,
	f. EDUCACIÓN (MATRÍCULAS, LIBROS, MATERIAL	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
	g. TRANSPORTE	
	h. DEUDAS	
	i. FIESTAS SOCIALES O RELIGIOSAS	
	j. GASTOS EN COMUNICACIÓN (TELÉFONO/INTERNE1 k. OTROS	
B36	Entonces, ¿cuánto dinero gastó en total este hogar en productos no alimenticios?	DÓLARES
	en productos no annienticios:	
B37	¿Diría usted que la cantidad que los miembros de este hogar	ALTA 1
	tienen en deudas es: alta, normal, baja, o no tienen deudas?	NORMAL 2 BAJA 3
		NO TIENEN DEUDAS 4
B38	¿Dónde buscarían ayuda si tuvieran serios problemas económicos,	
(*)	como por ejemplo: problemas graves de salud, accidente,	a. FAMILIARES EN ECUADOR 1
	robo o amenaza, terremoto, o cualquier otra calamidad?	b. FAMILIARES EN COLOMBIA
		d. AMIGOS EN ECUADOR 4
	INDAGUE POR OTRAS INSTITUCIONES, PERO SIN LEER	e, INSTITUCIÓN DE CRÉDITO / BANCOS
		f. GOBIERNO LOCAL
	RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	h. ACNUR 8
		i. PRESTAMISTA / CHULQUERO
		j. CRUZ ROJA
		I. VECINOS 12
		m OTROS, especifique 13
B39	En los últimos 12 meses, sufrió el hogar algún problema	SÍ
	económico serio?	
B40	¿A qué se debió el problema:	a. BANCARROTA DEL NEGOCIO?
540	en dag action of broneing.	b. GRAVE PROBLEMA DE SALUD
		DE ALGÚN MIEMBRO? 1 2
		c. ACCIDENTE? 1 2 d. AMENAZA/ROBO? 1 2
		e. DESASTRE NATURAL? 1 2
		f. MUERTE EN EL HOGAR? 1 2
		g. PERDIERON EMPLEO ? 1 2 h. PERDIERON EL TERRENO O SU USO 1 2
		i. OTRO, Especifique: 1 2
	Ayuda de otro	OS
B41	En los últimos 12 meses ¿recibió alguien del hogar	SI 1
	dinero de familiares, o de otras personas residentes en el país o en el exterior?	NO2 — B51
	O GIT GI EXCENSI:	SI NO
B42	¿De parte de quién recibieron esta ayuda:	FAMILIARES O AMIGOS EN EL ECUADOR? 1 2
		FAMILIARES O AMIGOS EN COLOMBIA? 1 2 FAMILIARES O AMIGOS EN OTRO PAÍS? 1 2
D.40	0.64	
B43	¿Cuánto dinero recibió la última vez? (Estimar valor si es en especie. Si recibieron	CANTIDAD DÓLARES
	de más de una persona, estimar el valor total recibido)	
B44	¿Con qué frecuencia se recibe esta cantidad de dinero?	MENSUAL 1
		CADA 2 MESES
		SEMESTRAL 4
		ANUAL 5 OTRA FRECUENCIA, especifique 6

B44A	Entonces, en los últimos 12 meses, ¿Cuánto estima usted han recibido en total?	DÓLARES DO LA CONTRACTION DEL CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA CONTRACTION DE LA
B45	En su opinión, ¿cuán importante es este dinero que reciben para el bienestar del hogar:	MUY IMPORTANTE? 1 IMPORTANTE? 2 ALGO IMPORTANTE? 3 NO ES IMPORTANTE? 4
B46	¿Quién envía dinero a este hogar:	Hombre Mujer
	ENTREVISTADOR(A), REGISTRE EL NÚMERO DE PERSONAS QUE ENVÍAN EL DINERO DE CADA CATEGORÍA	a. ESPOSO/A (En Colombia)? b. HIJOS/AS (En Colombia)? c. HERMANOS/AS (En Colombia)? d. OTRO PARIENTE (En Colombia) e. OTROS (En Colombia)? f. ESPOSO/A (En Ecuador)? g. HIJOS/AS (En Ecuador)? h. HERMANOS/AS (En Ecuador)? i. OTROS PARIENTES (En Ecuador) j. OTROS (En Ecuador)? k. PARIENTE EN OTRO PAÍS?
B47	¿Quién o quienes en el hogar reciben el dinero?	a. SEÑALE Nº DE LA PERSONA 1
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): PREGUNTE POR EL NOMBRE DE LOS RECEPTORES. REGISTRE EL Nº DE LÍNEA DE LOS RECEPTORES (Véase A01 en Módulo A)	b. SEÑALE Nº DE LA PERSONA 2 c. SEÑALE Nº DE LA PERSONA 3 d. SEÑALE Nº DE LA PERSONA 4 e. SEÑALE Nº DE LA PERSONA 5
B48 (*)	¿El dinero recibido fue usado para? INDAGUE POR OTROS USOS, PERO SIN LEER RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	a. ALIMENTOS Y ROPA 1 b. VIVIENDA/ALQUILER/REPARACIÓN 2 c. PAGO DE DEUDAS 3 d. INVERSIONES (negocios no agric.) 4 e. INVERSIONES (negocios agricolas) 5 f. EDUCACIÓN 6 g. SALUD 7
		h. BIENES DURABLES 8 i. BODAS/FIESTAS 9 j. EN VECINDARIO/COMUNIDAD 10 k. OTROS, especifique: 11
B49	¿Para qué principalmente?	
B50 (*)	¿A través de qué mecanismo o vía se ha recibido esta ayuda? RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	POR PERSONAS 1 WESTERN UNION / OTRA 2 TRANSFERENCIA BANCARIA 3 CORREO 4 OTROS, especifique: 5
B51	Desde que llegaron al Ecuador, ¿recibió el hogar otro tipo de ayuda de alguna institución?	SI 1
	de ayuua de alguna mattuctorn:	NO 2 — HEV1
B52 (*)	¿De qué institución? INDAGUE POR OTRAS INSTITUCIONES, PERO SIN LEER RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	a. GOBIERNO LOCAL 1 b. DONANTES PARTICULARES 2 c. ACNUR 3 d. PAQUETE PMA'S 4 e. IGLESIA 5 f. COMITÉ PROREFUGIADOS (CPR) 6 g. CRUZ ROJA 7 h. ONG'S, Especifique 8 i. OTRA ORGANIZACIÓN, Especifique 9
B53 (*)	¿En qué consistió esta ayuda?	a. VIVIENDA
()	INDAGUE POR OTRAS AYUDAS, PERO SIN LEER	C. REPARACIONES DE VIVIENDA 3 3 3 4 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5
		i. OTROS, especifique9

B54	¿Para qué principalmente?							
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): EVALÚE LA ENTREVISTA CON EL(LA) ENTREVISTADO(DA)							
HEV1	Hasta ahora, ¿cómo se ha desarrollado la entrevista?	DE FORMA RELAJADA						
HEV2	¿Han estado presentes otras personas durante (o parte) de la entrevista?	NO						
FIN DE LA ENTREVISTA DEL CUESTIONARIO DEL HOGAR SIGA CON EL CUESTIONARIO INDIVIDUAL								

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Encuesta sobre Condiciones de Vida de Refugiados, Solicitantes de Asilo y Otros Inmigrantes Recientes de Colombia

Diseñada y llevada a cabo por el Centro de Estudios de Población y Desarrollo Social (CEPAR), Ecuador Instituto Interdisciplinario Demográfico Holandés, NIDI UNHCR (ACNUR)

CUESTIONARIO INDIVIDUAL PARA TODOS LOS MIEMBROS DEL HOGAR DE 15 AÑOS Y MÁS DE EDAD							
PROVINCIA:	CAN	ITÓN:	PARROQ	UIA:			
COMUNIDAD:		ZONA CENSAL		SECTOR CEI	NSAL:		
DIRECCIÓN (calle, edifici	o, número de piso)			_			
CÓDIGO:							
			NÚME	ERO DEL HOGA	R LLL		
NOMBRE DEL(LA) ENTREVISTADO(A)	NOMBRE:						
REGISTRE EL Nº DE LÌN (Véase A 01 y A13), en el		NTIFICADA PARA LA ENTRE 	EVISTA	$\rightarrow \square$			
	REVISTAR A LA PERSON. NA, QUE PROPORCIONA	A DIRECTAMENTE, REGIST LA INFORMACIÓN	RE EL				
CÓDIGO DEL TIPO DE HOGAR (A, B, C ó D, Véa página de cubierta del cuestionario del hogar)							
	1	2	3	V	ISITA FINAL		
DÍA			-	DÍA			
HORA DE INICIO				MES			
HORA FINAL				CÓDIGO EN	ITREV.		
ENTREVISTADOR(A)				RESULTAD			
RESULTADO (*):				FINAL			
PRÓXIMA VISITA: DÍA HORA				NÚMERO T			
(*) CÓDIGO DE RESULTADO FINAL: 1 COMPLETA 2 PARCIALMENTE COMPLETA 3 NO SE ENCONTRABAN EN CASA 4 POSTERGADA 5 NO QUISIERON ATENDER 6 INCAPACITADO(A) 7 OTRO, especifique:							
				SUPERVISOR	CODIFICADOR		

	MÓDULO C: INFORMACIÓN GENERAL SOB	RE EL(LA) ENTREVISTADO(A)
C01	ANOTE EL SEXO DE LA PERSONA	HOMBRE 1 MUJER 2
C02	¿Cuántos años cumplió en su último cumpleaños? 97 = 97 ó mayor ; 98 = No sabe	EDAD
C03	¿Cuál es su estado civil o conyugal actual: está casado, unido con su pareja, viudo, divorciado, separado ó soltero?	SOLTERO/A 1 ACTUALMENTE CASADO 2 CONVIVIENDO EN PAREJA 3 VIUDO/A 4 DIVORCI/ADD/A 5 SEPARADO/A 6
C04	¿En qué més y año enviudó, se divorció o separó? ENTREVISTADOR(A): ESCRIBA 98 Y 9998 SI NO SABE	MES AÑO
C05	¿Asistió usted a la escuela?	Sí
C06	¿Cuál es el nivel y año más alto de educación aprobado?	NO 2 → C07 NIVEL AÑO NINGUNA
C07	¿Está usted estudiando en la actualidad?	SÍ 1 NO 2
C08	¿Usted usa el Internet?	SÍ 1 NO 2
C09	¿Su hogar antes de salir de Colombia poseía:	
	b. TELEVISIÓN1	Si NO NO NO NO NO NO NO NO
C10	¿Qué servicios/facilidades tenía su hogar antes de salir:	a. ELECTRICIDAD?
C11	¿Alguien de su hogar en Colombia tenía tierra (antes de venir acá)?	SÍ
C12	¿Qué cantidad de tierra tenía?	a. TAMAÑO b. MEDIDA Hectárea
C13	¿Todavía su familia tiene esta tierra, la vendió o la abandonó/dejó?	TIENE
C14	¿Todavía alguien de su hogar está trabajando la tierra?	SÍ 1 NO 2
C15	¿Cómo es la situación económica actual de su hogar aquí, comparada con la situación del hogar antes de su salida:	MUCHO MEJOR?

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C16	¿Hay personas de este hogar que llegaron con usted al Ecu			SI							\neg			
	que después salieron a vivir a otro lugar del Ecuador o a otro	pais		a. Cuá							ᅦ			
				part	tes de	l Ecua	dor?			Н	IVI			
				b. Cuá c. Cuá						, \square	Ц			
C17	Me gustaría conocer cuál era la composición de su hogar	en Colomb	oia, a	antes o	del mo	oment	o en q	ue sa	aliero	n.	•			
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): REGISTRE EL NÚMERO DE PERSON						AS N	о со	RRES	SPOND	E			
	A LA RESPUESTA, ESCRIBA 0 ó 00, DEPENDIENDO DE LO		Α	buelos	ó	Herma					ros	_	N	
		Esposo/a (a)		Padres (b)		lermar (c		Hijo (d		Parie	entes (e)	. P	arien (f)	tes
a.	Personas que vivieron juntos en el hogar antes de salir de Colombia (LLENAR TODOS)													
b.	Personas del hogar que vinieron con usted al Ecuador													
с.	Personas del hogar en Colombia que salieron a vivir a otro país (aparte de Ecuador o Colombia)													
d.	Personas del hogar que ahora viven con usted en este hogar (Ecuador) (LLENAR TODOS)													
e.	Personas del hogar que han muerto después de venir al Ecuador													
f.	Personas del hogar que ahora viven en otro hogar			Н	l		1	Н		_		1		
g.	del Ecuador Personas del hogar que permanecen en Colombia						1	\vdash			+	1		
h.	Personas del hogar que vinieron con Ud. y regresaron						1	-			+	1		
i.	a Colombia Personas del hogar que vinieron al Ecuador y que			Н			1	Н		_	+	1		
	actualmente viven en otro país (especifique país)		244	اک	<u> </u>		_	<u> </u>				_		<u> </u>
D01	MÓDULO LEo qué lugar posió ustad?	D: MIGH	KAI	LUG										
DUI	¿En qué lugar nació usted?			PAIS							-			
			4	_	_				_		_			
D02	¿En qué fecha vino al Ecuador a vivir (la última vez)?			Mes			-	∖ño						
D03	¿Por qué salió de Colombia?					IA, GL			20					
(*)				DIR	ECTA	RIDAD, MENT	E				1			
	INDAGUE POR OTRAS RAZONES PERO SIN LEER			DES	SASTE	E LA V RES N	ATUR/	ALES			2			
	RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE					OTOS,					3			
						E TIER E EMP					4			
				NO	SUFIC	CIENT	ES				5			
				BAN	ICARI	NEGO ROTA					6			
						MAS D MAS P					7 8			
										 1				
						specific				1				
D03A	¿Cuál fue la razón principal ?										11			
D04	¿Por qué vino al Ecuador?		4	TEN	ιίΛ DΛ	RIEN	TES A	OUİ			<u> </u>			
(*)				PAR	RA CA	SARS	E				2			
	INDAGUE POR OTRAS RAZONES PERO SIN LEER					A TIER AR AYI					3 4			
	RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE					ERON TUDIA					5 6			
				TEN	IIA TR	RABAJ	J AQL	Jİ			7			
						SCAR CER I					8 9			
				PAR	RA CC		R TIE	RRAS		1 1	0			
D05	:Cuál fue la razón principal para venir al Ecuador?		\dashv		.,						╗			
D03	¿Cuál fue la razón principal para venir al Ecuador?													
D06	Antes de venir al Ecuador en (año de llegada), ¿ha venido a al país, para vivir o de visita?	ntes		SI NO							1		_	_

D07	Cuando vino (la última vez), ¿cuál era su estado civil o conyugal?	SOLTERO/A 1 CASADO/A 2 CONVIVIENDO EN PAREJA 3 VIUDO/A 4 DIVORCIADO/A 5 SEPARADO/A 6
D08	Cuando vino (la última vez), ¿Cuál era el nivel y año más alto de estudios aprobado?	NIVEL AÑO NINGUNA 0 0 PRIMARIA 1 SECUNDARIA 2 TÉCNICO 3 SUPERIOR 4 POSTGRADO 5
D09	Antes de venir al Ecuador (la última vez), ¿Tenía usted parientes o buenos amigos viviendo en el Ecuador?	SI
D10	¿Le ayudaron en algo?	SI
(*)	¿En qué le ayudaron? INDAGUE POR OTRAS AYUDAS, PERO SIN LEER RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	CON TRANSPORTE O GASTOS DE TRANSPORTE
D12	¿Ha solicitado ayuda o ha pensado solicitar ayudar de alguna institución aquí en Ecuador?	SI
D13 (*)	¿De qué institución o instituciones cree que se puede buscar ayuda? INDAGUE POR OTRA INSTITUCIÓN PERO SIN LEER RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	CRUZ ROJA 1 IGLESIA 2 ACNUR 3 GOBIERNO 4 OTRA ONG'S 5 OTRO, especifique: 6 NO CONOCE 7
D14	¿Cuál es la razón principal por la cual no ha pensado solicitar ayuda?	NO NECESITA 1 NO SE PUEDE CALIFICAR
D15	¿Cúal es su actual nacionalidad?	ECUATORIANA 1 → D21 COLOMBIANA 2 OTRA, cuál? 3
D16	¿Usted es actualmente refugiado reconocido, o ha solicitado refugio o asilo?	REFUGIADO RECONOCIDC
D17	¿Ha solicitado formalmente la nacionalidad en el Ecuador?	SI

D18	¿Por qué no ha solicitado la nacionalidad?	NO LE BENEFICIA 1	
(*)		NO SABE CÓMO HACERLO	
		MIEDO DE SER DETENIDO 4	
	INDACHE DOD OTDAS DAZONES DEDO SIN LEED	MIEDO A PERDER EL DERECHO A RECLAMAR	
	INDAGUE POR OTRAS RAZONES, PERO SIN LEER	DERECHO A RECLAMAR 5 PÉRDIDA DE PROPIEDAD 6	
		MIEDO A PERDER	
	RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	ASISTENCIA HUMANITARIA	
		ESTÁ EN PROCESO	
		NO HA VIVIDO SUFICIENTE	
		TIEMPO EN EL ECUADOR 10	
		SE LE NEGÓ EL DERECHO 11	
		ACABA DE LLEGAR 12 ESTÁ CASADO/A CON	
		ECUATORIANO/A	
		OTRA, Especifique 14	
D19	¿Solicitará en algún momento la nacionalidad?	SÍ 1)
	g g	NO 2	D22
		NO SABE TODAVÍA 3	J
D20	¿En qué fase se encuentra su solicitud de nacionalidad?	SE LE NEGÓ EL DERECHO 1	_
220	0	SOLICITUD EN CURSO 2	→ D22
		ESTÁ PARA SOLICITAR 3	_
		SOLICITUD CONCEDIDA 4	
D21	¿Cuándo obtuvo la ciudadanía ecuatoriana o cuándo	MES AÑO	
	se nacionalizó?		
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): NO RECUERDA=ANOTE 98 Y 9998		
D22	¿Puede darme una estimación sobre cuánto dinero	DÓLARES	
	cuesta conseguir la ciudadanía/nacionalidad Ecuatoriana?		
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): INCLUYA PAGOS EXTRAS. SI NO SABE, ANOTE 9998		
	SINO SABE, ANOTE 9990		
D23	Desde que salió, ¿tiene contacto habitual (teléfono, correo)	SÍ, CON FRECUENCIA 1	
	con algún familiiar que ahora vive en Colombia?	SÍ, RARAS VECES	
D24	¿Dónde se encontraba su residencia habitual antes de su salida de Colombia?	LUGAR (ciudad / departamento):	
	antes de su salida de Colombia?		
D25	¿Cuál fué su primer lugar de residencia en el Ecuador,	ESTE LUGAR / COMUNIDAD /	
	luego de su salida?	CIUDAD/PARROQUIA 1	
		OTRO LUGAR EN ESTA PROVIN 2 OTRO LUGAR EN OTRA PROVIN 3	
200		 	
D26	¿Cuándo llegó a este lugar en el que ahora vive?	MES AÑO	
D27	¿En cuántos lugares diferentes ha vivido en el Ecuador, antes de		
	llegar a este lugar en el que ahora vive?	NÚMERO DE LUGARES	
D28	¿Tiene intención de volver a Colombia?	SÍ 1	
		NO 2 -	→ D32
		NO SABE 3	
D29	¿Volvería inmediatamente o se tomaría algún tiempo	INMEDIATAMENTE 1	
	antes de retornar?	DENTRO DE 6 MESES	
		PASADO UN AÑO 4	
		NO ESTOY SEGURO(A) 5	
D30	¿Por qué volvería?	TIENE PROPIEDADES ALLA	
(*)	INDAGUE POR OTRAS RAZONES PERO SIN LEER	AMIGOS Y FAMILIA ALLA	
	INDIAGOL I ON OTHER NAZONES FERO SIN LEEK	MEJOR TRABAJO ALLA 4	
	,	MEJOR CALIDAD DE VIDA 5	
	RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	NO ESTÁ FELIZ AQUÍ	
		LE GUSTA MÁS ALLÁ	
		DE ASISTENCIA ACA (ACNUR) 8	
		OTRA, Especifique 9	
D31	¿Cúal es la razón más importante?		
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): Vea D30 y use los códigos	RAZÓN MÁS IMPORTANTE:	→ D34

D32 (*)	¿Cuáles son las razones más importantes para no volver a Colombia? INDAGUE POR OTRAS RAZONES PERO SIN LEER RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	FALTA DE TIERRA 1 FALTA DE VIVIENDA 2 FALTA DE VIVIENDA 2 FALTA DE TRABAJO 3 VIOLENCIA, INSEGURIDAD ALLÁ 4 SERÍA CARO VOLVER 5 TIENE TRABAJO ACÁ 6 TIENE TIERRA ACÁ 7 TIENE NEGOCIOS ACÁ 8 POR ESTUDIOS ACÁ 9 TIENE FAMILIA ACÁ 10 SE CASÓ/UNIÓ ACA 11 OTROS, especifique 12
D33	¿Cúal es la razón más importante? ENTREVISTADOR(A): Vea D32 y use los códigos	RAZÓN MÁS IMPORTANTE
D34	¿Tiene intención de trasladarse a otro lugar del Ecuador o a otro país fuera de Colombia?	SÍ, EN ECUADOR 1 SÍ, A OTRO PAÍS. Cuál? 2 NO 3 NO SABE 4
D35 (*)	¿Por qué razones desearía trasladarse a otro lugar del Ecuador o a otro país fuera de Colombia? INDAGUE POR OTRAS RAZONES PERO SIN LEER RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	CUESTIONES DE TIERRA 1 CUESTIONES DE TRABAJO 2 FAMILIARES/MATRIMONIO 3 MIEDO DE VIOLENCIA 0 O PERSECUCIÓN ACA 4 PROBLEMAS FAMILIARES 5 TIENE PARIENTES ALLA 6 POR EDUCACIÓN 7 MEJORES INGRESOS 8 OTRO, especifique 9
D36	¿Cúando tendría pensado trasladarse?	DENTRO DE 6 MESES 1 ENTRE 6 Y 12 MESES 2 PASADO UN AÑO 3 NO ESTÁ SEGURO 4
D37	¿Sería éste un traslado temporal o definitivo?	TEMPORAL 1 DEFINITIVO 2 NO SABE 3

	MÓDULO E: EMPLEO ACTUAL, Y J	USTO ANTES DE LA SALIDA
E01	¿Ha trabajado al menos cuatro horas en los pasados 7 días, en los que haya cobrado por ello, bien con dinero u otros bienes, incluído comida? Si estaba enfermo, de vacaciones, etc., haga referencia a la más reciente semana de trabajo	Si 1 NO 2
E02	¿Está buscando trabajo u otro mejor trabajo remunerado?	SÍ 1 NO 2
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): PASE A E07 S	II EN E01 CONTESTÓ "NO"
E03	¿Está trabajado principalmente como empleador, empleado, trabajador ocasional sin contrato, vendedor ambulante, o en un negocio o finca propio de su familia?	EMPLEADOR 1 EMPLEADO 2 TRABAJ. OCAS., SIN CONTRATO 3 NEGOCIO FAMILIAR/FINCA 4 VENDEDOR AMBULANTE 5 OTRO, especifique 6
E04	¿En los pasados 7 días, qué tipo de trabajo realizó la mayoría del tiempo?	DESCRIBA AQUÍ EL TIPO DE TRABAJO:
		(CÓDIGO DE LA OFICINA)
E05	¿Qúe tipo de negocio o actividad económica es?	DESCRIBA AQUÍ EL TIPO DE NEGOCIO:
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): PREGUNTE QUÉ TIPO DE PRODUCTOS O SERVICIOS SE OFRECEN	
		(CÓDIGO DE LA OFICINA)
E06	En los pasados 7 días, en ese trabajo, ¿cúantas horas trabajó?	HORAS TRABAJADAS → E08
E07	¿Cúal fué la razón principal por la que no trabajó?	REALIZÓ TRABAJO NO REMUNERADO
E08	En general, ¿qué parte de los gastos del hogar quedan cubiertos con el dinero o especies que obtiene de su trabajo?	CASI NADA 1 MENOS DE LA MITAD 2 LA MITAD 3 MÁS DE LA MITAD 4 TODOS 5 NINGUNA (LO AHORRAN O INVIERTEN) 6
E09	¿Quién decide normalmente cómo gastar los ingresos que usted obtiene?	EL (LA) PROPIO(A) ENTREVISTADO(A) 1 EL ESPOSO/ESPOSA/PAREJA 2 PADRES/SUEGROS 3 OTRA PERSONA 4 ENTRE TODOS, DE FORMA CONJUNTA 5
E10	¿En el año pasado (los últimos 12 meses), usted ha enviado dinero o bienes a algún familiar, sea en Ecuador, Colombia o en otro país?	SI
E11	¿El dinero o bienes que envia lo hace dentro del Ecuador, a Colombia o a otro país?	DENTRO DEL PAÍS 1 A COLOMBIA 2 A OTRO PAÍS, especifique 3

E12 (*)	¿A quién ha mandado dinero o bienes?	a. ESPOSO(A)	
		b. PADRE / MADRE	
	MARCAR NÚMERO DE PERSONAS EN CADA CATEGORÍA QUE CORRESPONDE, SIN LEER	c. HIJOS	
	QUE GONNEGI GIABE, GIN ELEN	d. HERMANOS	
	RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	070000101770	
		e. OTROS PARIENTES	
		f. OTROS NO PARIENTES	
E13	¿Cuándo fue la última vez?	MES AÑO	
E14	¿Cuánto mandó la última vez?	DÓLARES	
	ESTIMAR VALOR SI MANDO BIENES		
E15	¿Cuántas veces envió usted ayuda durante los últimos	No. DE VECES	
	12 meses		
E16	En el período justo antes de salir de Colombia, ¿tuvo algún	Sí 1	
	trabajo por el cual haya cobrado dinero, o recibido		==4
F47	otros bienes, incluido comida?	,	E21
E17	En el período justo antes de salir de Colombia, ¿La cantidad de ingresos o valor de bienes que obtenía era	MUCHO MAS? 1 MÁS? 2	
	mayor o menor de lo que actualmente gana:	LO MISMO MÁS O MENOS?	
		MUCHO MENOS? 5	
- 10		NO RECIBIA DINERO O BIENES	
E18	En el período justo antes de salir de Colombia, ¿Realizó este trabajo principalmente como empleador,	EMPLEADOR	
	empleado, trabajador ocasional, vendedor ambulante, en negocio familiar o en otro tipo de negocio?	TRABAJ. OCAS., SIN CONTRATO	
	on negocio tanimai e cin one upe de negocio.	VENDEDOR AMBULANTE 5	
		OTRO, especifique:6	
E19	¿Qué tipo de trabajo realizaba la mayor parte del tiempo?	DESCRIBA EL TIPO DE TRABAJO:	
		(CÓDIGO DE LA OFICINA)	
E20	¿De qué tipo de negocio o actividad económica se trataba?	DESCRIBA EL TIPO DE NEGOCIO:	
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): PREGUNTE QUE TIPO DE PRODUCTOS Y SERVICIOS SE PRODUCÍAN		
		(CÓDIGO DE LA OFICINA)	E22
E21	En el período justo antes de salir de Colombia,	TAREAS DEL HOGAR,	
	¿Cuál era la razón principal por la que no trabajó?	CUIDADO DE NINOS 1 JUBILADO/MAYOR PARA TRABAJAR 2	
		ERA ESTUDIANTE	PASE A
		NO HABÍA TRABAJO REMUNERADO 5	∕lóldulo F
		DEMASIADO JOVEN PARA TRABAJAR 6 NO NECESITABA TRABAJAR 7	
		OTROS. Especifique 8	

E22	En ese tiempo, ¿qué parte de los gastos del hogar quedaban cubiertos con sus ingresos? MODULO F: RELACION	CASI NADA 1 MENOS DE LA MITAE 2 LA MITAD 3 MAS DE LA MITAD 4 TODOS 5 NADA (NO TENÍA INGRESOS) 6 NADA (INGRESOS SE AHORRABAN) 7 NO RECUERDA 8					
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): COMPRUEBE LA EDAD DEL ENTREVIST			ÑOS Y MA	ÀS AÑOS	1 —	→ G01
F01	En su opinión, ¿está justificado que un hombre pegue a su mujer en alguna de las siguientes situaciones:	SI		NO	No sabe		
a. b.	Si ella sale a ver a amigos(as) sin informarle?	1 1		2 2	8 8		
c. d.	Si no atiende las necesidades de los hijos?	1 1		2	8 8		
e. f. g.	Si se niega a tener relaciones sexuales con su marido/compañero? Si no ha preparado la comida correctamente?) 1 1 1		2 2 2	8 8 8		
F02	ENTREVISTADOR(A): LAS PREGUNTAS F02 Y F03 SON SÓLO PARA CASADOS(AS) O UNIDOS(AS) ACTUALMENTE En su opinión, ¿quién en el hogar toma las decisiones sobre las siguientes cuestiones?	(a) Entrevist.	(b) Esposo/a Compañ/a	(c) Ambos	(d) Otros	(e) NS	
a.	Si se necesita atención médica en el hogar	1	2	3	4	5	
b.	Si un menor necesita cuidado y atención	1	2	3	4	5	
c.	Si una hija/hija va a la escut	1	2	3	4	5	
d.	Si un hijo/hija debe ir a la universidad y a cuál debería ir	1	2	3	4	5	
e.	Compras del hogar, como televisión, nevera o carro	1	2	3	4	5	
f.	Las compras diarias	1	2	3	4 4	5	
g. h.	Si algún miembro del hogar debe migrar a otra parte	1	2	3	4	5 5	
F03	¿Puede usted tomar la iniciativa para hablar con su pareja sobre:	SI		NO		No sabe	
	a. El número de hijos que deberían tener?	1		2		8	
	b. Usar métodos para postergar el embarazo?	1		2		8	
	c. La educación de sus hijos?	1		2		8	
	d. Problemas económicos en la familia?	1		2		8	
	e. Si deberían pedir prestado dinero?	1		2		8	
	f. Si deberían volver a Colombia o no?	1		2		8	

	MÓDULO G: SALUD Y F	ECUNDIDAD
	SALUE)
G01	Por favor dígame, ¿usted ha estado enfermo(a) con fiebre o malaria en los últimos 15 días ?	SI, CON FIEBRE 1 SI, CON MALARIA 2 AMBAS ENFERMEDADES 3 NO 4 → G05
G02 (*)	¿Qué tipo de medicinas usted tomó para curar esta enfermedad:	a. MEDICINAS MODERNAS?
G03	¿Qué tomó usted?	ACETAMINOFEN / ASPIRINA
G04	¿Cuántas veces ha estado usted enfermo con fiebre/malaria en los últimos 15 días?	No. VECES CON FIEBRE No. DE VECES CON MALARIA
G05	¿Ha tenido usted alguna otra enfermedad en los últimos 15 días?	SI
G06	¿Usted ha sido tratado por esa enfermedad?	SI 1 NO 2 → G08
G07	¿A dónde principalmente fué usted por el tratamiento?	ESTABLECIMIENTOS DEL MSP
G08	¿Cuál fue la razón principal por la que usted no se trató la enfermedad?	LA ENFERMEDAD NO ERA SERIA
G09	¿Durante su vida, ha recibido tratamiento contra la tuberculosis, por ejemplo, ha sido vacunado?	SI
G10	En general, ¿cómo usted describiría su condición actual de salud:	EXCELENTE? 1 BUENA? 2 REGULAR? 3 MALA? 4 MUY MALA? 5 NO SABE 8
G11	¿Comparado(a) con otras personas de su misma edad y sexo, usted diría que su salud es mejor, igual o peor?	MEJOR 1 IGUAL 2 PEOR 3 NO SABE 8
G12	¿Tiene usted alguna de las siguientes discapacidades: ENCUESTADOR(A): LOS PROBLEMAS MENTALES SE REFIEREN POR EJEMPLO A FALTA DE MEMORIA.	SI NO SI TODOS

G13	¿Esta(s) discapacidad(des) le limitan trabajar y ganar dinero?	SI 1 NO 2	
G14	¿En general, cómo se ha sentido usted durante los últimos 15 días con relación a su estado de ánimo?	BUENO	
G15	¿La forma en que usted se sentía el últimos 15 días , ha afectado su trabajo o actividad diaria?	SI, TODO EL TIEMPO 1 SI, OCASIONALMENTE 2 NO 3	
	CONOCIMIENTO Y PERCEPCI		
		AÑOS O MÁS DE EDAD	
G16	Ahora me gustaría hablar sobre otros aspectos de salud. ¿Usted conoce o ha oído hablar sobre el VIH/SIDA?	SI	G31
G17	¿Pueden las personas hacer algo para evitar infectarse del VIH/SIDA?	SI 1 NO 2 NO SABE 8	
	Por favor, conteste las siguientes preguntas:	SI NO NR	
G18	¿Se puede evitar infectarse del VIH/SIDA, teniendo un solo compañero o compañera sexual?	1 2 8	
G19	¿Se puede infectar del VIH/SIDA por picadura de mosquitos?	1 2 8	
G20	¿Se puede evitar infectarse del VIH/SIDA, usando el condón cada vez que se tiene relaciones sexuales?	1 2 8	
G21	¿Considera que el virus del VIH/SIDA se transmite a través de transfusiones de sangre?	1 2 8	
G22	¿Pueden las personas infectarse del VIH/SIDA compartiendo la comida con una persona que tiene SIDA?	1 2 8	
G23	¿Es posible que una persona que parece saludable tenga SIDA?	1 2 8	
G24	¿Considera que una persona puede infectarse del VIH/SIDA usando agujas inyectables que usó una persona con SIDA?	1 2 8	
G25	¿Es posible contraer el VIH/SIDA besando a una persona que tiene SIDA?	1 2 8	
G26	¿Considera que el virus que causa el SIDA se puede transmitir de madre a su bebé, durante: a. El embarazo? b. En el momento del parto? c. Dando de lactar?	1 2 8 1 2 8 1 2 8	
G27	¿Sabe usted de alguien que tiene SIDA o de alguna persona que murió de SIDA?	SI	
G28	¿Cree usted que tiene algún riesgo o peligro de infectarse del VIH/SIDA?, ¿El riesgo o peligro es pequeño, moderado, grande, o no tiene ningún riesgo?	PEQUEÑO 1 MODERADO 2 GRANDE 3 NINGÚN RIESGO 4 TIENE SIDA 5	
G29	¿Se ha hecho usted alguna vez en su vida la prueba del VIH/SIDA?	SI	
G30	¿Sabe usted de algún lugar en el Ecuador donde se puede hacer la prueba o examen del VIH/SIDA?	SI	

	CONOCIMIENTO Y USO DE MÉT	ODOS ANTICONCEPTIVOS
G31 (*)	Ahora le voy hacer preguntas acerca de métodos anticonceptivos, es decir, de las cosas que usan las parejas para evitar que la mujer se embarace. ¿Qué métodos anticonceptivos conoce usted? ENTREVISTADOR(A): NO LEA, ESPERE LA RESPUESTA ESPONTÁNEA (RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE) ENTREVISTADOR(A): Revise G31 y registre:	PÍLDORA 1 DIU 2 ESTERILIZACIÓN FEMENINA 3 ESTERILIZACIÓN MASCULINA 4 INYECTABLES 5 CONDÓN MASCULINO 6 MÉTODOS VAGINALES 7 RITMO 8 RETIRO 9 ABSTINENCIA 10 OTRO MÉTODO, especifique 11 E(Ia) informante no conoce
G33	¿Usa actualmente alguno de estos métodos (últimos 30 días)?	ningún método 1 INST1 El(la) informante conoce 2 algún método 2 SI 1 NO 2 G35
G34 (*)	¿Cuál método utiliza? INDAGUE POR OTROS MÉTODOS PERO SIN LEER (RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE)	PÍLDORA 1 DIU 2 ESTERILIZACIÓN FEMENINA 3 ESTERILIZACIÓN MASCULINA 4 INYECTABLES 5 CONDON MASCULINO 6 CONDON FEMENINO 7 MÉTODOS VAGINALES 8 RITMO 9 RETIRO 10 ABSTINENCIA 11 OTRO MÉTODO, especifique 12
G35	¿Conoce usted algún lugar donde se puede adquirir el preservativo o condón?	SI
G36 (*)	¿Dónde se puede adquirir preservativos o condones? INDAGUE POR OTROS LUGARES PERO SIN LEER (RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE)	ESTABLECIMIENTOS DE SALUD DEL SECTOR PUBLICO
G37	¿Puede usted conseguir los condones si los necesitara?	SI
G38	¿Durante los últimos 30 días, ha usado el condón en la última relación sexual?	SI 1 NO 2 G40
G39	¿Cuál es la razón principal por la cual utilizó el condón en la última relación sexual?	EVITAR EL EMBARAZO

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G40	¿Por qué razón principal no usó el condón en la última relación sexual?	NO TUVO REALACIONES 1 DIFÍCIL DE OBTENER 2 DEMASIADO CARO 3 EL(LA) COMPAÑERO(A) SE OPUSO 4 NO LE GUSTA USARLO 5 USA OTROS ANTICONCEPTIVOS 6 NO PENSABA TENER RELACIONES 7 NO LO TOMÉ EN CUENTA 8 NO ES NECESARIO 9 OTRA, Especifique: 10
INST1	ENTREVISTADOR(A): EL(LA) ENTREVISTADO(A) ES HOMBRE O MUJER?	HOMBRE
INST2	ENTREVISTADOR(A): REVISE A15 SI EL(LA) INFORMANTE ES O NO ES CUIDADOR(A) PRINCIPAL DEL NIÑO(A)	CUIDADOR(A) PRINCIPAL
G41	¿Alguna vez ha tenido usted algún aborto?	SI
G42	¿Cuántos abortos usted ha tenido?	NÚMERO DE ABORTOS
	HISTORIA DE NACIMIENTOS, SALU	D MATERNA E INMUNIZACIONES
G43	Ahora quiero preguntarle sobre todos los hijos nacidos vivos que ha tenido en toda la vida. ¿Ha tenido algún nacido vivo?	SI
G44	Hablando de sus hijos que se encuentran vivos, ¿alguno está viviendo con usted?	SI
G45	¿Cuántos hijos y cuántas hijas viven actualmente con usted? SI NO TIENE ANOTE "00"	a. HIJOS EN CASA
G46	¿Tiene hijos propios que actualmente viven en otra parte?	SI 1 NO 2 → G48
G47	¿Cuántos hijos y cuántas hijas viven actualmente en otra parte? SI NO TIENE ANOTE "00"	a. HIJOS FUERA DE CASA b. HIJAS FUERA DE CASA c. TOTAL HIJOS FUERA CASA
G48	¿Tuvo usted hijos(as) que nacieron vivos y que murieron depués, aunque hayan vivido poco tiempo (horas, minutos)?	SI
G49	¿Cuántos de sus hijos y cuántas de sus hijas que nacieron vivos han muerto? SI NO TIENE ANOTE "00"	a. HIJOS QUE MURIERON
G50	SUME TOTALES DE G45, G47 Y G49 Y REGISTRE EL TOTAL.	TOTAL
G51	Para corroborar que los datos están correctos, ¿usted ha tenido en total (VEA G50) hijos o hijas nacidos vivos. ¿Es esto correcto?	SI
G52	¿Está usted actualmente embarazada?	SI 1 NO 2 NO SABE 3

ENTREVISTADOR(A): REVISE Y SIGA LAS INSTRUCCIONES DE SALTO 1. G50 = 00 Y Nº DE LÍNEA EN A15 NO ESTÁ EN CÍRCULO (=NO HIJOS, NO CUIDADORA) 2. G50 = 00 Y Nº DE LÍNEA EN A15 ESTÁ EN CÍRCULO (=NO HIJOS, PERO ES CUIDADORA DE NIÑOS) 3. G50 TIENE VALOR DIFERENTE DE 00				
G53	¿Cuál es la fecha de nacimiento del primer hijo(a) nacido(a) viva(a)? PONER 88 Y 8888 SI NO SABE LA FECHA	MES AÑO		
G54	¿Este hijo(a) está vivo(a) o muerto(a)?	NIÑO(A) ESTÁ VIVO(A)		
G55	¿Cuál es la fecha de nacimiento del último hijo(a) nacido(a) viva(a)? PONER 88 Y 8888 SI NO SABE LA FECHA	MES AÑO		
G56	¿Este hijo(a) está vivo(a) o muerto(a)?	NIÑO(A) ESTÁ VIVO(A) 1 NIÑO(A) ESTA MUERTO(A) 2		
G57	¿Cuántos hijos o hijas nacidos(as) vivos ha tenido usted a partir de ENERO DEL 2001 ?	NÚMERO DE HIJOS(AS)		
G57A	¿Cuántos hijos o hijas nacidos(as) vivos ha tenido usted desde que llegó al Ecuador?	NÚMERO DE HIJOS(AS)		
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): SI NO HAY NACIMIENTOS A PARTIR I	DE ENERO DEL 2001 Módulo H		

	ENTREVISTADOR(A): PONGA EN G58 Y G59 EL NÚNERO DE LÍNEA, NOMBRE Y ESTADO DE SOBREVIVENCIA DE LOS NACIDOS VIVOS A PARTIR DE ENERO DEL 2001, AUNQUE NO ESTÉN VIVOS ACTUALMENTE.						
	Ahora quisiera hacerle preguntas sobre la salud de los hijos(as) nacidos(as) vivos a partir de enero del 2001						
G58	REGISTRE EL NÚMERO DE LÍNEA SEGÚN A01, EN CASO QUE EL NIÑO ESTE VIVO Y VIVA EN EL HOGAR	ÚLTIMO NACIDO VIVO LÍNEA NÚMERO	PENÚLTIMO NACIDO LÍNEA NÚMERO	TERCERO ANTERIOR LÍNEA NÚMERO			
G59	REGISTRE EL NOMBRE Y EL ESTADO DE SOBREVIVENCIA	NOMBRE VIVO MUERTO	NOMB <u>RE</u> VIVO MUERTO	NOMBRE			
G60	¿Quién la atendió a usted durante el embarazo:	BI NO a. DOCTOR? 1 2 b. ENFERMERA? 1 2 c. OBSTETRIZ? 1 2 d. PARTERA? 1 2 e. FAMILIAR? 1 2 f. OTRA? 1 2 g. NADIE? 3 3 PASE A G63					
G61	¿En total, cuántos controles de embarazo tuvo?	NÚMERO DE CONTROLES					
G62	¿En qué mes del embarazo tuvo el primer control prenatal?	MES	 				
G63	ENTREVISTADOR(A): Pida el carné de salud de (NOMBRE) y registre el peso del niño(a) al nacer.	GRAMOS GRAMOS GRAMOS GRAMOS GRAMOS GRAMOS GRAMOS GRAMOS	GRAMOS → G65 SI NO TIENE CARNÉ 8888 Y PASE A G64	GRAMOS G65 SI NO TIENE CARNÉ 8888 Y PASE A G64			
G64	ENTREVISTADOR(A): Si no tiene carné de salud de (NOMBRE), pregunte, ¿cuánto pesó el niño(a) al nacer?	GRAMOS SI NO RECUERDA PONGA 9998	GRAMOS SI NO RECUERDA PONGA 9998	GRAMOS SI NO RECUERDA PONGA 9998			
G65	¿Quién le atendió en el parto de (NOMBRE)? Nadie más?	DOCTOR 1 ENFERMERA 2 OBSTETRIZ 3 PARTERA 4 FAMILIAR 5 PARTO SOLA 6 OTRA PERSONA . 7 NS/NR 8	DOCTOR 1 ENFERMERA 2 OBSTETRIZ 3 PARTERA 4 FAMILIAR 5 PARTO SOLA 6 OTRA PERSONA 7 NS/NR 8	DOCTOR 1 ENFERMERA 2 OBSTETRIZ 3 PARTERA 4 FAMILIAR 5 PARTO SOLA 6 OTRA PERSONA 7 NS/NR 8			
G66	¿Dónde se realizó el nacimiento de (NOMBRE)?	EN LA CASA	EN LA CASA	EN LA CASA			
G67	¿Dígame si (NOMBRE), ha recibido vacunas para prevenir enfermedades?. (recordar que puede haber recibido en las campañas de vacunación).	SI	SI	SI			

Por favor, dígame si (NOMBRE) recibió cualquiera de las siguientes vacunas:					
G68	¿Una inyección para prevenir el sarampión?	SI	SI	SI	
G69	¿La vacuna de BCG contra la tuberculosis, es decir una inyección en el brazo; causa una cicatriz?	SI	SI	SI	
G70	¿La vacuna contra la polio, es decir, gotas en la boca?	SI	SI	SI	
G71	¿La vacuna de DPT, es decir, una inyección en el muslo o nalga, a veces al mismo tiempo que las gotas de la polio?	SI	SI	SI	
INST 3	-	REGRESE A G58 EN LA SIGUIENTE COLUMNA. SI NINGÚN OTRO NACIM. VAYA AL MODULO H	REGRESE A G58 EN LA SIGUIENTE COLUMNA. SI NINGÚN OTRO NACIM VAYA AL MÓDULO H	VAYA AL MÓDULO H	

MODULO H: FICHA DEL NIÑO (MADRES Y CUIDADORES EN EL HOGAR (Vea A15) TODOS LOS NIÑOS EN EDADES ENTRE 0 Y 14 AÑOS Ahora me gustaria hacerle preguntas sobre los niños de este hogar o de los niños que usted cuida en este hogar - Entrevistador(a): Comience con el menor (H01) (H02) (H03) (H04) (H05) (H06) (H07) (H08) (H09) (H10) (H11) Nombre del niño Escriba ¿Qué edad ¿Cuantas vece ¿Tuvo ¿Ha sido ¿Dónde ¿Por qué ¿Ha sido ¿Ha sido ¿Tiene <NOMBRE: <NOMBRE> <NOMBRE> <NOMBRE> el número ha estado medicinas medicado vacunado <NOMBRE>? <NOMBRE> durante <NOMBRE> contra la tomo? cualquier ha sido alguna algún niño(a) enfermo con otra esta tratado? recibió Tuberculosis vez tratado impedimento, fiebre o con enfermedad enfermed.? tratamiento (vacuna como: malaria en 1=Acetaminofen en los BCG) tubercul.? VEA LA COPIE DE últimos 15 o aspirina últimos Vea H07 Vea H08 Vea H11 LA FICHA FICHA días? 2= Quinina 15 días? Códigos Códigos Códigos DEL HOGAR DEL HOGAR 2=Cloroquine abajo abajo abajo PREG. 3=Fansidar 1=SI 1=SI 1=SI 1=SI 2=NO 3= NS 4=Otras (A01) (A05) SI "0" 2=NO 2=NO Pase a 2=NO HO8 ^{ENO} → <NOMBRE> PASE H05 5= Ninguna 3= NS H09 (1) FIEBRE MALAR (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) **CÓDIGOS PARA H07 CÓDIGOS PARA H08 CODIGOS PARA H11** 1= ESTABLECIMIENTOS MSP 1 = LA ENFERMEDAD NO ERA SERIA 0= SIN PROBLEMAS 2= ESTABLECIMIENTOS IESS/SSC 2 = FALTA DE TRANSPORTE 1= VISTA 3= CLÍNICA/MÉDICO PRIVADO 3 = EL COSTO DEL TRANSPORTE 2= OIDO

- 4= BOTICA/FARMACIA
- 5= MEDICINA TRADICIONAL
- 6= AUTOMEDICACIÓN

- 4 : EL COSTO DEL TRATAMIENTO
- 5 : NO CONFIA EN LA MEDICINA/TRATAMIENTO
- 6= RAZONES DE SEGURIDAD
- 7= OTROS

- 3= HABLA
- 4= MOVILIDA 5= COGER ALGO
- 6= PROBLEMAS MENTALES
- 7= MULTIPLE DISCAPACIDADES

MODULO H - FICHA DEL NIÑO(A) (CONTINUACIÓN)						
SOLO	PARA NIÑOS(A	S) ENTRE 5 Y 14 AÑOS DE E	DAD			
(H12)	(H13)	(H14)	(H15)			
¿Cuál es el nivel más alto de estudios que ha aprobado <nombre>? Vea códigos H13 abajo</nombre>	¿Está <nombre> actualmente asistiendo a la escuela? 1=SI → H16 2=NO</nombre>	¿Por qué no estudia <nombre>? 1= trabajando 2= enfermedad/discapacidad 3= escuela muy lejana/no hay escuela 4= costo/no hay dinero 5= falta de documento 6= Tiene que ayudar en la casa/no le dejan 7= Otra. Especifique</nombre>	¿Está vivo el padre de: <nombre>? 1=SI 2=NO 3= NS</nombre>			
CÓDIGO PARA H12 0 INGUNO 1 GUARDERÍA 2 PRIMARIA (incompleta) 3 PRIMARIA (incompleta) 4 SECUNDARIA (incompleta) 5 VOCACIONAL (incompleta) 6 VOCACIONAL (completa)						

	MODULO I: ADAPTACIÓN Y TODAS LAS PERSONAS DE 15	
(*)	¿Cuáles son las necesidades básicas que tiene el hogar acá que usted y los miembros del hogar no pueden satisfacer actualmente? INDAGUE POR OTRAS NECESIDADES, PERO SIN LEER RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	VIVIENDA PROPIA 1 MEJOR VIVIENDA 2 MÁS COMIDA 3 VARIEDAD DE COMIDA 4 TRATAMIENTO MÉDICO 5 MEJORES INGRESOS 6 MEJOR TRABAJO 7 DERECHO A TRABAJAR 8 ESCUELA/COLEGIO PARA LOS HIJOS 9 APOYO LEGAL 10 PROTECCIÓN, SEGURIDAL 11 ROPA Y ZAPATOS 12 OTRA, Especifique: 13 NADA 14
102	¿Han buscado ayuda para satistacer estas necesidades actuales?	SI
103	¿Recibieron alguna ayuda o la están recibiendo actualmente?	SI
(*)	¿Qué ayuda recibieron recientemente? INDAGUE POR OTRAS AYUDAS,PERO SIN LEER RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	VIVIENDA PERMANENTE 1 MEJOR VIVIENDA 2 MÁS COMIDA 3 VARIEDAD DE COMIDA 4 TRATAMIENTO MÉDICO 5 TRABAJO REMUNERADO 6 ESCUELA/COLEGIO PARA LOS HIJOS 7 APOYO LEGAL 8 PROTECCIÓN, SEGURIDAL 9 ROPA Y ZAPATOS 10 OTRA, Especifique 11 NINGUNA 12
105	¿De quién o de qué institución recibió la ayuda o la están recibiendó:	SI NO a. FAMILIARES EN ECUADOR?
106 (*)	¿Por qué no pidió ayuda: INDAGUE POR OTRAS RAZONES, PERO SIN LEER RESPUESTA MÚLTIPLE	NO LA NECESITA?

					SI	NO	1
107	¿Tiene usted dificultades con respecto a:	a. ACCESO	A LA SA	LUD?	1	2	
	6				1	2	
		c. SEGURI			1	2	
		d. ACCESO		BAJO?	1	2	
					1	2	
					? 1	2	
						2	
					1	2	
					1		
		I. FALIA L	JE PRIVA	CIDAD EN CA	ASA? 1	2	
					SI	NO	
108	¿En qué organizacion local participa usted:	a. RELIGIO	SA?		1	2	
		b. ASOCIA	CIÓN DE I	MUJERES?	1	2	
		c. ORGANI	ZACIÓN S	SOCIAL?	1	2	
		d. ORGANI	ZAC. COM	MERCIAL?	1	2	
		e. ORGANI	SMO REC	CREATIVO/CI	ULTURAL		
					1	2	
				POLITICA?	1	2	
					S?1	2	1
					OS? 1		1
					US:1	2	1
		i. OTRA, E			1	2	
		J. INO PAR	HOIPA		1	2	
109	Dígame hasta qué punto las siguientes afirmaciones						1
	responden a su situación. Dígame si no está de acuerdo,	NO ESTÁ	ALGO DE		TOTAL-		1
	si está algo de acuerdo, esta de acuerdo o	DE	ACHEDDO				
	totalmente de acuerdo	ACUERDO	TOOLINGO		ACUERDO		
а							
a	Puedo resolver casi todos los problemas si realmente lo intento	1	2	3	4		
							1
b	Tengo confianza en que puedo afrontar hechos y cuestiones	1	2	3	4		
	imprevistas						-
С	Aunque alguien se oponga a mi, cuento con argumentos	1	2	3	4		
	y medios para conseguir lo que quiero	-					
d	Cuando me enfrento a un problema, normalmente puedo	1	2	3	4		
	considerar distintas soluciones				•		
е	Si tuviera la necesidad de trasladarme dentro del	1	2	3	4		
	Ecuador, conseguiría la forma de hacerlo	'	2	3	4		
f	Si tuviera la necesidad de trasladarme a otro	4	2	3	4		1
	país fuera del Ecuador, puedo conseguir la forma de hacerlo	1	2	3	4		
g	Si me encontrara con problemas a la hora de transladarme,						
9	podría pensar en varias soluciones,	1	2	3	4		
h	Si me encontrara con obstáculos en el momento de buscar						1
"	un nuevo sitio donde vivir, podría vencerlos	1	2	3	4		1
	los obstáculos si dedico el suficiente esfuerzo	'	2	3	7		1
i							1
'	Tengo confianza que puedo desarrollar mi vida viviendo	1	2	3	4		1
, ,	en este lugar						-
j	Cuando llego a un nuevo lugar, me aseguro de no	1	2	3	4		
,	depender de otros						ł
k	Si me trasladara a otro lugar, puedo	1	2	3	4		
	adaptarme sin problemas				•		
1	Si en algún momento me viera obligado a ir a otro lugar	1	2	3	4		1
	puedo reiniciar mi vida de nuevo				•		
I10	¿Se siente usted seguro/tranquilo viviendo aquí?	SI				1	
1.0	Coo sistilo dotod oogalo, tranquilo viviondo aqui:	-				2	1
		140					<u></u>
14.4		- C					
I11	¿Alguna vez le han robado o han entrado a su vivienda	SI				1	1
	mientras vive aquí?	NO				2	1
							
l12	¿Alguna vez le han robado o asaltado fuera de su	SI				1	1
	vivienda?	NO				2	1
					***************************************	-	
I13	¿Alguna vez se ha sentido amenazado en este lugar?	SI				1	
	• · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·					2	1.1

		_ 1 1
114	¿Tiene miedo:	SI NO 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
I15	¿Le han maltratado físicamente en los últimos 30 días?	SI
I16	En la última semana , ¿cuántas veces ha tomado usted bebidas alcohólicas (cerveza, aguardiente, ron, wisky, etc.)?	NINGUNA VEZ 1 UNA VEZ 2 DOS VECES 3 VARIAS VECES 4 CADA DÍA 5
117	SOLO PARA MUJERES ¿En los últimos 30 días, ha estado expuesta física o verbalmente a demandas de favores sexuales, cuando usted no quería?	SI
	ENTREVISTADOR(A): EVALÚI	E ESTA ENTREVISTA
PEV1	¿Cómo se ha desarrollado en general esta entrevista?	DE FORMA RELAJADA 1 NORMAL, NADA ESPECIAL 2 TENSA 3
PEV2	¿Ha habido otras personas presentes durante o parte de la entrevista?	NO 1 SI SOLO NIÑOS 2 SI, UNO O MÁS ADULTOS 3
	FIN DE LA ENTREVISTA CO CONTINÚE CON LA SIGUIENTE	

Estimate of the population of Colombians in Ecuador in 2006 and of those in need of protection

It is important to have good estimates of the number of recent migrants from Colombia as well as the extent to which they are in need of protection and assistance, for purposes of programme planning of activities of UNHCR in Ecuador and for the development of policies by Ecuadorian government agencies and interested non-governmental organizations. Unfortunately, as in many countries receiving international migrants who are largely undocumented, Ecuador does not have reliable data on either the stock of Colombians living in the country or the annual flows of migrants from Colombia and to Colombia along the largely open and unpatrolled border.

The last census of population and housing in Ecuador, on November 25, 2001, collected information on all residents and asked where they were born and where they had lived 5 years earlier. This provides data on the number of persons born in Colombia (lifetime migrants) as well as on the number who lived in Ecuador at that time who had lived in Colombia on November 25, 1996. The latter is an estimate of the number of Colombians who had come into Ecuador to live during that five year period, 1996-2001. It is not a net estimate since it does not take into account Colombians who had lived in Ecuador in 1996 but moved back to Colombia or on to third countries in the five year period prior to November 25, 2001. It is also not a very reliable estimate to the extent some Colombians living in Ecuador on November 25, 2001, did not want to be enumerated, perhaps out of a false worry that if they were enumerated, they would be found out by the Ecuadorian government authorities, such as the Ministry of Foreign Affairs or the border police and deported. Since the INEC census data are completely confidential, there is no basis for such a worry. Nevertheless, the reality is that international migrants without legal papers are afraid of being discovered and are therefore probably are not fully enumerated in any country of the world. Thus the Ecuadorian census of population and housing in 2001 likely missed many Colombians.

Nevertheless, it is a source of data that cannot be ignored and indeed was used to establish the sampling frame for the survey whose results are presented in this monograph.

The first methodology to test is based on survey data here as well as data from the 2001 census of population and housing. The census was used to select a sample of 105 census sectors in the five provinces with the largest percentages of Colombians living in Ecuador at that time (see Annex 1). Using these data to estimate the change in the Colombian population from the census to the time of

the household survey in early 2006 requires accepting the assumption that the change in the Colombian population in our sample areas (census sectors) is the same as in Ecuador as a whole. That in turn requires accepting the assumption that the percentage change in the Colombian population in the areas which we sampled —precisely because they had, at the time of the census, relatively large proportions of Colombians (each over 3%)— is the same as the percentage change in sectors which did not enter our sampling frame, viz., all census sectors with fewer than 3% Colombians in Ecuador in 2001; and is the same in the five provinces included in the survey here as in all 21 provinces. While it is true that the five sample provinces account for most of the Colombian migrants who arrived in the years before the census, to the extent that Colombian immigrants are internally mobile within Ecuador after they arrive, then many if not most of those that arrived in 1996-2001 would have spread out over other provinces of Ecuador in the years between 2001 and our survey date in 2006. It is therefore not likely that our assumption is valid, but rather that the percentage growth has been higher in other provinces (and other census sectors) in the period 2001-2006 than in our sample sectors.

The most plausible way to estimate the change in the Colombian population from November 25, 2001 to the mean time of the main survey (excluding the snowball phase at the end) which is about mid February, 2006 (or 4 years plus 2.5 months, or 50.5 months) is to compare the number of households of Colombians in the two years. Based on the household *listing* operation in the field, the total number of households containing one or more adult Colombians in early 2006 was 522, distributed as indicated among the provinces (see Table A.IV.1). Table A.IV.1 thus shows that the number of households increased only 29% between the years, or at an annual rate of 6.1 per cent. The data suggest that the dynamics of the Colombian population varied enormously across the five study provinces. The number of Colombians appeared to fall in two key study provinces, in Carchi and Pichincha (which includes Quito), while it increased in the other three, notably in Sucumbios, where it more than doubled (the increase in Imbabura is not very reliable given the small number of sectors). The latter is not surprising to anyone venturing to Lago Agrio, or even closer to the border, such as in General Farfán, where the population of Colombians is most evident in many respects, including in the arepas and music.

Table A.IV.1 Number of Colombian households

Province	Number of	Census	Survey	Percent
Fiovince	census sectors	2001	2006	Change
Carchi	27	92	73	-20.7
Esmeraldas	7	29	41	41.4
Imbabura	7	19	39	105.3
Pichincha	36	134	103	-23.1
Sucumbios	28	130	266	104.6
Total	105	404	522	29.2

In the case of Pichincha, problems may have occurred even in the identification of households containing Colombians during the listing operation, as there were massive refusals of households identified as having Colombians to be interviewed. Thus in the main stage I of the survey (see Annex I), 72 households were successfully interviewed in Pichincha and 23 refused, for a refusal rate of 24%, which is unusually high. Immigrant families who were well off in Quito were the ones most likely to refuse to be interviewed. In Imbabura there were 5 refusals compared to 30 completed interviews, for a refusal rate of 14%. On the other hand, in the other three provinces there were only 11 refusals compared to 247 successful interviews, or a refusal rate of only 4%. A plausible conclusion from this is that the population of Colombians in Pichincha (Quito especially) is likely to be underestimated in the survey, as well as not well represented in terms of socio-economic status.

If one bears in mind that the 2001 Ecuadorian census must have significantly under enumerated the Colombian population, including recent migrants who had arrived in the 1996-2001 reference period, then it is evident that this present methodology does not yield plausible estimates of the Colombian population for Ecuador as a whole in 2006. Thus it seems likely that that population of recently arrived Colombians increased by much more than the 29% implied by the methodology above. That 29% figure applied to the stock of *recent* migrants from Colombia who had arrived in the five years prior to the November 2001 census (18,523¹⁷) would imply an increase to 23,895 Colombians coming (and

This amounted to less than one-fifth of one per cent of the Ecuadorian population aged 5+ enumerated in the census. It should be noted that this has nothing to do with the proportion of Colombians living in Ecuador, which is a *stock* concept and includes the

not returning to Colombia or migrating onward to third countries) over the fiveyear period prior to approximately February 15, 2006. This would imply a mean net increase of Colombians in Ecuador of 4,779 persons annually (ignoring mortality after arrival) from February 15, 2001 to February 15, 2006. This contrasts with mean net inflows of about 83 thousand per year in 2001-2005 according to admission statistics (see below). Indeed, the survey-based estimate here is lower even than the mean number of Colombians entering Ecuador applying for asylum in that time period (over 7 thousand).

A second methodology was also explored, based on entirely different data, viz., admission (border) statistics. If data from entrances and exits of Colombians are cumulated each year from 1978 to 2005, they show a net inflow of Colombians of 20, 176 in 1978, which reached 631,636 cumulated to the beginning of 1990, 1,750,432 by January 1, 2000 and 2,294,992 by the end of 2005. This would amount to about one in six persons in Ecuador, which would be extraordinary. There is no doubt that the correct figure is much lower than this. It is likely than many Colombians returned to their country or migrated on to third countries. This could have been done without checking through border crossing points or international airports, in which case the number of departures is underestimated. Unfortunately, there is no way of determining this, nor therefore of know how much of an exaggeration the figure of 2.3 million Colombians in Ecuador is.

Another approach using admission/border statistics is to only deal with the past six years, which is the time when the violence in Colombia has surged and led to an upsurge in Colombian migrants going to Ecuador, many fleeing violence. And since UNHCR mainly assists people in need of protection in their early period after arrival, the recent fluxes of Colombians are the most relevant. Table A.IV.2 thus makes a fresh go of it, incorporating data on asylum seekers and refugees with the previous data on entries and departures of Colombians, each year from 2000 to 2005. The top columns show for each year the numbers of people seeking asylum, the number granted asylum as refugees and the number whose applications for asylum were denied. (The balance is pending applications for asylum, e.g., 25 in 2000.) As the number of asylum seekers rose dramatically to a peak in 2003, the *proportion* recognized as refugees —the rate of approval— declined, with the lowest figures in the middle peak years near one in five.

Table A IV 1	Projection of none	lation needing pro	tection based on	admission statistics,	2000 - 2005
1 4016 11.1 4.1	1 rojection of popu	idiion needing pro	ieciion buseu on	aumission siansiics,	2000 - 2003

Line	Formula	Population group	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005 ³	Total
A		Asylum Seekers ¹	475	3,017	6,766	11,463	7,853	7,091	36,665
В		Refugees recognized ¹	390	1,406	1,578	3,326	2,496	2,486	11,682
С		Applications denied ¹	60	394	1,199	4,392	4,207	2,669	12,921
D	B/A	Rate of approval	82.11%	46.60%	23.32%	29.02%	31.78%	35.06%	41.31%4
Е		Entries ²	191,501	182,316	197,080	205,353	179,442	164,123	1,119,815
F		Departures ²	64,220	76,138	81,861	88,135	140,138	124,763	575,255
G	E-F	Net migration	127,281	106,178	115,219	117,218	39,304	39,360	544,560
Н	G-A	Population base for computation	126,806	103,161	108,453	105,755	31,451	32,269	507,895
I	HxD	Others with need for protection	104,114	48,076	25,294	30,685	9,996	11,313	209,835
J	A-C+I	Total population with need for protection	104,529	50,699	30,861	37,756	13,642	15,735	233,579
K		Total accumulated population with need		155,228	186,089	223,845	237,487	253,222	
K		for protection		155,226	100,089	223,043	231,461	233,222	

Source: Refugee data base, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Source: Annual Yearbook on International Migration, 2000-2004, INEC.

³ Source: Statistics of Migration Police.

⁴ Unweighted average of values for 2000-2005.

Rows E-G show the admission statistics, with G showing the net migration of Colombians each year. The method then estimates the potential unmet need for protection by subtracting those who have applied as asylum seekers, who are thereby known in the system to be seeking protection. The balance is the population base (126,808 in 2000), which if multiplied by the rate of approval in that year (82% 18) provides a rough estimate of those needing protection who are outside the system, viz., have not applied (104,114). To this are added asylum seekers minus those denied asylum (415), to provide an estimate of those needing protection in that year, which for 2000 is 104,529. This process is continued each year, with the new net numbers needing protection added each year and cumulated, resulting in the bottom row numbers in the table. The cumulated number needing protection by this methodology was 253 thousand by the end of 2005. Thus if all Colombians arriving before January 1, 2000, are ignored and all those arriving since then are considered worthy of evaluation for protection, then a quarter of a million Colombians would be estimated as being in need of protection through this methodology.

This must be considered an upper limit, however, given that UNHCR in Ecuador has not been providing *long-term* assistance (e.g., to those applying, or not applying, who arrived in 2000, 2001, 2002....). Moreover, UNHCR probably could not realistically assist such a large number of persons, so some adjustments seem in order: Thus the total *cumulated* number of persons ever receiving assistance as refugees over the six-year period was only 11,682, or about a third of those actually applying for asylum, with another third rejected and the remaining third in limbo, or with applications in process or no longer being pursued.

One way to use the data more realistically could be to ignore all the values before 2004, which would result in net migrants in 2004-5 combined of 79 thousand, including 15 thousand applying for asylum, or about 20%. The number of persons actually granted refugee status in the two years was only 5

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It does not make sense to apply this approval rate, based on such a tiny population applying for asylum, to the entire population of Colombians registered as entering Ecuador in this year, which was about 250 times as many. Such an assumption would imply that the rest of the population is equally likely to qualify for assistance as the small number applying. This problem exists with the "rate of approval" for all other years as well. The numbers are all accepted here at face value for purposes of using this exercise to obtain an upper bound estimate of Colombians in Ecuador and in need of protection.

thousand (4,982), or a third of those applying. The data from the survey conducted in 2006 suggest that many other people say they intend to apply and refer to themselves in the survey as refugees or asylum seekers, accounting for a total of up to 40% of Colombian migrants (see section 1.2). If this 40% figure is applied to the 64 thousand who did not apply for asylum in 2004-05, that would imply that an additional 25 thousand recent Colombian migrants are in need of protection, for a total of 30 thousand out of the 79 thousand, but with only 5 thousand recognized as refugees. This would indicate a gap, or unmet need, of 30-5=25 thousand persons for just the past two years combined, or about 12,500 per year. Even meeting this need may be well beyond the current resources of UNHCR in Ecuador, which have attended to only 2,500 each year according to Table A.IV.2.

This estimate cannot be considered to be cast in stone. By assuming that all Colombians arriving before 2004 are not eligible, the estimate is too low to the extent that assumption is not strictly appropriate. On the other hand, it does not consider the effects of unobserved emigration of Colombians who arrived in 2004-2005 and then left, which would make it an overestimate. In the absence of any better estimate, however, perhaps it is the best estimate available at this juncture.

There are various ways in which the survey data could be used, some alluded to in the text, to better determine the population in need of economic assistance, if not of protection. For example, the discussion above does not take into account the situations of those Colombians (as in the survey here) who have *not* applied for protection, which is over half the total. One simple way to use the survey data for this purpose could be to consider all those non-refugees living in extreme poverty as in need of (economic) assistance if not also of protection in other ways. Data from Table 4.2 indicate that 36% of those households who have not applied for asylum have incomes below \$1 per day per capita and are hence classified as in extreme poverty. This would lead to considering 36% of those other Colombian migrants as needing assistance, or another $.36 \times .79 = 28$ thousand cumulated over the two years. But if the income data are used in this fashion, then it would seem justified to not assist those refugees who have good incomes, say above \$2 per capita per day. This would be about 25% of those granted protection (perhaps of those who needed it only for a few months at first after arriving), which would mean dropping about 1.2 thousand. The net effect of using such a purely income or needs based criterion would be to provide assistance to nearly 57 thousand of the 79 thousand. However, it is not practical to use such an income-based criterion publicly: Once the word got out, many would apply for assistance, meanwhile hiding their sources of income and declaring themselves poor.

However, the need for assistance is itself multidimensional and complex, so any such uni-dimensional criterion is not practical nor appropriate. However, further discussion of procedures for determining those actually in need of assistance based on the survey data is beyond the scope of this monograph.